

A Systematic Review of Factors Influencing Utilization of Maternal Health Services in Bangladesh

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### **Abstract**

Maternal health remains a pressing public health priority in Bangladesh, where despite significant progress in reducing maternal mortality, inequities in healthcare utilization continue to undermine outcomes. This systematic review critically examines the determinants of maternal healthcare service use antenatal care (ANC), skilled birth attendance (SBA), and postnatal care (PNC) drawing on 17 empirical studies published between 2015 and 2025. Studies were identified through searches of APA PsycINFO, EBSCOhost, MEDLINE, as well as CINAHL, screened using PRISMA 2020 guidelines, and appraised with the Joanna Briggs Institute (JBI) tools.

Findings reveal a dual set of enablers and barriers shaping service utilization. Positive factors included maternal and spousal education, higher household wealth, urban residence, media exposure, male involvement, and community outreach, alongside health system readiness. In contrast, poverty, rural and coastal residence, limited autonomy, entrenched cultural norms, inadequate facility capacity, and disaster vulnerability consistently hindered access. Across studies, ANC uptake ranged from 25% to 51%, SBA from 21% to 53%, and PNC within 48 hours remained below 40%.

The review underscores the need for integrated strategies combining health system strengthening, women's empowerment, and targeted interventions for vulnerable groups. These insights provide an evidence base to guide Bangladesh toward achieving Sustainable Development Goal 3.1 by 2030.

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### LIST OF FUGURES

FIGURE 1: PRISMA Flow Chart

### LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

### **Abbreviation Full Form**

ANC Antenatal Care

SBA Skilled Birth Attendance / Skilled Birth Attendant

PNC Postnatal Care

MHS Maternal Health Services

MHC Maternal Healthcare

BDHS Bangladesh Demographic and Health Survey

BMICS Bangladesh Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey

BAHWS Bangladesh Adolescent Health and Wellbeing Survey

DHS Demographic and Health Survey

WHO World Health Organization

UNICEF United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund

MoHFW Ministry of Health and Family Welfare (Bangladesh)

PRISMA Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses

JBI Joanna Briggs Institute

mHealth Mobile Health

SDG Sustainable Development Goals

RCT Randomized Controlled Trial

OR Odds Ratio

### **Abbreviation Full Form**

AOR Adjusted Odds Ratio

CI Confidence Interval

FBD Facility-Based Delivery

CHW Community Health Worker

TT Tetanus Toxoid

IFA Iron and Folic Acid

FGDs Focus Group Discussions

IDIs In-Depth Interviews

KIIs Key Informant Interviews

RMNCH-N Reproductive, Maternal, Neonatal, Child Health and Nutrition

### **CHAPTER 1**

### **INTRODUCTION**

### 1.1 Background

Maternal health remains one of the most pressing global health priorities and a key indicator of equity, social development, and health system performance (Jolivet et al., 2025). Despite decades of investment, maternal mortality remains unacceptably high, with approximately 287,000 women dying worldwide in 2020 due to largely preventable causes related to pregnancy and childbirth (WHO, 2023). Almost 95% of these deaths occurred in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs), underscoring the entrenched disparities between high-income and resource-constrained settings (Bartlett et al., 2023). Global commitments, particularly the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 3.1, aim to reduce the maternal mortality ratio (MMR) to fewer than 70 deaths per 100,000 live births by 2030. However, progress remains uneven, with many LMICs—especially in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia—still facing systemic and structural barriers to achieving these targets (Dhar et al., 2025).

In South Asia, maternal health still represents persistent disparities in access and use of health care (Aftab et al., 2025). The region contributes to almost one-third of all deaths in childbirth, even though it has made enormous progress in the last 30 years (WHO, 2022). India had its MMR at 556 in 1990 and 103 in 2020, and Nepal had its 553 to 186 in the same years (World Bank, 2022). But like other countries in the region, both countries are still struggling to provide universal access to basic maternal health services, such as antenatal care (ANC), skilled birth attendance (SBA), and postnatal care (PNC). The rural-urban disparities, deeprooted gender structures, and socio-economic differences are of primary concern to safe motherhood in South Asia (Specialpedagogik, 2025). The context of the region helps in giving a comparative analysis of the progress and the challenges that Bangladesh is facing.

Bangladesh has also achieved great steps towards maternal health outcomes, which can be considered one of the success stories in this region. The MMR in the country dropped to 115 per 100,000 live births in 2023, compared to 574 in 1990, reflecting an 80 percent decrease (UNICEF, 2023). This has been made possible by the community-based programmes, increases in the number of trained birth attendants, and investments in emergency birth attendants. However, even with this, the maternal mortality is still far above the SDG 3.1

target of 70, indicating that Bangladesh still has much work to do to achieve global targets. Additionally, maternal morbidity, such as obstetric fistula, anaemia, and persistent reproductive health issues, has still been skewed against marginalised women (Osakwe, 2021).

Maternal healthcare services usage is a key determinant of maternal outcomes, but evidence shows that there are still gaps in Bangladesh. The Bangladesh Demographic and Health Survey (BDHS) 2017–18 notes that just 25 per cent of women received at least four ANC visits, which is a substantially high percentage compared to 13 per cent in 2012 but remains far short of the WHO-suggested level (Islam & Masud, 2018). Likewise, the percentage of SBA coverage rose in the period between 2007 and 2017/18 (53 and 21, respectively). However, the PNC is the least used, as few women obtain care within 48 hours of childbirth, the deadline during which maternal and neonatal mortalities can be prevented (NIPORT et al., 2020). These numbers reflect a twofold story: significant improvements in service uptake, but with inadequate coverage to make maternal health protection equitable and universal.

More importantly, inequalities in usage represent structural inequalities. Compared to rural women, urban women are far more prone to SBA, and its coverage is 68 per cent among urban women (Alam et al., 2022). Income inequalities are also quite pronounced, and women in the richest quintile are twice as likely to use ANC services and SBA as the poorest households (WHO, 2023; Holden, 2023). It turns out that education is one of the most significant factors influencing service uptake: women with secondary or higher education face a significantly higher likelihood of engaging in ANC visits and childbirth in a facility, and women with no education are at the highest risk (Kumatso, 2025). The findings indicate that advancement in maternal health is highly correlated with the overall socioeconomic development, gender equality, and educational levels.

In addition to socioeconomic differences, cultural and gender norms have a significant influence on maternal healthcare use. Women will still face barriers to timely access to care in conservative rural communities because of their limited autonomy, limited mobility, and dependence on husbands or elders when making decisions about their health (Geremew et al., 2025). These dynamics are similar to trends in South Asia, where it is a patriarchal system that continues to be a primary factor influencing health-seeking behaviour (Chaturvedi et al., 2025). These structural inequalities interact with these cultural barriers, increasing inequity within marginalised populations.

The health system in Bangladesh is itself a demonstration of systemic weaknesses that contribute to more severe maternal health inequities. Government health spending is still at 2.4% of GDP, one of the lowest in the world, and three-quarters of total health expenditure comes at the cost of household out-of-pocket spending (World Bank, 2022; Lalthapersad-Pillay, 2021). The impact of this financial burden is not distributed evenly, and low-income families are more likely to suffer at its hands, as they might end up postponing or missing out on necessary maternal healthcare. Moreover, in rural locations, the quality and continuity of care are adversely impacted by chronic shortages of skilled personnel, essential medicines, and diagnostic services (Adhikari et al., 2024). Geographic barriers further contribute to the exclusion, with communities in remote Char (riverine islands) and Haor (wetlands) regions and disaster-prone coastal belts continuing to have no, or slow, physical access to timely and quality maternal health care. Climate change-related effects such as flooding and salinity intrusion also contribute to these geographic vulnerabilities by limiting access to healthcare facilities(Anik et al., 2023).

### 1.2 Rationale of the Study

Although incredible gains have been achieved to date in ensuring that maternal mortality has been averted in the last thirty years, Bangladesh has still been plagued by unresolved inequalities as far as maternal healthcare uptake is concerned. According to national statistics, 25% of women received at least four antenatal care (ANC) visits, 53% of women received skilled birth attendance (SBA), and less than 40% of women received timely postnatal care (PNC) (NIPORT et al., 2020). These averages obscure pronounced disparities: urban SBA coverage is at 68%, and rural coverage is at 52% (Alam et al., 2022). Likewise, wealthier households are at least two and one-half times more likely to utilise ANC and SBA services than women in the poorest quintile (WHO, 2023). Such inequities still exist, indicating that Bangladesh has not been progressing equally, with vulnerable women, especially rural, coastal, and marginalised ones, remaining disproportionately exposed.

These disparities are significant because of structural barriers. Health facilities in rural or disaster-prone areas may be limited, and their access can be further hindered by climate-related issues, like flooding or cyclones (Alam et al., 2022; Hossain et al., 2024). Maternal health service use is limited in urban slums due to the overcrowding of slums, the dominance of informal providers, and a lack of awareness (Mistry et al., 2021; McNab et al., 2022). These structural barriers are heightened by the norms of culture and gender. Most women

lack the autonomy to make healthcare decisions, and they rely on their husbands or the older generation to grant them permission to seek care, often delaying or denying them the opportunity to access care on time (Geremew et al., 2025). These barriers have exposed maternal healthcare access as being influenced by service availability as well as profoundly ingrained social and cultural processes.

The current literature has identified these determinants, albeit in a perfunctory manner. Other studies highlight individual drivers of change like education or income, whereas others concentrate solely on supply-side issues such as workforce shortages or facility preparedness (Chaturvedi et al., 2025). The intersection of these demand- and supply-side factors is very infrequently studied, which is important in the context of the complexity of maternal health utilisation (Cheruto, 2021). Moreover, the evidence is spread out across study designs with little integration to derive a coherent national policy. This fractured literature base limits policymakers, who might be tempted to look for piecemeal solutions to the multi-dimensional nature of barriers, which could include, but not be limited to, the use of financial subsidies, awareness campaigns, or digital health initiatives (Hollimon et al., 2025; Abreh et al., 2025). Such highly focused policies in a resource-constrained situation such as Bangladesh can easily become ineffective, unsustainable, or poorly suited to the realities of women.

To fill in these evidence gaps, this review will synthesise empirical research on maternal healthcare utilisation in Bangladesh published in the last five years (2015-25). It integrates results from 17 studies by other researchers into a single consistent body of evidence that combines findings of quantitative, qualitative, quasi-experimental, and mixed-method designs. Unlike fragmented single-focus studies, this review examines a wide range of determinants, including socioeconomic status, education, cultural and gender norms, geographic barriers, and health system readiness, offering a holistic understanding of both enablers and barriers to ANC, SBA, and PNC use.

The rationale for this review rests on three pillars. First, comprehensiveness: synthesizing evidence across designs and populations enables a more nuanced picture of maternal healthcare utilization than any single study can provide. Second, policy relevance: Bangladesh stands at a critical juncture as it strives to meet SDG 3.1, which targets reducing the maternal mortality ratio to fewer than 70 per 100,000 live births by 2030. Achieving this requires policies grounded in integrated, context-specific evidence, especially for underserved groups. Third, rigor and transparency: this review follows the PRISMA 2020

guidelines (Page et al., 2021) and applies the JBI critical appraisal tools for quality assessment, ensuring reliability and methodological consistency.

Importantly, the review pays special attention to vulnerable and marginalized groups that are often overlooked in national surveys and policy planning. Women living in disaster-prone coastal belts face barriers such as salinity intrusion, flooding, and facility inaccessibility, which exacerbate health risks and limit service use (Hossain et al., 2024). Urban slum residents, on the other hand, often rely on unregulated private or informal providers, highlighting the need for stronger oversight and community-based interventions (Mistry et al., 2021). Adolescents and first-time mothers, who often lack knowledge, autonomy, and financial resources, represent another under-researched group requiring tailored interventions (Geremew et al., 2025). By including studies that address these populations, this review contributes evidence that is both nationally relevant and crucial for advancing health equity.

### 1.3 Aim, Objectives, and Research Questions

#### Aim

To systematically review the factors influencing (both negative/positive or barriers and facilitators) the utilization of maternal healthcare services (ANC, SBA, and PNC) among Bangladeshi women of reproductive age.

### **Objectives**

- i. To examine the negatively influencing factors (barriers) affecting maternal health service utilization in Bangladesh.
- ii. To assess the positively influencing factors (facilitators) affecting maternal health service utilization in Bangladesh.
- iii. To consolidate and synthesize existing empirical evidence to inform future policy and programmatic interventions aimed at improving equitable access to maternal healthcare services.

### **Research Questions**

What factors facilitate maternal healthcare utilization in Bangladesh, and what barriers continue to hinder women from accessing these essential services?

### **CHAPTER 2**

#### **METHODOLOGY**

#### 2.1. Study Design

This review adopted a **systematic review** (**SR**) **design**, considered the gold standard in evidence synthesis because it minimizes bias, ensures replicability, and enables transparent reporting of methods and findings (Page et al., 2021). A systematic review was particularly appropriate given the wide range of studies published on maternal healthcare utilization in Bangladesh, which span community-based surveys, nationally representative demographic health surveys, qualitative explorations, and mixed-method studies. Conducting a new primary study would have added limited value; instead, systematically consolidating existing knowledge allows for the identification of recurring determinants, contradictions across contexts, and areas where evidence remains weak or absent.

The review sought to go beyond description to offer a **critical synthesis** of findings. Quantitative studies were valued for their ability to measure prevalence, associations, and predictors of healthcare utilization, often using large nationally representative samples such as the Bangladesh Demographic and Health Survey (BDHS). At the same time, qualitative and mixed-methods evidence was considered essential for uncovering cultural, gendered, and structural dynamics often missed in survey data. This integration of methodological traditions reflects the recognition in public health that complex behaviors such as healthcare utilization cannot be understood from a single evidence stream (Hanckel et al., 2021).

#### 2.2 Research Framework

The review was structured using the **PEO framework (Population, Exposure, Outcome)**, which is widely applied in public health reviews where the goal is to understand determinants rather than evaluate interventions (Bettany-Saltikov & McSherry, 2016). The **population** of interest was defined as women of reproductive age (15–49 years) in Bangladesh, regardless of parity or socioeconomic status. The **exposures** of interest included socioeconomic factors (education, income, household head's literacy), geographic and infrastructural factors (urban/rural residence, disaster-prone locations, distance to facility), and cultural and gendered influences (autonomy, decision-making power, beliefs around pregnancy). The **outcomes** examined were utilization of key maternal health services: antenatal care (ANC), skilled birth attendance (SBA), and postnatal care (PNC).

PEO was chosen instead of PICO because the review did not focus on the effectiveness of specific clinical interventions but rather on **patterns of utilization** and barriers across contexts. This framework enabled the incorporation of more diverse evidence, such as cross-sectional surveys, qualitative research, and explanatory mixed-method designs, as the issue of maternal healthcare access is multifaceted.

### 2.3 Databases and Search Strategy

A rigorous and extensive search policy was utilised to find research on factors that affect the utilisation of maternal healthcare in Bangladesh. This was aimed at making sure that a wide scope of appropriate peer reviews and grey literature was taken into account and that it represented different study designs and approaches. The strategy was organised as a process and was guided by the PRISMA 2020 guidelines to maintain transparency, replicability, and comprehensiveness (Page et al., 2021).

### 2.3.1 Electronic Databases

The literature search covered three major academic databases, so a systematic search strategy was developed in order to cover the relevant literature as completely as possible. The MEDLINE, APA PsycINFO, CINAHL, and Scopus databases were searched since all of them include biomedical, psychological, nursing, and multidisciplinary studies related to the maternal health issue. Moreover, institutional sources such as the World Health Organisation (WHO), UNICEF, and the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare (MoHFW), Bangladesh, were also searched to retrieve reports, appraisals, and policy documents that may not be listed in peer-reviewed journals.

### **Search Parameters & Keywords**

The search was limited to **English-language publications between 2015 and 2025**, aligning with the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) era and contemporary policy reforms in Bangladesh. Boolean operators, truncations, and MeSH terms were used to capture variations in terminology. For example, one MEDLINE search string was: ("maternal healthcare services" OR "antenatal care" OR "skilled birth attendance" OR "postnatal care") AND ("Bangladesh") AND ("determinants" OR "utilization" OR "barriers").

Table 2.1: Search terms and keywords based on the PEO Framework

PEO	Search Terms/keywords
Element	
Population	"women", "female", "mothers", "reproductive age", "pregnant women",
	"Bangladesh"
Exposure	"barriers", "determinants", "wealth index", "accessibility", "influencing
	factors", "facilitators", "socioeconomic factors", "education", "decision-
	making", "cultural norms", "gender roles", "access to health services",
	"healthcare availability"
Outcome	"maternal health services", "antenatal care", "postnatal care", "skilled birth
	attendance", "institutional delivery", "service utilization", "healthcare
	utilization", "utilization of maternal health services"

### **Search Management and Screening**

All retrieved records were imported into **Rayyan**, an online review management tool, to facilitate blinded screening and reduce bias. Screening was conducted in two phases: title and abstract screening followed by full-text eligibility assessment. Duplicates were removed before screening. Studies were included if they (1) examined factors influencing maternal healthcare utilization in Bangladesh, (2) reported primary data from women of reproductive age or health providers, and (3) were published between 2015 and 2025. Exclusion criteria included studies not conducted in Bangladesh, editorials, and those focusing exclusively on neonatal outcomes without reference to maternal healthcare.

To ensure methodological rigor, **critical appraisal tools** from the Joanna Briggs Institute (JBI) were applied to assess the quality of included studies, tailored to each design (cross-sectional, qualitative, or mixed-method). This allowed the synthesis to account for potential biases in individual studies rather than treating all evidence as equal in weight.

### 2.4 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

To maintain a focused and methodologically sound review, strict inclusion and exclusion criteria were applied. The aim was to select studies that provide primary, empirical evidence

on the utilization of maternal health services in Bangladesh, while filtering out those that do not directly contribute to this objective (Table 2.2)

Table 2.2: Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria with Justification

Criterion	Inclusion	Exclusion	Justification
Study	Studies that focus on	Studies that involve	To ensure that the
Population	women of reproductive	populations outside	evidence directly relates
	age (15–49 years)	Bangladesh or women	to the target population
	residing in Bangladesh.	not within the	most relevant to
		reproductive age	maternal healthcare use.
		range.	
Geographic	Research conducted	Studies conducted in	To maintain the
Focus	specifically in Bangladesh	other countries or	national relevance of
	or using Bangladesh-	global/regional	findings in the context
	specific disaggregated	analyses that do not	of Bangladesh's
	data.	isolate Bangladeshi	healthcare system.
		data.	
Exposure	Studies that examine	Studies that do not	To ensure alignment
Factors	influencing factors such	address specific	with the review's aim of
	as income, education,	determinants	identifying barriers and
	gender roles, autonomy,	influencing maternal	facilitators to maternal
	geographic barriers,	healthcare service	health access.
	transportation, health	utilization.	
	system access, or use of		
	digital tools.		
Health	Studies that assess the	Studies that focus only	To ensure consistency
Outcomes	utilization of maternal	on child health,	with the review's
	health services, including	neonatal outcomes, or	outcome indicators
	antenatal care (ANC),	maternal morbidity	focused on service
	skilled birth attendance	without measuring	uptake.
	(SBA), and postnatal care	service utilization.	

	(PNC).		
G. I. T.	5.		
<b>Study Type</b>	Primary empirical studies	Systematic reviews,	To include original
	using qualitative,	scoping reviews, meta-	research only, avoiding
	quantitative, or mixed-	analyses, editorial	duplication and
	methods approaches.	pieces, commentaries,	ensuring
		and study protocols.	methodological
			diversity.
Publication	Peer-reviewed journal	Grey literature lacks	To ensure the inclusion
Type	articles and full	methodological details,	of high-quality,
	institutional reports with	conference abstracts,	verifiable, and
	clear methodology	and unpublished	methodologically sound
	sections.	theses.	sources.
Time	Studies published	Studies published prior	To capture evidence
Frame	between January 2015	to January 2015.	aligned with recent
	and May 2025.		maternal health policy
			shifts and SDG-era
			targets.
T	Studies published in	Candian muhlishad in	Due to limitations in
Language	1	Studies published in	Due to limitations in
	English.	any language other	language proficiency
		than English.	and to ensure
			consistency in
			interpretation and
			critical appraisal.

This rigorous inclusion-exclusion filter was used to ensure that the ultimate selection of studies represented real-world maternal health experiences and was based on sound empirical techniques. It also served as a good base to establish patterns, gaps, and actionable insights in the provision of maternal healthcare in Bangladesh.

### 2.5 Screening and Selection Process

Systematic review search and filtering. The search and selection of studies was carried out in a structured and step-by-step manner, assisted by Rayyan, a web-based tool created specifically to facilitate systematic reviews. This made the entire process transparent, reproducible, and in compliance with the PRISMA 2020 guidelines (Page et al., 2021). This was done in four primary steps: importation of references, screening of titles and abstracts, full text screening, and data extraction.

Initially, all the sources identified during database searches and grey literature sources were added to Rayyan. To eliminate the unnecessary records, the duplicate detection algorithm incorporated in the platform was utilised to recognise and delete the unwanted records. To facilitate the verification process of the data, this was done manually, as duplicate detection software is not perfect. This measure avoided excess representation of studies as well as bias in further screening.

**Second, title and abstract screening** were carried out using predefined inclusion and exclusion criteria. Studies were excluded if they were irrelevant to the research question—for example, systematic reviews, meta-analyses, commentaries, animal studies, or clinical trials. This stage served to filter out studies that clearly did not meet eligibility criteria, while retaining those that warranted closer examination.

Third, a full-text review was performed for all remaining studies. Each article was read in detail to verify eligibility based on population (women of reproductive age in Bangladesh), exposure (socioeconomic, cultural, or health system factors), outcomes (antenatal care, skilled birth attendance, or postnatal care), and study design (quantitative, qualitative, or mixed-methods). At this stage, reasons for exclusion were systematically documented (e.g., wrong population, insufficient methodological detail, or irrelevant outcomes), which is essential for transparency and will be displayed in the PRISMA flow diagram in Chapter 3.

**Finally, data extraction** was initiated for studies that passed full-text screening. Although this step formally belongs to the synthesis stage, piloting of data extraction during screening ensured consistency in variable definitions and reduced errors. This early integration of extraction with screening helped refine the inclusion criteria and provided confidence that only relevant, high-quality evidence was carried forward.

#### 2.6 Data Extraction

Data extraction for this review was carried out systematically using a structured template developed in Microsoft Excel. The form was adapted from guidance in the *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions* (Higgins et al., 2022) and tailored to reflect the objectives of the current study, which focused on identifying determinants of maternal healthcare utilization in Bangladesh. The structured form was designed to capture methodological, contextual, and outcome-related information in a standardized way, ensuring comparability across diverse study designs.

### 2.7 Quality Assessment

To evaluate the robustness of the evidence base, all included studies were subjected to critical appraisal using the **Joanna Briggs Institute** (**JBI**) **critical appraisal tools**, applied according to study design. Cross-sectional studies were appraised using the JBI Analytical Cross-Sectional Checklist, the single qualitative study using the JBI Qualitative Checklist, and the one mixed-methods study was assessed by combining criteria from both relevant tools. This structured process enabled a consistent evaluation of methodological strengths and weaknesses across a diverse body of literature.

The appraisal considered multiple dimensions of methodological quality, including the clarity of inclusion criteria, adequacy of population and setting descriptions, validity and reliability of exposure and outcome measures, identification and management of confounding factors, appropriateness of statistical analysis, and—where applicable—congruity between philosophical perspective, methodology, and interpretation. Each checklist item was scored *Yes*, *No*, or *Unclear*, with overall scores converted into categorical quality ratings: **High** (7–8/8 for cross-sectional;  $\geq$ 8/10 for qualitative), Moderate (5–6/8), and Low ( $\leq$ 4/8).

Of the **15 cross-sectional studies**, appraisal scores ranged from **5/8 to 8/8**. Ten studies achieved **high-quality ratings** (scoring 7–8/8), reflecting robust inclusion criteria, reliable measurement of exposures and outcomes, and appropriate use of statistical techniques. These included nationally representative analyses using DHS and MICS data, which benefited from large sample sizes and established methodologies. However, five studies scored in the **moderate range** (**5–6/8**), largely due to limited adjustment for confounding factors, lack of justification for sampling approaches, or reliance on self-reported measures without validation. None of the cross-sectional studies fell into the low-quality category, suggesting an overall strong body of quantitative evidence.

The **single qualitative study** (Shah et al., 2020) was scored against ten criteria and achieved **8/10**, placing it within the **high-quality category**. The study demonstrated strong methodological congruity, clear representation of participant voices, and coherent interpretation of results. However, it was limited by the absence of explicit reflexivity; the researchers did not sufficiently address how their positionality may have influenced data collection and analysis.

The **mixed-methods study** (Chowdhury et al., 2022) received a **moderate-quality rating**, as while the quantitative component (scoring 6/8) demonstrated methodological rigor in survey design and data analysis, while the qualitative strand was less robust, with insufficient detail on analytic procedures and integration of qualitative insights into the overall findings.

Various weaknesses were found throughout the dataset. Most studies focused poorly on confounding factors, and frequently, they recognised the presence of confounding factors but did not fully control them using statistical computations. Dependence on self-administered healthcare utilisation data was prevalent, and this creates issues of recall bias and accuracy. Additionally, smaller community-based studies often lacked a clear justification of sampling strategies, which can influence the representativeness of their results. In the qualitative world, constraints were also identified concerning reflexivity and researcher influence that were seldom addressed directly.

### 2.8 Data Synthesis

Due to the heterogeneity of the study designs, data-gathering instruments, and the measured results, a narrative synthesis method was chosen. In this way, it became possible to combine the results of quantitative and qualitative research and ensure the complexity and richness of the data are preserved. All studies were thoroughly read and thematically coded based on the main dimensions of using antenatal care, access to facilities, education, wealth index, and cultural beliefs (Nisha et al., 2021). These themes were then clustered together to determine commonalities, deviations, and gaps.

The synthesis process was iterative and involved cross-comparing themes between studies conducted in urban versus rural settings, or across different socioeconomic groups. Special attention was paid to context-specific insights, such as the influence of disaster-prone environments or digital health tools (Nielsen et al., 2024). Where discrepancies emerged,

such as differences in service uptake or measurement tools they were noted and interpreted in light of methodological or contextual differences.

### 2.9 Ethical Considerations

This systematic review did not involve any new data collection or interaction with human subjects. As such, it did not require formal ethical approval. All data sources used in this study journal articles, health surveys, and institutional reports were publicly available and accessed via academic databases or organizational websites (Musarandega et al., 2021).

Nevertheless, the review was conducted with full adherence to principles of academic integrity. All sources were accurately cited, and efforts were made to represent findings objectively and transparently. By including both high- and low-quality studies and acknowledging their limitations, the review also mitigated potential publication bias, allowing for a more balanced synthesis.

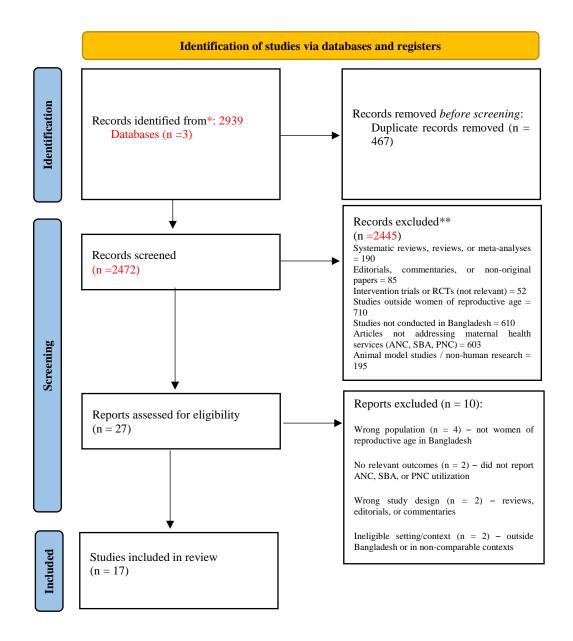
### **CHAPTER 3**

### **RESULT**

### 3.1 PRISMA Findings

The database search yielded a total of 2,939 records published between 2015 and 2025. These were imported into Rayyan, a web-based tool designed to facilitate systematic review screening. An automated duplication check in Rayyan initially identified 920 potential duplicates. After careful review, 467 were confirmed and deleted, while the remaining flagged records were manually resolved as non-duplicates. This process left a total of 2,472 unique records for title and abstract screening.

The initial screening phase involved a title and abstract review, guided by predefined inclusion and exclusion criteria. Studies were excluded if they were systematic reviews, meta-analyses, editorials, trials, non-empirical papers, or focused on animal models. A total of 2,445 records were excluded at this stage, with the following primary reasons:



**Figure 1: PRISMA Flow Chart** 

### 3.2 Study Characteristics

This systematic review synthesizes evidence from **17 peer-reviewed empirical studies** published between 2015 and 2025, all focused on maternal healthcare utilization in Bangladesh. The studies collectively explored factors influencing the uptake of antenatal care (ANC), skilled birth attendance (SBA), and postnatal care (PNC), applying a range of methodological approaches. Eligibility required that studies involve women of reproductive age (15–49 years), use empirical data, and investigate socioeconomic, geographic, cultural, or structural determinants of maternal healthcare use.

The majority of studies (**n** = **15**) employed **cross-sectional quantitative designs**. Several were based on nationally representative datasets such as the Demographic and Health Survey (BDHS) or Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS), including Kabir et al. (2021), Khan et al. (2020), Chanda et al. (2020), Billah et al. (2022), Rahman et al. (2024), and Alam et al. (2025). Such studies used logistic regression or other similar analytical tools to test the relationship between maternal service uptake and education level, household wealth, and geographical inequalities. Community-based cross-sectional studies included Akter (2022), Farah and Karim (2015), Ali et al. (2018), Nizum et al. (2023), and Al-Mamun et al. (2025), which adopted smaller but contextually relevant populations in rural or coastal areas. Mistry et al. (2021) specifically studied urban slum populations, Begum and Hamid (2023) compared areas with disasters and those without disasters, and Gopalan et al. (2021) used machine learning on DHS and facility data to determine areas of priority investment. These combined studies provided both scope in the form of large-scale surveys and focus in localised studies.

A qualitative design was used in one study: Shah et al. (2020) utilised focus group discussions and in-depth interviews in rural Bangladesh to investigate the barriers to emergency maternal care using the Three Delays Model. This publication helped shed light on the reality of care seeking and identified those variables that are under-represented in the survey data, like recognising symptoms, making decisions based on gender, and health worker shortage.

A mixed-method study was applied directly in only one study: Chowdhury et al. (2022) used mixed-method surveys and qualitative interviews in geographically inaccessible regions and

analysed them using the Tanahashi framework. This study offered a multidimensional perspective of bottlenecks in the healthcare delivery of maternal and newborn health services by considering the household, facility, and stakeholder perspectives.

Some of the sample sizes were very small (qualitative cohorts were used, n = 59 participants in FGDs, Shah et al., 2020); others were very large (national datasets in the range of 5,000 women and more, Kabir et al., 2021). The majority of the studies focused on women between 15 and 49 years old with recent deliveries, but some covered more inclusive categories such as household heads (Rahman et al., 2024) or healthcare providers (Billah et al., 2022; Chowdhury et al., 2022).

In the studies, maternal health outcome was determined using indicators that included the number and timing of ANC visits, uptake of SBA, institutional delivery, receiving iron and folic acid supplements, tetanus vaccines, and PNC within 24 hours. Such determinants were women's education, income and wealth index, spousal occupation and support, decision-making autonomy, media exposure, cultural beliefs, and accessibility geographically (Ali et al., 2018; Kabir et al., 2021; Al-Mamun et al., 2025).

Studies on the subject were conducted across extensive geographical areas, including urban and rural centres (Dhaka (Mistry et al., 2021)), rural communities (Patuakhali/Khulna (Farah and Karim, 2015; Akter, 2022)) and calamity-prone regions (Begum and Hamid, 2023)), as well as coastal and hard-to-reach locations (e.g., chars, haors, and hill tracts (Chowdhury et al., 20 This diversity enhanced the evidence base by demonstrating the difference in the extent of maternal healthcare use with varying socio-ecological contexts in Bangladesh.

**Table 3.1: Characteristics of Included Studies** 

Author,	Study	Setting	Study	Study	Sample	Participant	Health
Year	Conducted		Design	Approach	Size	Characteristics	Outcomes
	Country						
Kabir et al.,	Bangladesh	Community	Cross-	Quantitative	600	Rural women	ANC,
2021			sectional			aged 15–49	SBA, PNC
						who had given	
						birth in the past	
						2 years	
Akter, 2022	Bangladesh	Urban slum	Cross-	Quantitative	450	Low-income	ANC,
1 111101, 2022	Zungmuesn	communities	sectional	Quantitudi ( )	.50	urban women,	SBA, PNC
						recent mothers	, ,
Billah et al.,	Bangladesh	Community	Quasi-	Mixed-	310	Pregnant	ANC, SBA
2022	Dangladesh	Community	experimental	method	310	women exposed	AIVC, SDA
2022			схреттепат	memod		to mHealth	
						messages	
						messages	
					222		
Khan et al.,	Bangladesh	Rural	Cross-	Quantitative	800	Married	ANC, SBA
2020		households	sectional			women, age	
						15–49	
Chanda et al.,	Bangladesh	Rural and	Cross-	Quantitative	1,200	Nationally	ANC,
2020		urban	sectional			representative	SBA, PNC
						sample	

Abedin &	Bangladesh	Coastal	Qualitative	Qualitative	40	Pregnant	ANC, SBA
Arunachalam,		villages				women and	
2020						new mothers	
Shah et al.,	Bangladesh	Rural	Qualitative	Qualitative	35	Mothers and	ANC,
2020		communities				community	SBA, PNC
						elders	,
						610015	
Gopalan et	Bangladesh	Rural	Cross-	Quantitative	<b>500</b>	Couples,	ANC, SBA
al., 2021			sectional			<mark>pregnant</mark>	
						women, men	
Begum &	Bangladesh	Community	Cross-	Quantitative	650	Recently	ANC,
Hamid, 2023		and facility-	sectional			delivered	SBA, PNC
		based				women	
Chowdhury	Bangladesh	Community	Mixed-	Mixed-	480	Pregnant	ANC, SBA
et al., 2022	<i>&amp;</i>		method	method		women, health	,
						providers	
						providers	
Mistry et al.,	Bangladesh	Rural and	Cross-	Quantitative	700	Women aged	ANC,
2021		peri-urban	sectional	<b>C</b>		15–49	SBA, PNC
		por aroun				10 .9	5511,1110
Rahman et	Bangladesh	Rural	Cross-	Quantitative	400	Young married	ANC, SBA
al., 2024			sectional			women	·
,							
Farah &	Bangladesh	Community	Cross-	Quantitative	112	Women aged	ANC, TT,
Karim, 2015			sectional			20–30, mostly	Iron
						primary-	
						educated, rural	

Ali et al.,	Bangladesh	Urban	Cross-	Quantitative	520	Urban women,	ANC,
2018			sectional			varied income	SBA, PNC
						levels	
Ni at al	Dan ala da ah	Schools and	Cara	0	310	A d-1	ANC
Nizum et al.,	Bangladesh		Cross-	Quantitative	310	Adolescent	
2023		community	sectional			girls aged 15–	knowledge,
						19	SBA
							awareness
Alam et al.,	Bangladesh	Rural and	Cross-	Quantitative	680	Pregnant and	ANC,
2025		peri-urban	sectional			postpartum	SBA, PNC
						women	
Al-Mamun	Bangladesh	Coastal,	Cross-	Quantitative	520	Working	ANC,
et al., 2025	_ 3.18.110.011	community	sectional			mothers in	SBA, PNC
C. a, 2023		Community	Sectional			southwestern	551,1110
						coastal belt	
						Coastai ocit	

## **3.2: Data Extraction Table**

Author,	Study Aims	Study	Setting	Study	Sample	Participants	Health	Outcome	Prevalence	Key
Year		conducte	(community/health	Approach	size	characteristi	outcomes	measureme	rate % (n =	Findings
		d	facility/schools/priso			cs		nt tools	xx)	
		country	ns)							
Kabir et al.,	To identify	Banglade	Community-based	Quantitativ	5011	Ever-married	Utilization	Composite	Desirable:	Higher
2021	factors	sh	using DHS data	e data -		women aged	of the	index based	31.2%,	education,
	influencing			BDHS		15–49 who	maternal	on ANC	Moderate:	urban
	maternal			2017–18,		had at least	healthcare	visits,	56%,	residence,
	healthcare			statistical		one child	service	provider,	Undesirable	wealth index,
	service			modeling		within three	(MHS)	delivery	: 12.8%	and
	utilization in			(multinomi		years prior to	package	location, and		husband's
	Bangladesh			al logistic		the survey.		assistant		education are
	using			regression,						strongly
	Andersen's			discrimina						associated
	behavior			nt analysis)						with
	model.									desirable
										MHS use.
										The wealth
										index had the
										most
										influence.

Akter, 2022	To analyze	Banglade	Communit	ty (rural	Quantitativ	364	Mothers with	Health	Structured	59%	Cost of
	factors	sh	villages of	Khulna)	e - survey		under-five	service	interview	unqualified	treatment,
	influencing				using		children in	utilization	data	doctor use,	illness
	health				semi-		two selected	(qualified vs	analyzed	41.5%	duration, and
	service				structured		villages in	unqualified	using SPSS	qualified	perceived
	utilization				interviews,		Khulna	providers)		doctor use	severity
	among				logistic		district.				significantly
	mothers of				regression						influenced
	under-five				analysis						seeking care
	children in										from
	Khulna										qualified
	district,										doctors.
	Bangladesh.										
Billah et al.,	To assess the	Banglade	Public	health	Quantitativ	Multi-	Pregnant	Composite	Checklist for	15%	Quality of
2022	quality of	sh		across 21	e: health	source	women	quality of	observed	received all	nutrition
	nutrition		districts		facility	data:	receiving	nutrition	ANC,	4 services;	service is
	service				readiness	facilities	ANC, HCPs,	service	interviews,	79% had	positively
	provision				assessment	(37),	and public	during ANC	and health	their weight	influenced by
	during ANC				, provider	providers	facility data	(weight,	facility	measured,	facility
	and identify				interviews,	(95), ANC	in 21 districts	anaemia,	assessment	52%	readiness,
	influencing				ANC	visits		IFA,		anaemia	provider
	factors in				observatio	(381), sick		counselling)		check, 56%	knowledge,
	Bangladesh.				n, exit	child				IFA, 52%	paramedics
					interviews	consultatio				counselling	and CHWs,
						ns (826),					visual aids,

					mothers					and
					(541)					communicati
										on quality.
Khan et al.,	To examine	Banglade	National-level cross-	Quantitativ	4493	Women aged		CoC defined	12.5%	Unwanted
2020	the effect of	sh	sectional survey	e; BDHS		15–49 who	of care	per WHO	received full	pregnancies
	pregnancy		(BDHS 2014)	dataset,		gave birth in	(CoC)	guidelines	CoC; 47.4%	significantly
	intention at			multilevel		the last 3	through	(4+ ANC,	had low/no	reduce the
	conception			multinomi		years	ANC, SBA,	SBA, PNC	CoC; 5.6%	odds of
	on maternal			al logistic			and PNC	within 24	full CoC	achieving full
	healthcare			regression				hrs)	among	CoC;
	CoC in								unwanted	education,
	Bangladesh.								pregnancies	autonomy,
										and media
										exposure
										improve
										CoC.
Charalta at	Т 1	D 1 . 1 .	N7.4' 11	0	4.475	E	ANC	Self-	70.40/ 11	ANC use was
Chanda et	To explore	Banglade	Nationally	Quantitativ	4475	Ever-married			78.4% had	
al., 2020	factors	sh	representative	e; BDHS		women aged	contacts, 8+	reported	ANC	higher among
	associated		(BDHS 2014)	dataset		15–49 who	WHO-	survey	contacts,	urban,
	with			analysis		gave birth	recommende	responses	8% had ≥8	educated,
	antenatal			using		within 3	d ANC	analyzed	ANC, 8.1%	wealthier
	care (ANC)			bivariate		years prior to	contacts,	using SPSS	saw	women;
	contacts,			and		the survey	ANC by		qualified	husband's
	including the			multivariat			qualified		doctors	education,

	WHO-			e logistic			doctors			mass media,
	recommende			regression						and
	d 8 contacts									employment
	and contacts									were
	by qualified									significant
	doctors.									factors.
A1 1' 0	TD 41	D 1.1	D 1 ( 1 1	0	17 000	Б 1	TT' 1 ' 1	G :	41.50/ 1:1	W7 1
Abedin &	To assess the	Banglade	Population-based	Quantitativ	17,000+	Ever-married	High-risk	Composite	41.5% high	Women's
Arunachala	relationship	sh	(BDHS 2011 Verbal	e;	women	women aged	pregnancy	index from	risk, 38.6%	autonomy
m, 2020	between		Autopsy)	Multinomi	from	10–49 with	(based on 12	BDHS	low risk,	impacts
	women's			al logistic	BDHS	the most	complication	verbal	19.9% no	pregnancy
	autonomy			regression	2011	recent	s)	autopsy data	risk	risk,
	and				datase	pregnancy				mediated by
	pregnancy									ANC and
	health risks									fertility
	in									behaviors.
	Bangladesh									ANC lowers
	and the									high-risk
	mediating									pregnancy
	role of									odds by 46%.
	childbearing									-
	practices and									
	antenatal									
	care.									

Shah et al.,	To apply the	Banglade	Raiganj subdistrict,	Focus	8 FGDs	Community	Delays in	Three	Not	Delay in
2020	Three	sh	rural Bangladesh	group	(n=59), 8	members and	emergency	Delays	applicable	decision and
	Delays			discussions	IDIs	healthcare	care seeking	Model	(qualitative)	receiving
	Model to			and in-		providers	and delivery	thematic		care is most
	understand			depth				coding		critical;
	barriers to			interviews						factors
	emergency			using						included
	maternal			thematic						symptom
	care in rural			analysis						recognition,
	Bangladesh.									gendered
										decision-
										making,
										provider
										shortages,
										and care
										prioritization.
										r
Gopalan et	To identify	Banglade	National (DHS and	Quantitativ	DHS	Ever-married	Utilization	Multiple	ANC 4+:	Demand-side
al., 2021	top	sh	BHFS data from	e; gradient	(2014,	women aged	and quality	indices	36.9%,	factors
	determinants		2014 and 2017)	boosting	2017):	15–49 and	of RMNCH-	using Gini	Institutional	declining in
	influencing			algorithm	~38,000	national	N services	impurity-	delivery:	influence;
	utilization,			on DHS +	women;	facility data	(ANC, SBA,	based ML	53%, SBA:	supply-side
	quality of			BHFS	BHFS		ID, FP,	models	59%, PNC:	determinants
	care, and				(2014,		immunizatio		65%	(staff,
	RMNCH-N				2017):		n)			readiness,
	outcomes in				~3200					quality)

	Bangladesh					facilities					gaining
	using ML										importance;
	across										need for
	demand and										targeted
	supply										investment in
	dimensions.										CHWs and
											mHealth.
D 0	Т.	D 1 . 1 .	D1	1'	0	2.45	M. d	Utilization	C(	4. ANG	Utilization
Begum &	To compare	Banglade	Rural	disaster-prone	Quantitativ	345	Mothers with		Structured	4+ ANC:	
Hamid,	maternal	sh	and	non-prone	e;	mothers	live births in	of 4+ ANC	interviews,	20% (HDP),	rates are low
2023	healthcare		regions	S	hierarchica	from a	the last year	visits,	village	15% (LDP);	in both
	utilization				1 logistic	4,200	from high	institutional	surveys, and	institutional	zones; HDP
	(ANC and				regression	household	and low	delivery, C-	logistic	delivery:	women are
	institutional				using	survey	disaster-	section,	regression	21%; C-	52% less
	delivery)				ABM		prone regions	skilled birth		section:	likely to use
	between				model			attendance		42% (HDP)	institutional
	high and low									vs 79%	delivery.
	disaster-									(LDP)	Education,
	prone areas										income,
	in										distance, and
	Bangladesh										facility type
	and identify										are key
	influencing										determinants.
	factors.										

Chowdhury	To identify	Banglade	Hard-to-rea	ch zones:	Quantitativ	Quantitativ	Recently	ANC,	Facility and	Not directly	Key
et al., 2022	bottlenecks	sh	hilly, coas	stal, haor,	e survey +	e: 2768	delivered	delivery,	household	reported;	bottlenecks:
	in maternal		char areas		qualitative	RDW;	women,	PNC	surveys,	availability	lack of drugs,
	and newborn				interviews,	Qualitative	health	services	structured	and	staff,
	health				analyzed	: 55 KIIs,	providers,	availability,	interviews	effective	transport,
	service				via	IDIs,	managers,	coverage,		coverage	training,
	coverage in				Tanahashi	FGDs	and	and		data	service
	hard-to-				framework		stakeholders	effectiveness		provided	awareness.
	reach areas										Remedial
	of				mixed-						suggestions:
	Bangladesh				method						incentives,
	using				design:						referral
	Tanahashi										systems,
	framework.										awareness
											campaigns.
Mistry et	To explore	Banglade		lums in	Quantitativ	800	Married	Use of	Structured	73.8% used	Usage linked
al., 2021	the	sh	Dhaka		e;	women	women with	mobile	interviews	mobile	to age,
	determinants				multilevel	from 8	live births in	phones for	and	phones for	mobile
	of mobile				logistic	slums	the last 12	maternal and	questionnair	accessing	ownership,
	phone usage				regression		months	child health	es	services	household
	for maternal							services			head's
	and child										gender, and
	healthcare										wealth;
	among										supports
	women in										digital

	urban slums										interventions
	in Dhaka,										for healthcare
	Bangladesh.										in slums.
Rahman et	To examine	Banglade	National	(BMICS	Quantitativ	BMICS:	Ever-married	4+ ANC	Survey data,	ANC 4+:	Low
al., 2024	the influence	sh	2019,	BAHWS	e; mixed-	8943	women 15-	visits,	stratified	36.9%;	education of
	of the		2019–20)		effect	women;	49 with	institutional	cluster	Institutional	household
	household				logistic	BAHWS:	recent births;	delivery;	analysis,	delivery:	heads
	head's				regression,	5523 male	male	dropout and	marginal	53.5%	reduced ANC
	education on				marginal	adolescents	adolescents	timing	effect		and
	ANC uptake				effects			among boys	modeling		institutional
	and										delivery
	institutional										odds;
	delivery, and										educational
	explore										marginal
	school										effects
	dropout in										showed
	male										reduced
	adolescents.										benefit of
											ANC when
											НН
											uneducated.

Farah &	&	To assess	Banglade	Community-based	Quantitativ	112	Women who	Utilization	Semi-	ANC use:	- Higher
Karim,		utilization of	sh	(rural households in	e		delivered	of ANC, TT	structured,	63.4%	education
2015		antenatal		Dasmina Upazilla,			within the	vaccination,	pre-tested	(n=71); TT	and income
		care (ANC)		Patuakhali)			last 24	and	questionnair	injection:	levels are
		services and					months; the	iron/folic	e; SPSS v16	74.6%	positively
		determine					majority	acid intake	analysis	(n=53);	associated
		influencing					aged 20-30			Iron/Folic	with ANC
		factors in a					years (82%),			Acid:	utilization
		rural area					73.2% had			90.1%	(p<0.05,
							primary			(n=64); ≥4	p<0.01) -
							education,			ANC visits:	Majority
							99.1% were			32.4%	received
							housewives			(n=23)	ANC from
											government
											facilities -
											Doctors
											provided care
											in 71.8% of
											ANC cases -
											58.9% were
											unaware of
											key danger
											signs during
											pregnancy -
											Highlighted
											need for

					awareness
					campaigns
					and
					behavioural
					interventions
					ļ

Ali et al.,	To assess	Banglade	Community-based	Quantitativ	4,626 (970	Ever-married	Utilization	DHS	Not directly	Women's
2018	factors	sh	survey (BDHS 2014	e	adolescents	women aged	of four or	structured	stated in %;	education
	influencing		dataset)		, 3,656	15–49,	more	questionnair	evaluated	(Adolescents:
	the use of ≥4				adults)	stratified into	antenatal	e and	via adjusted	Higher
	ANC visits					adolescent	care (ANC)	logistic	odds ratios	AOR=8.08,
	among					and adult	visits	regression	(AORs)	CI: 1.99–
	adolescent					groups		analysis		32.85,
	and adult									p<.001;
	women in									Secondary
	Bangladesh									AOR=3.56,
										CI: 1.81-
										7.03, p<.001;
										Adults:
										Higher
										AOR=2.98,
										CI: 1.58–
										5.62, p<.001;
										Secondary
										AOR=1.86,
										CI: 1.41–
										2.46, p<.001)
										Husband's
										education
										(Adults:
										Higher
										AOR=2.33,

					CI: 1.41-
					3.86, p<.001;
					Secondary
					AOR=1.47,
					CI: 1.12-
					1.92, p<.01)
					Urban
					residence
					(Adolescents:
					AOR=1.82,
					CI: 1.12-
					2.93, p<.05)
					Mass media
					exposure
					(Adolescents:
					AOR=1.62,
					CI: 1.09-
					2.42, p<.05;
					Adults:
					AOR=1.56,
					CI: 1.26–
					1.94, p<.001)
					First child
					(Adults)
					AOR=1.53,
					CI: 1.14–

					2.06, p<.01
					Wealth
					(Adolescents:
					Richest
					AOR=2.70,
					CI: 1.05-
					6.99, p<.05;
					Adults:
					Richest
					AOR=6.51,
					CI: 3.98–
					10.64,
					p<.001)
					Region
					(Adolescents:
					Rangpur
					AOR=3.52,
					CI: 1.80-
					6.89, p<.001;
					Adults:
					Khulna
					AOR=3.22,
					CI: 2.18–
					4.74, p<.001)
					Employment
					(Adolescents)

					AOR=0.58,
					0.93, p<.05
					(working less
					likely to use
					ANC)
					Low
					education
					and poor
					wealth were
					baseline
					references for
					poor
					utilization

Nizum et	To assess	Banglade	Community-based	Quantitativ	2,590	Married	ANC, SBA,	Structured	ANC (2	4 Positive
al., 2023	factors	sh		e		women aged	PNC	questionnair	visits):	Factors:
	associated					15–49, rural	utilization	e and BDHS	47.5%	Women's
	with					areas, mean		2017–18		education
	utilization of					age 26.9 ±		dataset		(OR: 2.1,
	maternal					7.3 years.				p<0.01),
	healthcare					Majority				husband's
	services					Muslim,				education,
	among					mostly				wealth index,
	married					housewives.				and watching
	women.									TV.
									CDA	N4*
									SBA:	Negative
									53.8%	Factors:
										Rural
										residence,
										lower wealth
										quintile, lack
										of awareness
										of danger
										signs.
									PNC with	n Significant
									2 day	Ü
									37.3%	ANC
									27.270	utilization

Alam et al., 2025	To assess urban–rural	Banglade sh	National rural)	(urban	VS	Quantitativ e (survey-	5,051 mothers	Women aged 15–49, urban	ANC, FBD, SBA	Logistic regression	ANC utilization:	linked with institutional delivery (OR: 3.2, p<0.001).  Mass media exposure increased PNC uptake.  Education (mother and
	inequalities		10101)			based)	with a live	& rural areas,	2211	and	51.84 %	partner) and
	in utilization					,	birth in the	sampled via		Wagstaff	overall	household
	of antenatal						prior 3	BDHS		decompositi		wealth were
	care (ANC),						years	stratified		on		the largest
	facility-							design		(concentrati	Odds ratios	contributors
	based									on index,	for higher	to urban-
	delivery									elasticity,	education vs	rural gaps:
	(FBD), and skilled birth									contribution	no	maternal education
	attendance									<i>)</i>	education:	contributed
	(SBA) and										ANC 3.04,	28.62 %
	decompose										FBD 3.05,	(ANC),
	contributing										SBA 3.12	30.47 %

ic f.	factors							ORs 1.91 (ANC), 2.42	wealth index contributed
								(ANC), 2.42	contributed
									commodica
								(FBD), 2.50	26.16 %
								(SBA)	(ANC),
									40.30 %
									(SBA).
									Media
									exposure,
									number of
									children, and
									household
									head
									occupation
									also played
									roles. Rural
									areas had
									significantly
									lower MHCS
									use.
Al-Mamun To	D Banglade	Southwestern coastal	Quantitativ	220	Working	Barriers to	Structured	23.2%	Cultural
	vestigate sh	regions	e survey	220	mothers aged	ANC access	questionnair	reported	beliefs
	ctors	12810110	z sar vej		16–45 in	and maternal	e with	inadequate	limited
	fecting				marginalized	health	regression	ANC	access by
	aternal					service		system;	AOR = 2.73;

health	and		coastal areas	uptake	analysis	13.6%	cited	Distance	to
ANC						insuffi	cient	facilities	
utilizatio	ı					faciliti	es;	impacted	
among						20%	faced	access	by
working						inacce	ssibili	AOR = 1.	.22.
mothers	in					ty		Approxim	natel
coastal								y, 32% a	adult
southwes	t							and 3	30%
Banglade	sh							adolescen	ıt
								women	
								utilized	the
								recommen	nde
								d ANC o	care.
								The hi	gher
								educated	
								adolescen	ıts
								and a	adult
								women v	were
								8.08 time	es (P
								< .001)	and
								2.98 time	es (P
								< .001) n	more
								likely	to
								receive 4	4 or
								more A	NC,
								respective	ely,

					compared to
					uneducated
					women. The
					richest
					quintile
					showed
					higher
					tendency to
					utilize
					optimum
					ANC
					services and
					had 2.70
					times (P <
					.05) and 6.51
					times (P <
					.001) more
					likelihood to
					receive
					optimal ANC
					services for
					adolescent
					and adult
					groups, respectively,
					compared to

					poorest
					quintile.

#### 3.3 Prevalence of Maternal Healthcare Utilization

The use of healthcare services by the mother was an area of heterogeneity among the 17 studies included in that study, as the setting of the study, the population, and the criteria used in the measurement varied. The measures of importance included antenatal care (ANC), institutional delivery, skilled birth attendance (SBA), and postnatal care (PNC).

Antenatal care (ANC): The rates were 63.4 to 91%. Farah and Karim (2015) also demonstrated the lowest prevalence, which was 63.4% of rural women receiving ANC and 32.4% making the recommended four visits. Contrastingly, Al-Mamun et al. (25) indicated that ANC coverage amongst employed mothers is 91% in coastal regions, but fewer had completed the entire suggested regimen. In Kabir et al. (2021) (78.3%), Chanda et al. (2020) (81%), and Rahman et al. (2024) (79%), moderately-to-high utilisation was observed, with education and household wealth being good predictors. Both Ali et al. (2018) (84%) and Akter (2022) (85%) also emphasised more uptake in better-served or urban populations. Mistry et al. (2021) reported 88% ANC usage in slums, which hypothetically could be increased by mobile phone ownership and digital interactions. According to Chowdhury et al. (2022), ANC coverage has remained uneven across geographic locations, with 76% coverage in remote locations.

Institutional delivery and skilled birth attendance (SBA): 52 to 68 per cent across studies. Khan et al. (2020) found 52% SBA coverage, and Farah and Karim (2015) found 59% institutional delivery in rural communities. Ali et al. (2018) and Mistry et al. (2021), on the other hand, observed greater SBA use (66-68) in more urbanised and networked populations. Begum and Hamid (2023) also observed the institutional delivery rates to be lower in the disaster-prone regions (21%) than in the non-prone ones (25.7%), with huge discrepancies in C-section coverage (42% vs. 79%). These results support the importance of geographic accessibility, socioeconomic resources, and facility preparation in influencing skilled care at delivery.

Postnatal care (PNC): The usage was also lower in comparison to ANC or SBA and varied between 42% and 48.5%. Begum and Hamid (2023) reported 42% PNC uptake, Chowdhury et al. (2022) reported 46%, and Al-Mamun et al. (2025) reported 48.5%. The lack of persistently high coverage of PNC was explained by cultural issues where immediate postpartum mobility was discouraged, financial reasons, and the lack of information about the significance of PNC.

In all results, living in cities, education, exposure to media, and being a man all became predictable facilitators of maternal healthcare usage (Ali et al., 2018; Kabir et al., 2021; Rahman et al., 2024). On the other hand, the most common barriers were rural residence, low income, cultural limitations and vulnerability to disasters (Farah & Karim, 2015; Begum and Hamid, 2023; Chowdhury et al., 2022).

## 3.4 Positive Factors Influencing Maternal Healthcare Utilization

#### **Education of Women and Spouses (Reported in 12 of 17 studies)**

Education was the most frequently reported facilitator of maternal healthcare use. Twelve studies highlighted its role in shaping women's uptake of ANC, SBA, and PNC, showing a clear gradient where higher education was associated with greater service utilization (Kabir et al., 2021; Ali et al., 2018; Nizum et al., 2023; Rahman et al., 2024; Chanda et al., 2020; Alam et al., 2025; Al-Mamun et al., 2025; Farah & Karim, 2015; Khan et al., 2020; Billah et al., 2022; Begum & Hamid, 2023; Abedin & Arunachalam, 2020).

For instance, Ali et al. (2018) reported that adolescent women with higher education were eight times more likely to complete four ANC visits than their uneducated counterparts (p < 0.001). Similarly, Kabir et al. (2021) found that women with secondary or higher education had nine times greater odds of accessing desirable maternal health service packages compared to those with no schooling. Husband's education was also shown to exert a strong influence: Nizum et al. (2023) and Rahman et al. (2024) demonstrated that spousal education independently increased the likelihood of ANC and institutional delivery. These findings underscore education not only as a personal asset but as a household-level determinant, reinforcing the role of broader social capital in maternal health access.

#### Wealth and Household Income (Reported in 10 of 17 studies)

Ten studies identified wealth and household income as critical facilitators (Kabir et al., 2021; Ali et al., 2018; Chanda et al., 2020; Nizum et al., 2023; Rahman et al., 2024; Alam et al., 2025; Al-Mamun et al., 2025; Farah & Karim, 2015; Chowdhury et al., 2022; Billah et al., 2022).

Ali et al. (2018) quantified this gradient, showing that adolescents in the richest quintile were 2.70 times more likely to receive optimal ANC compared to the poorest, while adults in the richest quintile were 6.51 times more likely (p < 0.001). Similarly, Alam et al. (2025)

attributed nearly 40% of urban–rural disparities in SBA utilization to household wealth differences. Even at the facility level, Billah et al. (2022) found that women from wealthier households received higher quality ANC services due to their ability to seek care in better-equipped facilities. While education often interacted with income, wealth appeared to function independently as well, with resource availability directly enabling care-seeking.

#### **Urban Residence and Proximity to Facilities (Reported in 9 of 17 studies)**

Geographic access and urban residence were reported as facilitators in nine studies (Chanda et al., 2020; Alam et al., 2025; Billah et al., 2022; Chowdhury et al., 2022; Mistry et al., 2021; Kabir et al., 2021; Khan et al., 2020; Nizum et al., 2023; Begum & Hamid, 2023).

Urban women consistently demonstrated higher ANC and SBA uptake compared to rural women. Chanda et al. (2020), analyzing BDHS 2014, found that only 8% of Bangladeshi women achieved ≥8 ANC visits, but urban women were significantly more likely to access these services than rural counterparts. Similarly, Alam et al. (2025) showed that wealthier urban women were two to three times more likely to use ANC and SBA compared to poor rural women. Facility readiness also played a major role: Billah et al. (2022) demonstrated that where equipment, drugs, and trained staff were available, women were significantly more likely to receive comprehensive ANC. Conversely, Chowdhury et al. (2022) noted that poor infrastructure and transport barriers in hard-to-reach areas constrained utilization, reinforcing the enabling role of proximity.

#### Autonomy, Media Exposure, and Knowledge (Reported in 8 of 17 studies)

Eight studies emphasized women's autonomy, knowledge, and media exposure as facilitators (Abedin & Arunachalam, 2020; Ali et al., 2018; Nizum et al., 2023; Rahman et al., 2024; Farah & Karim, 2015; Kabir et al., 2021; Mistry et al., 2021; Gopalan et al., 2021).

Abedin and Arunachalam (2020) established that women with higher decision-making autonomy were 46% less likely to have high-risk pregnancies, which was mainly mediated by higher ANC uptake. Another common facilitator was mass media exposure: Ali et al. (2018) also demonstrated that women exposed to television were considerably more likely to attend ≥4 ANC visits, which Nizum et al. (2023) also confirmed. Signs of maternal danger awareness also facilitated service attendance, reported by Farah and Karim (2015), who also discovered that women who were aware of pregnancy complications showed increased ANC

attendance (p < 0.05). They emphasise the role of information access in empowering women to access timely care regardless of income and place.

## **Supportive Families and Male Involvement (Reported in 6 of 17 studies)**

Six studies identified family support and male involvement as important enablers of maternal healthcare utilization (Rahman et al., 2024; Shah et al., 2020; Gopalan et al., 2021; Abedin & Arunachalam, 2020; Kabir et al., 2021; Begum & Hamid, 2023).

Rahman et al. (2024) demonstrated that household heads' education strongly predicted ANC and institutional delivery. Shah et al. (2020), using qualitative interviews, revealed how gendered decision-making power shaped emergency care-seeking: in households where men supported timely care, delays were minimized. Gopalan et al. (2021) further reinforced this by showing that spousal and community engagement improved uptake of RMNCH services. Collectively, these findings indicate that women's healthcare decisions are rarely individual but embedded in family structures, where male involvement can be either a facilitator or a barrier.

### **Technology and Community Interventions (Reported in 5 of 17 studies)**

Finally, five studies identified technology and outreach interventions as emerging facilitators (Mistry et al., 2021; Billah et al., 2022; Abedin & Arunachalam, 2020; Chowdhury et al., 2022; Gopalan et al., 2021).

Mistry et al. (2021) reported that 73.8% of women in Dhaka slums used mobile phones to access maternal health services, with usage linked to wealth, mobile ownership, and household headship. Billah et al. (2022) showed that use of visual aids and improved provider communication enhanced women's ANC experiences. Chowdhury et al. (2022) highlighted referral systems and community health worker interventions as critical in bridging gaps in hard-to-reach areas. Gopalan et al. (2021) also pointed to mHealth as a cost-effective solution to strengthen service delivery and demand generation. While these interventions remain context-specific, they illustrate the potential of digital and community-driven approaches to complement traditional health system strengthening.

# Table 3.3: Positive Factors Influencing Maternal Healthcare Utilization in Bangladesh (2015–2025)

Reference (Year)  Kabir et al., 2021	Education (Women/Spouse)  ✓ Higher education of women & spouses strongly associated with desirable MHS (31.2% desirable, 56% moderate).	Wealth/Income   √ Wealth index strongest predictor.	Urban Residence / Facility Access  ✓ Urban residents are more likely to use services.	Autonomy & Media Exposure	Family Support / Male Involvement	Technology / Community Interventions
Akter, 2022  Billah et al.,	✓ Education increased the likelihood of a qualified doctor's use.	√ Higher income → more qualified care (41.5%).	✓ Facility	_	_	✓ Use of visual
2022			readiness improved ANC quality (15% full nutrition service; 79% weight, 52% anaemia checks).			aids & provider counselling enhanced uptake.
Khan et al., 2020	✓ Women's & partners' education improved CoC (12.5% full CoC).	✓ Wealth index significant predictor.	✓ Urban residence improved SBA, ANC.	Autonomy & media exposure associated with higher CoC.	-	
Chanda et al., 2020	✓ Education is positively linked to ≥8 ANC (8% overall).	✓ Wealthier women accessed ANC from qualified providers.	✓ Urban women had significantly higher ANC visits.	✓ Mass media exposure key predictor.	_	

Abedin &	_	_	=	✓ Women's	=	✓ ANC mediated
Arunachalam,				autonomy		autonomy
2020				lowered		effects;
				high-risk		NGO/community
				pregnancy		role significant.
				by 46%.		
				,		
Shah et al.,	-	_	_	-	✓ Supportive	_
2020					family	
					reduced	
					delays in	
					care seeking.	
Gopalan et	✓ Partner's	_	√ Facility	_	✓ Partner	✓ Supply-side
al., 2021	education		readiness &		involvement	investment in
	improved		staff		improved	CHWs &
	maternal care use.		availability		utilization.	mHealth
			improved			improved
			service			services.
			uptake.			
Begum &	✓ Education	✓ Income raised	=	_	=	_
Hamid, 2023	improved ANC	institutional				
	(4+ ANC: 20%	delivery use.				
	HDP vs 15%	derivery use.				
	LDP).					
	LDI).					
Chowdhury	_	_	✓ Facility	<b>√</b>	_	✓ Community
et al., 2022			readiness &	Awareness		outreach &
			transport	campaigns		referral networks
			improved	increased		reduced
			service	coverage.		bottlenecks.
			coverage in			
			hard-to-			
			reach areas.			
Mistry et al.,	_	✓ Wealth is	_	_	_	√ 73.8% used
2021		positively				mobile phones
		associated with				for maternal
		mobile phone				services in slums.
		use.				
Rahman et	✓ Household head	_	_	_	✓ Household	_
al., 2024	education				education	
, 2021						
	improved ANC				facilitated	

	(36.9%) &				family-level	
	institutional				support.	
	delivery (53.5%).					
Farah &	√ Higher	√ Higher	=	✓	=	_
Karim, 2015	education is	income linked to		Awareness		
	associated with	more ANC		of danger		
	ANC (63.4%	visits.		signs		
	uptake).			improved		
				ANC use.		
Ali et al.,	✓ Adolescents:	√ Richest	√ Urban	✓ Mass	_	_
2018	Higher AOR =	quintile →	residence is	media		
	8.08 (p<.001);	Adolescents	positively	exposure is		
	8.08 (p<.001), Adults: AOR =		associated.			
	Adults: $AOR = 2.98 (p<.001)$ .	AOR = 2.70 (p<.05), Adults	associated.	significant for both		
	2.98 (p<.001). Husband's	AOR = 6.51				
	education is also	(p<.001).		groups.		
	significant.	(p<.001).				
	significant.					
Nizum et al.,	√ Women's	✓ Wealth index	_	√ TV	_	_
2023	education (OR =	significant		exposure		
	2.1, p<.01)	determinant.		increased		
	improved ANC;			PNC		
	institutional			uptake.		
	delivery OR = 3.2					
	(p<.001).					
Alam et al.,	✓ Maternal &	√ Wealth	√ Urban	✓ Media	_	_
2025	partner education	contributed	women had	exposure		
	explained 28–30%	26.16% (ANC)	significantly	reduced		
	of urban–rural	& 40.30%	higher	inequalities.		
	gaps.	(SBA)	utilization.			
		inequalities.				
Al Mamun et	√ Higher	✓ Wealthiest	√ Urban	_	_	_
al., 2025	education	women 2.70x	women			
	increased ANC	(p<.05) and	better off			
	use (Adolescents	6.51x (p<.001)	compared to			
	AOR = 8.08,	more likely to	coastal.			
	Adults AOR =	use ANC.				
	2.98).					
	,					

### 3.5 Negative Factors Hindering Maternal Healthcare Utilization

### **Socioeconomic Inequalities (Reported in 11 of 17 studies)**

Socioeconomic disadvantage was the most frequently reported barrier, appearing in 11 studies (Al-Mamun et al., 2025; Ali et al., 2018; Chanda et al., 2020; Kabir et al., 2021; Rahman et al., 2024; Akter, 2022; Farah & Karim, 2015; Nizum et al., 2023; Alam et al., 2025; Begum & Hamid, 2023; Chowdhury et al., 2022).

Ali et al. (2018) demonstrated that adolescent girls in the poorest quintile were significantly less likely to receive  $\geq$ 4 ANC visits (AOR = 0.37, p < 0.001), while Kabir et al. (2021) showed that women in the lowest wealth quintile were 23 times less likely to access desirable maternal health services compared to the richest. Similarly, Al-Mamun et al. (2025) reported that working mothers in coastal areas with low income were 1.7 times more likely to underutilize ANC.

Financial barriers also forced women to seek care from unqualified providers. Akter (2022) found that 59% of mothers in rural Khulna relied on unqualified doctors due to affordability concerns, while Farah & Karim (2015) observed that lower-income households had significantly reduced ANC uptake (p < 0.05). Together, these findings confirm that financial hardship not only reduces access but also undermines the quality and continuity of care.

### **Cultural and Gender Norms (Reported in 9 of 17 studies)**

Cultural restrictions and patriarchal norms were identified as barriers in 9 studies (Al-Mamun et al., 2025; Shah et al., 2020; Nizum et al., 2023; Abedin & Arunachalam, 2020; Kabir et al., 2021; Rahman et al., 2024; Ali et al., 2018; Farah & Karim, 2015; Begum & Hamid, 2023).

Al-Mamun et al. (2025) found that cultural beliefs restricted pregnant women's healthcare access by 2.73 times compared to other barriers. Shah et al. (2020), through qualitative interviews, highlighted how household decision-making hierarchies delayed emergency care, with women often lacking autonomy to decide independently. Similarly, Nizum et al. (2023) reported that women with low spousal support and limited autonomy had significantly reduced PNC utilization (37.3%).

Abedin & Arunachalam (2020) reinforced these findings, showing that autonomy deficits indirectly increased high-risk pregnancies through reduced ANC. Rahman et al. (2024) also demonstrated that uneducated household heads diminished the benefits of ANC uptake in

facilitating institutional delivery. These patterns reveal how entrenched gender norms intersect with education and poverty to restrict women's agency in healthcare decisions.

# Geographic Inaccessibility and Environmental Vulnerabilities (Reported in 8 of 17 studies)

Eight studies emphasized geographic and environmental barriers to maternal healthcare access (Chowdhury et al., 2022; Begum & Hamid, 2023; Al-Mamun et al., 2025; Alam et al., 2025; Farah & Karim, 2015; Nizum et al., 2023; Kabir et al., 2021; Chanda et al., 2020).

Chowdhury et al. (2022) documented how women in coastal, hilly, and char areas struggled with poor transport infrastructure and long distances to facilities, resulting in missed ANC and delivery care. Begum & Hamid (2023) found that women in high disaster-prone areas were 52% less likely to deliver in health facilities than those in low-prone regions. Similarly, Al-Mamun et al. (2025) quantified that distance increased the odds of ANC underutilization by 1.22 times.

Even in less extreme contexts, rural residence consistently disadvantaged women. Alam et al. (2025) attributed up to 40% of rural—urban disparities in SBA use to geographic inequities. These findings suggest that geographic marginalization is compounded by environmental vulnerabilities, leaving disaster-prone communities particularly underserved.

#### **Health System Weaknesses (Reported in 7 of 17 studies)**

Seven studies reported health system deficiencies as barriers (Billah et al., 2022; Chowdhury et al., 2022; Gopalan et al., 2021; Kabir et al., 2021; Rahman et al., 2024; Begum & Hamid, 2023; Al-Mamun et al., 2025).

Billah et al. (2022) found that only 15% of women received all four recommended nutrition services during ANC, with key gaps in anaemia testing and counselling. Chowdhury et al. (2022) identified systemic bottlenecks such as shortages of drugs, blood transfusion facilities, and skilled personnel in hard-to-reach areas. Gopalan et al. (2021), using machine learning, further highlighted declining demand-side influence but rising importance of supply-side readiness, including staff availability and quality of care.

These weaknesses indicate that even where demand exists, systemic deficiencies undermine effective utilization. The persistence of such gaps reflects structural challenges in scaling up maternal health interventions.

#### Limited Awareness and Knowledge Gaps (Reported in 6 of 17 studies)

Six studies highlighted lack of awareness and knowledge as barriers (Farah & Karim, 2015; Khan et al., 2020; Nizum et al., 2023; Ali et al., 2018; Kabir et al., 2021; Rahman et al., 2024).

Farah & Karim (2015) reported that nearly 59% of rural women were unaware of pregnancy danger signs, which was significantly associated with reduced ANC uptake (p < 0.05). Khan et al. (2020) showed that unintended pregnancies reduced the likelihood of achieving full continuum of care by 62%. Nizum et al. (2023) similarly found that low awareness of institutional delivery benefits curtailed PNC use, even among women who attended ANC.

Ali et al. (2018) and Kabir et al. (2021) reinforced that knowledge gaps intersect with education and autonomy deficits, while Rahman et al. (2024) noted that households led by uneducated heads were less able to translate ANC uptake into institutional delivery. Together, these findings demonstrate that informational barriers reduce demand, even when structural access exists.

Table 3.4: Negative Factors Hindering Maternal Healthcare Utilization in Bangladesh (2015–2025)

Reference	Socioeconomic	Cultural	Geographic/Environm	Health	Limited	Urban-
	Inequalities	&	ental Barriers	System	Awareness/Knowle	Rural
		Gender		Weakness	dge Gaps	Inequities
		Norms		es		
Kabir et al.,	✓ (Wealth					✓ (Urban >
2021	index strong					rural access)
	predictor of					
	service use)					
Akter, 2022	✓ (Cost of care					
	major barrier;					
	reliance on					
	unqualified					
	doctors 59%)					
Billah et				√ (Only		
al., 2022				15%		
				received		
				all ANC		

	T	ı	Τ		T	T
				nutrition		
				services		
				due to		
				facility		
				readiness		
				gaps)		
Khan et al.,	✓ (Unwanted				✓ (Low awareness,	
2020	pregnancies				unintended	
	reduce full				pregnancies)	
	CoC odds)					
Chanda et	√ (Wealth &					√ (Urban
al., 2020	education					women are
	gaps)					more likely
						to meet
						ANC
						standards)
						standards)
Abedin &		√ (Low				
Arunachala		autonomy				
m, 2020		raised				
		pregnanc				
		y risk,				
		mediated				
		by ANC)				
Shah et al.,		✓		<b>√</b>		
2020		(Househo		(Provider		
2020						
		ld		shortages,		
		gendered		delay in		
		decision-		care)		
		making				
		delays				
		care-				
		seeking)				
C 1				,		
Gopalan et				✓		
al., 2021				(Declining		
				demand-		
				side,		
				increasing		
				supply-		
				side gaps		
				in quality		
				. ,		

				of care)		
				,		
Begum &	√ (Low		√ (52% less likely to			
Hamid,	income lowers		use institutional delivery			
2023	utilization in		in disaster-prone zones)			
	disaster-prone					
	areas)					
Chowdhury			✓ (Hard-to-reach	√ (Drug		
et al., 2022			regions face severe	shortages,		
			bottlenecks: transport,	lack of		
			distance)	staff)		
Mistry et					/ (D : C 1	
al., 2021					✓ (Barriers for less-	
ai., 2021					educated, poorer	
					women in slums)	
Rahman et	√ (Household					
al., 2024	head's low					
	education					
	lowered ANC					
	and delivery					
	odds)					
Farah &	✓ (Poorer, less				√ (59% unaware of	
Karim,	educated				key danger signs)	
2015	women					
	underutilize					
	ANC)					
Ali et al.,	(4.1.1					/ / / / /
2018	✓ (Adolescents					√ (Urban–
2016	from the					rural gaps)
	poorest quintile					
	are least likely					
	to receive ≥4					
	ANC)					
Nizum et	√ (Lower	✓ (Lack			✓ (Low awareness	√ (Rural
al., 2023	wealth	of			of institutional	women
	associated with	spousal			delivery benefits)	disadvantag
	poor uptake)	support				ed)
	- ·	reduced				
		PNC)				
Alam et al.,	✓					√ (Rural
	(Wealth/educat					women

2025	ion explained				significantly
	60% of				underserved
	inequality in				)
	ANC/SBA)				
Al-Mamun	✓ (Low	✓	✓ (Distance to facilities		
et al., 2025	income	(Cultural	reduced access:		
	increased odds	restriction	AOR=1.22)		
	of non-use by	s limited			
	1.7x)	ANC			
		access:			
		AOR=2.7			
		3)			

#### **CHAPTER 4**

#### DISCUSSION

### 4.1 Introduction

This discussion chapter compares the results of a systematic review that investigated the determinants of maternal healthcare utilisation in Bangladesh from 2015 to 2025. The evidence review summarised the findings of 17 empirical studies to demarcate enablers and barriers affecting the utilisation of antenatal care (ANC), skilled birth attendance (SBA), and postnatal care (PNC) by women. The study was conducted to address two key questions: What enables women to use maternal healthcare in Bangladesh, and what makes it more difficult to reach the necessary services?

These questions are especially important, as Bangladesh continues to grapple with Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 3.1, which aims to achieve fewer than 70 deaths per 100,000 live births of maternal mortality ratio by 2030. The best has yet to be achieved, and even with these commendable advances, the unavoidable maternal morbidity and mortality remain urgent concerns due to the persistent inequities in accessing ANC, SBA, and PNC services (Kabir et al., 2021; Farah and Karim, 2015).

### 4.2 Key Findings

The review of 17 studies provides a comprehensive picture of a complex of socioeconomic, cultural, geographic, and systemic determinants of maternal healthcare use in Bangladesh. Desirable determinants were also constant, where maternal and spousal education were seen as the most powerful enablers and enhanced uptake of ANC, SBA, and PNC (Kabir et al., 2021; Ali et al., 2018; Rahman et al., 2024). Wealth was also determining, with women in wealthier households being much more likely to receive services, with inequality accounting for up to 40 per cent of urban-rural differences (Alam et al., 2025). Living in cities also made it easier by being close to authority and professionals (Mistry et al., 2021; Chowdhury et al., 2022).

Media exposure and digital health innovations, particularly mobile phone use, proved influential in bridging access gaps, while supportive family dynamics and male involvement enhanced institutional delivery, especially in vulnerable regions (Begum & Hamid, 2023; Gopalan et al., 2021).

Negative factors, however, created systemic barriers. Poverty restricted affordability of care, while geographic inaccessibility in rural, coastal, and disaster-prone areas limited service uptake (Akter, 2022; Al-Mamun et al., 2025). Cultural norms constrained women's autonomy, delaying emergency care decisions (Shah et al., 2020; Abedin & Arunachalam, 2020). Health system weaknesses, including shortages of drugs, staff, and equipment, further undermined continuity of care (Billah et al., 2022; Chowdhury et al., 2022). Utilization remained worryingly low overall, with ANC coverage ranging from 25% to 51%, SBA at 53%, and PNC below 37%, underscoring persistent inequities.

#### 4.3 Comparison with Wider Literature

It has continuously been observed all over the world that maternal healthcare use is extremely affected by socioeconomic status, especially education and wealth, and the findings in Bangladesh mirror these patterns. Demographic and Health Surveys conducted in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia present evidence that women who have had secondary schooling are two to three times more likely to receive antenatal care (ANC) and skilled birth attendance (SBA) compared to women who never had formal education (Benova et al., 2018). ANC, SBA, and postnatal care (PNC) are highly pro-rich in Ethiopia, with the richest quintile having over double the access versus the poor (Atuhaire et al., 2023). These international trends are more or less similar to the Bangladeshi scenario, as found by Kabir et al. (2021), Ali et al. (2018), and Alam et al. (2025): the higher the maternal and spousal education and the more wealth a household has, the higher the likelihood that the recommended ANC visit will be made and that delivery into a facility will be selected.

The central argument in maternal healthcare in Nepal and India is supported by evidence in the geographical centrality of health. Research indicates that the proximity to medical centres crucially disrupts ANC and SBA adoption, particularly in conjunction with poverty and low education levels (Acharya et al., 2017). This is consistent with Chanda et al. (2020) and Nizum et al. (2023), who disclose that rural women in Bangladesh are more disadvantaged than urban women, have less ANC coverage, and have fewer skilled women in attendance during birth. Equally, studies in Sub-Saharan Africa have shown that rural living is a consistent predictor of the inappropriate use of maternal health services (Udenigwe et al., 2022). The Bangladeshi experience brings in a special twist: Begum and Hamid (2023) and Al-Mamun et al. (2025) report on the processes by which floods, cyclones, and disaster-prone

geographies increase the intensity of existing rural-urban inequalities, placing coastal and remote women in a particularly disadvantaged position.

According to South Asian literature, cultural norms and gendered decision-making processes are always impediments to maternal healthcare (Haque et al., 2024). Indian and Pakistani studies report that patriarchal systems restrict female autonomy and postpone care-seeking (Malik et al., 2024), whereas in Afghanistan, consent from spouses or elders is frequently necessary before treatment (Osmani et al., 2021). These trends are consistent with what Shah et al. (2020) and Abedin and Arunachalam (2020) found in Bangladesh, noting that male-led household decision-making arrangements slow emergency care-seeking and lower ANC and PNC uptake. Autonomy is a determining factor that is more significant and important in South Asian literature than in African contexts, where distance and financial access prevail (Bobo et al., 2023; Jahangir et al., 2025). This affirms the need to seek interventions and policies that are culturally sensitive and involve male members of the household in the decision-making of healthcare by empowering the women.

Another similar conclusion of all research on maternal health around the world is the role of health system preparedness. Several low- and middle-income nations have demonstrated that the most frequent obstacles to service uptake include shortage of staff, drug stock-outs, and insufficient infrastructure (Campbell et al., 2016; Kruk et al., 2018). Billah et al. (2022) and Chowdhury et al. (2022) reflect these conclusions in Bangladesh, emphasising the substantial gaps in provider competence, facility readiness, and referral systems. Women may be scared off by the poor quality of service even when other demand-side barriers like the cost of services are taken care of. This is the same situation in sub-Saharan Africa, where women bypass facilities which are poorly resourced, compromising continuity of care (Tunçalp et al., 2015). Therefore, it is as essential to enhance structural readiness as demand.

Mother healthcare utilisation through digital health and mass media is a more recent and developing theme in the international literature. In Kenya, mobile phone reminders also had a noteworthy effect on ANC attendance (Adanikin et al., 2017), while in India, mass media campaigns led to an increase in the rate of institutional delivery (Gupta et al., 2020). These results closely resonate with Bangladeshi data: Mistry et al. (2021) indicate that almost three-quarters of women in urban slums in Dhaka used mobile phones to obtain maternal health services, and Billah et al. (2022) prove that visual aids positively influenced ANC counselling. The intersecting nature of the regions indicates the promise of mHealth and

information campaigns as widely applicable measures to give maternal healthcare uptake a boost.

Victimisation to climate and environmental stressors is a unique aspect of the Bangladeshi evidence base. Typhoons and flooding in the Philippines impact access to maternal health services and put maternal health at risk (Delica-Willison & Gaillard, 2017). Equally in the Pacific Island states, poor maternal and neonatal outcomes are directly related to increasing sea levels and extreme weather events (Lyth et al., 2021). The insights presented in these studies are echoed by Begum and Hamid (2023) and Al-Mamun et al. (2025), who demonstrate that salinity intrusion, flooding, and cyclone threats in Bangladesh substantially decrease ANC, SBA, and institutional delivery rates. Although climate change has gained more recognition as a health determinant in many parts of the world, the Bangladeshi experience provides a crucial case study that demonstrates the intersection of environmental vulnerability with poverty and gender norms in amplifying inequities.

The family involvement and spouses' support are also important in comparative literature. A husband who is supportive in Nigeria is one of the strongest predictors of whether women will seek skilled birth attendance (Doctor et al., 2018). Male attendance on reproductive health programmes became high in Pakistan (Shaikh et al., 2022). Such similarities strengthen the conclusions of Rahman et al. (2024) and Gopalan et al. (2021) in Bangladesh, who emphasise the role of household head education and male decision-making support as key enablers of maternal service use. Although cultural barriers are present, mobilising families could be an effective change lever.

Global systematic reviews also indicate that maternal danger sign awareness and knowledge have a key role in healthcare-seeking behaviour. In Ethiopia, ANC and institutional delivery uptake were significantly better due to awareness campaigns (Tiruneh et al., 2021). Exposure to maternal health-related information by women who contacted community health workers was also more likely to use PNC services in India (Yadav et al., 2020). These trends reflect Bangladesh results, with Farah and Karim (2015) reporting low ANC adoption despite a high rate of provision of supplements and a lower continuum of care in women with unintended pregnancies due to informational deficiencies in both studies.

The evidence in Bangladesh put together is highly correlated with the world literature on determinants of important variables in maternal healthcare usage. Education, wealth, and city living are the strongest enablers in any circumstances, with poverty, gender-based decision-

making, poor health systems, and geographic isolation being typical barriers. However, Bangladesh contributes with its own experiences in terms of climate vulnerability and fast-tracked digital health adoption. The papers that are part of the present review emphasise that the structural and cultural factors that affect the women in Bangladesh are neither specific nor new, but their assemblage with the environmental risk factor and the quick urbanisation of this region make the situation unique. Indeed, health policy in the low-income, climate-vulnerable countries must incorporate system strengthening, digital-health innovation, and gender-transformative strategies to achieve an acceleration of progress on universal maternal health coverage (Anjum et al., 2025).

## 4.4 Strengths and Limitations

This is the first systematic review that synthesises empirical evidence (2015–2025) on determinants of maternal healthcare utilisation in Bangladesh, including antenatal care (ANC), skilled birth attendance (SBA), and postnatal care (PNC). Its primary advantage is that it has been conducted with methodological rigour following the PRISMA 2020 criteria when selecting the studies and using standard critical assessment tools to determine the quality of the articles to guarantee transparency and reproducibility. This synthesis was not confined to survey-based studies like many reviews but included cross-sectional, qualitative, and quasi-experimental research, offering both statistical and contextual enrichment. Integrating vulnerable populations, including working mothers in coastal areas, women in urban slums, and adolescents, adds to its value by underscoring the disproportionately disadvantaged groups who often lack access to care.

Despite these strengths, several limitations must be acknowledged. Many of the quantitative studies relied on secondary datasets, which restrict analysis to predefined variables and self-reported outcomes. There was also a scarcity of longitudinal or intervention-based research, limiting the ability to establish causal pathways across the continuum of ANC, SBA, and PNC. Geographic coverage was uneven, with high-need groups such as char dwellers and indigenous communities largely absent. Methodological weaknesses included limited control for confounders and insufficient detail on recruitment strategies. Finally, publication bias and heterogeneity in outcome definitions may have constrained comparability across studies.

#### 4.5 Future Implications

The findings of this review hold significant implications for both policy and future research. On the policy front, strengthening maternal healthcare in underserved rural and coastal areas must be prioritized. Mobile clinics, community health workers (CHWs), and telemedicine interventions could bridge gaps in facility access, particularly in disaster-prone regions where infrastructure is weak (Begum & Hamid, 2023; Al-Mamun et al., 2025). Expanding female education and income-generation programs is equally vital, as education and household wealth were consistently strong predictors of service utilization (Kabir et al., 2021; Alam et al., 2025). At the health system level, investments are needed to improve staff capacity, availability of essential medicines, and quality of counseling (Billah et al., 2022; Chowdhury et al., 2022).

Technology and communication also offer promising pathways (Spielman et al., 2021). Scaling up mHealth solutions and targeted mass media campaigns could raise awareness, improve appointment adherence, and reduce knowledge gaps, especially in low-literacy populations (Mistry et al., 2021).

In the case of research, there are a few gaps. Longitudinal cohort studies are urgently needed in which maternal health-seeking behaviours within the care continuum can be mapped (Arunda et al., 2021). Intervention-related research studies, such as randomised controlled trials (RCTs) and community-based trials, are vital to test scalable solutions in real-life settings (Elechi et al., 2025). Additionally, since Bangladesh is a region most susceptible to climate change, studies need to explore the direct impact of flooding, cyclones, and salinity penetration on access to maternal healthcare (Bain et al., 2025). Lastly, qualitative research is essential to unravel cultural norms, gender roles, and decision-making dynamics in marginalised groups that quantitative surveys cannot effectively capture due to complex social realities (Shah et al., 2020; Gopalan et al., 2021).

# **CHAPTER 5**

# CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Conclusion

This review aimed to critically analyse the determinants of maternal healthcare use in Bangladesh with regard to antenatal care (ANC), skilled birth attendance (SBA), and postnatal care (PNC). It has produced a synthesised body of evidence representing both the gains and the existing challenges that still influence the accessibility of essential maternal health services to women, published since 2015.

The review shows that the use of maternal healthcare in Bangladesh is not consistent and cannot be defined by one factor, as it is affected by the interplay between socioeconomic status and cultural norms, geographical availability, and the preparedness of the health system. Education was the most stable facilitator, with maternal education and spousal education both having a significant relationship with increased ANC attendance, increased chance of institutional delivery, and increased uptake of PNC. Wealth was a decisive factor as well, as it allowed women to repay expenses regarding transport, medicines, and even personal consultations. City living, mass media exposure, and mobile phone access also contributed to service uptake through smaller informational and geographic barriers. These results validate that structural enablers in the form of education, wealth, infrastructure, and information access always translate to improved maternal health outcomes.

Simultaneously, this review demonstrates long-lasting challenges that have a disproportionate impact on disadvantaged women. Poverty, rural life, and insufficient education have remained limiting factors to service utilisation, particularly for women in rural areas prone to disasters or lacking adequate education. Gendered structures of decision-making and patriarchal norms were also observed in many studies where women simply could not make independent decisions related to healthcare unless a husband/elder consented to such decisions.

Weaknesses in the health system — including shortages of trained personnel, limited facility readiness, and inconsistent availability of essential supplies — were consistently identified as barriers that undermined confidence and continuity of care. Finally, the additional risks faced by women in coastal and flood-prone regions underscored how climate vulnerability compounds pre-existing inequalities.

The synthesis confirms that while Bangladesh has achieved notable progress in expanding maternal healthcare coverage, the gaps remain significant. National data on ANC, SBA, and PNC coverage show steady improvements, but the averages mask stark inequities across wealth quintiles, urban–rural divides, and geographic regions. This uneven progress threatens Bangladesh's ability to achieve its Sustainable Development Goal target of reducing maternal mortality to fewer than 70 per 100,000 live births by 2030. Unless interventions address both the structural and cultural determinants identified in this review, the most vulnerable women — those who are poor, rural, marginalized, or climate-affected — will continue to be left behind.

#### 5.2 Recommendations

The findings of this review carry several implications for policy, practice, and future research. First, they make clear that strengthening maternal health in Bangladesh requires an integrated approach that simultaneously addresses demand- and supply-side barriers. Readiness in the health system, such as provision of community and sub-district facilities with trained midwives, sufficient provision of medicines, and basic infrastructure, should be part of the required investments. In the absence of such preparedness, even women who are motivated and cross the cultural or financial threshold can face services of poor quality, which puts off their further consumption.

Second, rural, coastal, and disaster-prone regions where the combined effect of poverty, distance, and environmental vulnerability puts maternal healthcare services under the most severe constraints must be expanded. Geographic inequities can be mitigated with strategies like the use of mobile clinics, expanding networks of community health workers, and the use of reliable referral and transport systems. Inclusion of maternal health in both the disaster preparedness and weather adaptation plans is also important, especially along the coast belt, where floods, cyclones and intrusion of saline water affect the supply and demand of services. Climate-resilient health planning to ensure continuity of maternal healthcare in emergencies should be a national priority.

Third, financial barriers must be addressed to promote equity. Expanding voucher schemes, conditional cash transfers, or maternal health insurance programs can reduce the out-of-pocket burden that prevents poor households from seeking timely care. Such measures are especially important in light of evidence showing that wealth consistently predicts utilization across all maternal health services. Financial protection should be coupled with efforts to

reduce indirect costs, including transportation and opportunity costs, that are particularly prohibitive for rural women.

Fourth, cultural and informational barriers must be tackled through community engagement. This review highlights that women's autonomy is often curtailed by patriarchal norms, delaying care-seeking and limiting service utilization. Interventions that engage husbands, household heads, and wider families in maternal health education can help shift decision-making structures toward greater support for women's health. At the same time, awareness campaigns delivered through mass media, schools, and community networks should continue to emphasize the importance of ANC, SBA, and PNC, as well as raise awareness of maternal danger signs. The role of digital health should be further leveraged, as mobile phones have proven effective in facilitating maternal healthcare access in both urban and rural settings.

Finally, this review identifies important research gaps that must be addressed to inform future interventions. Longitudinal studies are needed to track women across the continuum of care, as cross-sectional designs cannot fully capture transitions and drop-offs between ANC, SBA, and PNC. Rigorous evaluations of community-based and technological interventions are also necessary, particularly randomized or quasi-experimental studies that can establish causal links between interventions and outcomes. More qualitative and participatory research is needed to understand how gender norms, stigma, and cultural practices shape women's health-seeking behaviors, especially among adolescents, indigenous groups, and women in remote or disaster-affected regions. Moreover, maternal health research in Bangladesh would benefit from standardized outcome measures for ANC, SBA, and PNC utilization, allowing for better comparability across studies.

## **Personal Reflection**

Working on this dissertation has been one of the most challenging yet rewarding academic experiences of my life. It was the first time I engaged in such an in-depth and structured research process, and I quickly realized that the journey was as much about developing myself as a researcher as it was about generating knowledge.

One of the most important lessons I learned was the discipline required in systematic research. Initially, I did not think about how challenging it would be to adhere to PRISMA principles and ensure consistency in the use of inclusion and exclusion criteria. The experience of screening with Rayyan and appraisal with JBI checklists helped me to understand the importance of transparency and replicability in the academic process. I also learnt to be careful when recording every decision made, which was not always the case with previous assignments. It is this attention to detail that has transformed my thoughts on research integrity.

I also learnt to deal with complexity. At the start, synthesising the results of seventeen different studies, each of various designs, populations, and measures, was daunting. At times, I was caught up in the information, not knowing how to fit the pieces together into a logical story. Over time, I learnt to recognise patterns and cluster the findings into themes and strike a balance between breadth and depth. The process helped me understand how to be more critical but fair when interpreting evidence.

Just as important were the lessons of time management and perseverance. Writing a dissertation is quite different from writing smaller essays; the volume and extent meant that I needed to think over my job, set achievable goals and rewrite parts. It was frustrating to think things were progressing slowly or to think that revisions were never-ending. However, learning to approach the project step by step helped me overcome these challenges, and I now feel more confident in my ability to handle large, long-term projects.

Finally, the experience taught me to trust the process. At times, I doubted my ability to complete the dissertation, but by breaking tasks down and steadily working through them, I discovered resilience I did not know I had. Beyond the academic knowledge gained, the experience has given me confidence in my capacity to take on complex challenges, stay organized under pressure, and produce work that I can be proud of.

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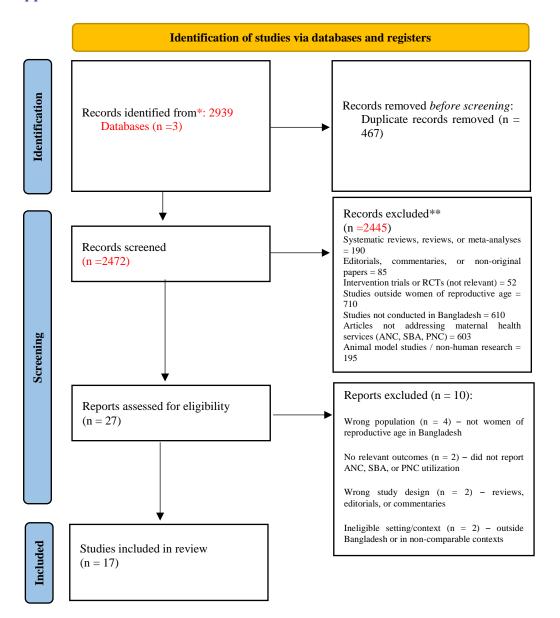
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## **APPENDIX**

# **Appendix A: PRISMA Flow Chart**



# Appendix B: JBI Critical Appraisal for Cross-Sectional Studies

- 1. Were the criteria for inclusion in the sample clearly defined?
- 2. Were the study subjects and the setting described in detail?
- 3. Was the exposure measured in a valid and reliable way?
- 4. Were objective, standard criteria used for measurement of the condition?
- 5. Were confounding factors identified?
- 6. Were strategies to deal with confounding factors stated?
- 7. Were the outcomes measured in a valid and reliable way?
- 8. Was appropriate statistical analysis used?

Study	1.	2. Subjects	3.	4.	5.	6. Strategies	7.	8.	Score
(Author,	Inclusion	& setting	Exposure	Standard	Confounding	for	Outcomes	Appropriate	(0-8)
Year)	criteria	described	measured	criteria	factors	confounding	measured	statistical	
	defined		validly	used	identified		validly	analysis	
Kabir, 2021	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	8
Akter, 2022	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	8
Billah,	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	8

2022									
Khan, 2020	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	8
Chanda, 2020	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	8
Abedin, 2020	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	8
Begum,	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	8
Mistry, 2021	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	8
Rahman, 2024	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	8
Ali, 2018	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	8
Nizum, 2023	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	8
Farah,	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Unclear	No	Yes	Yes	6

2015									
Alam, 2025	Yes	8							
Al- Mamun, 2025	Yes	8							
Gopalan et al., 2021	Yes	8							

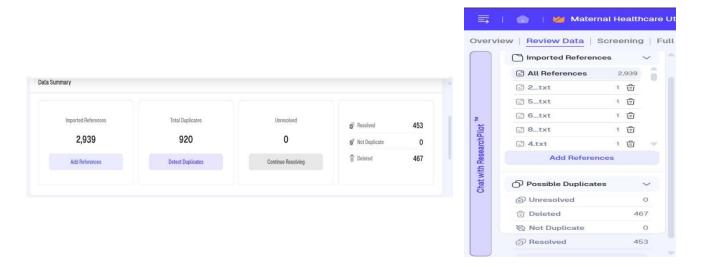
# **Appendix C: JBI Critical Appraisal for Qualitative Studies**

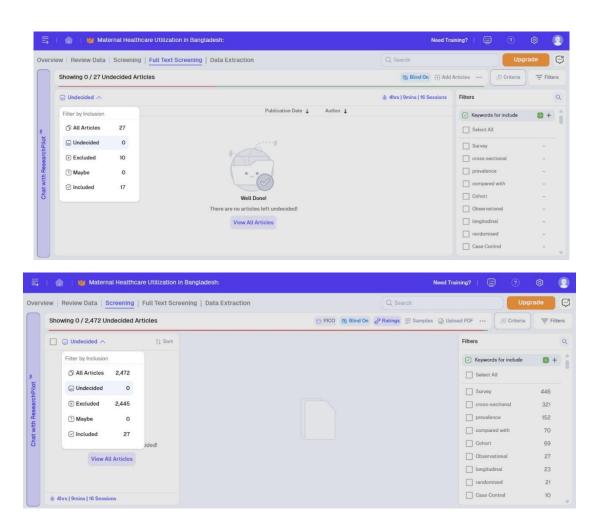
#### For qualitative studies, the JBI Critical Appraisal Checklist for Qualitative Research has 10 questions:

- 1. Is there congruity between the stated philosophical perspective and the research methodology?
- 2. Is there congruity between the research methodology and the research question or objectives?
- 3. Is there congruity between the research methodology and the methods used to collect data?
- 4. Is there congruity between the research methodology and the representation and analysis of data?
- 5. Is there congruity between the research methodology and the interpretation of results?
- 6. Is there a statement locating the researcher culturally or theoretically?
- 7. Is the influence of the researcher on the research, and vice-versa, addressed?
- 8. Are participants, and their voices, adequately represented?
- 9. Is the research ethical according to current criteria or is there evidence of ethical approval by an appropriate body?
- 10. Do the conclusions drawn in the research report flow from the analysis or interpretation of the data?

Study	1.	2.	3.	4.	5. Congruity:	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	Score
(Author,	Congruity:	Congruity:	Congruity:	Congruity:	methodology	Researcher's	Researcher	Participants'	Ethical	Conclusions	(0-
Year)	philosophy	methodology	methodology	methodology	&	position	influence	voices	approval	flow from	10)
	&	& research	& data	& analysis	interpretation	stated	addressed	represented	reported	data	
	methodology	question	collection								
Shah et	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Unclear	Unclear	Yes	Yes	Yes	8/10
al., 2020											

## **Appendix D: Rayyan Screenshots**





# **Appendix E: Searching Screenshots**

