



An Epidemiological Survey on the Assessment of Risk Factors during Pregnancy

Prasidhi Arora^{a++}, Preeti Shukla^{b#*} and Rekha Kaushik^{b†}

^a *Department of Food Science and Technology, MMDU, India.*

^b *Department of Food Science and Technology, MMDU, Mullana, Ambala 133207, India.*

Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration between all authors. Author PA wrote the protocol, and wrote the first draft of the manuscript. Authors PS designed the study, performed the statistical analysis and managed the literature searches, and author RK managed the analyses of the study. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Article Information

DOI: 10.56557/AJOCR/2024/v9i28631

Open Peer Review History:

This journal follows the Advanced Open Peer Review policy. Identity of the Reviewers, Editor(s) and additional Reviewers, peer review comments, different versions of the manuscript, comments of the editors, etc are available here: <https://prh.ikpress.org/review-history/11989>

Short Communication

**Received: 29/01/2024
Accepted: 02/04/2024
Published: 06/04/2024**

ABSTRACT

Pregnancy is described as a condition or a state from the time of conception up to the time of delivery. The 'high-risk' pregnancy means a woman has one or more things that raise her-or her baby's chances for health problems or preterm (early) delivery. High blood pressure, obesity, diabetes, epilepsy, thyroid disease, smoking, alcohol, using illegal drugs, heart or blood disorder, poorly controlled asthma, malnutrition anemia, multiple pregnancy, pregnancy history and infection can increase the risk of pregnancy. This study was basically a descriptive type of epidemiological study

⁺⁺ *B.Sc. (Nutrition and Dietetics);*

[#] *Assistant Professor;*

[†] *Professor;*

^{*}*Corresponding author: E-mail: preetishukla89@gmail.com;*

based on the concept of active surveillance. The elements involved to study were risk factors involved during pregnancy like Pre-eclampsia, Gestational Diabetes, Thyroid, delivery related complications and weight gain during pregnancy. The data obtained was categorized and analyzed using graphical representations as charts, graphs and other means. The descriptive responses were analyzed individually. Out of 100, 27 women were suffering from complications during late age pregnancy include Gestational Diabetes, Thyroid, complications due to High Blood Pressure, Cyst in Uterus, Bed Rest due to previous Miscarriage, Bleeding in Second Trimester, Acute Body Pain, Acute Rise in Blood pressure. Premature delivery was seen due to late age pregnancy. 16 out of 100 women had premature delivery i.e in 33 to 35 weeks of pregnancy or 7th and 8th month of pregnancy. In late age pregnancy, there were total 59 responses out of 100, 27(45.7%) women facing problems due to late age pregnancy like high BP, stillbirth, death of fetus in womb, thyroid, gestational diabetes and complications during delivery and 54.20% women were not having any problems. Women who suffered pregnancy induced hypertension, out of 57 women 17(29.82%) were facing problems like depression, anxiety, miscarriage, weakness, vomiting, nausea. Out of 100 women, 9 women suffered from gestational diabetes and 10 women had prolonged diabetes. So from above results, it is considered that women who are 35 years and above are considered to be at "high risk" for pregnancy. Women who were aged 22-30 years didn't suffer from such diseases but gestational diabetes was observed in some cases. Women who were aged 28-35 years suffered miscarriage and abortion due to reasons unknown.

Keywords: Pregnancy; risk factors; anaemia; gestational diabetes; high risk pregnancy.

1. INTRODUCTION

"Some bodily and social characteristics of women, which have took place in previous pregnancies and certain health conditions of women may complicate the pregnancy. Pregnancy adverse outcomes are strongly influenced by either non-pathologic or pathologic pre-pregnancy risk factors at first antenatal visit booking. Factors that put mother, fetus, or neonate at increased risk of morbidity or mortality can belong to pre-pregnancy situations (pathologic or not) or pregnancy proceeding, including in the postpartum period". Duckitt and Harrington [1].

Barthélémy et al. [2] conducted "a study with women sample comprised 2,086. Primiparity (36.5%), single relationship status (26.4%), and maternal age ≥ 35 years (18.3%) were the most important non-pathologic risk factors, while arterial hypertension in family (34.3%), previous miscarriage (33.2%), overweight/obesity (21.9%), diabetes in family (21.1%), previous cesarean section (15.7%), previous postpartum hemorrhage (13.1%), low birth weight (10%), previous macrosomia (10%), and previous premature rupture of membranes (6.2%) predominated among pathologic risk factors. Major adverse outcomes recurred in some women, with recurrence rates of 21/37 (57%), 111/208 (53%), 74/208 (36%), 191/598 (32%), 132/466 (28%), 24/130 (18%), and 4/65 (6%) for prematurity, low birth weight, macrosomia, preeclampsia/eclampsia, cesarean section,

premature rupture of membranes, and stillbirth, respectively. Outcomes that were significantly influenced by non-pathologic risk factors were also significantly influenced by pathologic risk factors".

Haas et al. [3] found that "health status and risky behaviors prior to conception accounted for 40% of the variability in risk of preterm delivery".

Hedderson et al. [4] concluded that "having raised blood pressure before pregnancy increases the risk of hypertensive disorder during pregnancy. The accurate assessment of pre-pregnancy risk factors, antenatal care remains one of four pillars of safe motherhood, the three others being family planning, clean/safe delivery, and essential obstetric care. Bergsjø P. [5].

Mgaya et al, [6] "in Tanzania, reported that grand multiparity was independently associated with an increased prevalence of malpresentation, fetal and neonatal distress, and placenta previa". In a rural area in Zimbabwe, Majoko et al. [7] also reported "primiparity to be a risk factor for LBW, cesarean section, and hypertensive disorders, whereas grand multiparity and young age were risk factors for hypertensive disorders and LBW, respectively".

Periyasamy K. [8] conducted "a study and revealed that the prevalence of high-risk pregnancies among Indian women was 49.4%, with 33% of women having a single high-risk, and

16.4% having multiple high-risk pregnancies. Notably, pregnant women from Meghalaya and Manipur states had 67.8% and 66.7% with one or more high-risk factors, respectively. About 31.1% of women had short birth spacing, and 19.5% of women had adverse birth outcomes during the last birth. Logistic regression analysis showed that women with no education (adjusted odds ratio (AOR) = 2.02; 95% confidence interval (CI) = 1.84-2.22) and the poorest wealth quintile (AOR = 1.33; 95% CI = 1.04-1.29) had significantly higher odds of having HRP than those with higher education and the highest wealth quintile, respectively”.

“A systematic review showed that women who had previous caesarean deliveries within a shorter duration from the last birth were at increased risk of uterine rupture, blood transfusions, and maternal morbidity”. Ye L et al. [9].

According to the India – Sample Registration System (SRS) [10] “the maternal mortality ratio (MMR) has declined from 113 deaths per 100 000 live births between 2016 and 2018 to 103 deaths per 100 000 live births between 2017 and 2019, and the majority of maternal deaths occurred in the age range of 20-29 years”

Oyerinde K. [11] believed “in the strategy of aiming at exclusion of poorly predictive risk factors from routine surveillance so that one can concentrate on key factors known to cause or precipitate death from hemorrhage, hypertensive disorders, infection, and disordered growth etc”.

“Women who were from the Christianity had a greater risk of high-risk than women of other religions. While ST women had a lower likelihood of high-risk and multiple high-risk than the higher-caste women, Women in southern states were more likely to experience high-risk and multiple-high-risk than those in northern states, and it could be due to the higher frequency of women with obesity, comorbidities, short birth spacing and more in caesarean section delivery”-Kutchi et al. [12].

“Pregnancy-related complications also known as Comorbidities were attributed to the greatest risk of maternal deaths. Empowered Action Group (EAG) States in India such as Assam, Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Odisha, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and Uttarakhand were reported to have higher rates of maternal deaths, and complications during pregnancy were also higher in these states”.

Howrood et al. (2020). Also, factors like maternal age, short-birth spacing, less weeks of gestation, and higher birth orders were the other high-risk factors, which are responsible for weight of the newborn. Global Burden of Disease Study 1990–2017.

2. METHODOLOGY

This study was basically a descriptive type of epidemiological study based on the concept of active surveillance. The elements involved to study were risk factors involved during pregnancy like Pre-eclampsia, Gestational Diabetes, Thyroid, delivery related complications and weight gain during pregnancy.

The data was collected by sharing the questionnaire as “Microsoft Forms” to 100 women and the data was collected over a span of 1 month from different regions of Haryana and Punjab. The data obtained was categorized and analyzed using graphical representations as charts, graphs and other means. The descriptive responses were analyzed individually.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Lifestyle

Lifestyle includes 76 out of 100 women were sedentary worker 20 out of them were moderate worker and 4 out of them were heavy worker. “A study on 430 women with planned pregnancy in Belgium reported that 83% of the participants had at least one change in their lifestyle behaviors in preparation for pregnancy. The modifications included behaviors such as smoking, alcohol consumption, caffeine consumption, nutritional status, weight control, and folic acid multivitamin supplements intake” Goossens et al. [13]. “A similar study on 283 pregnant women in the Netherlands has showed that actively preparing for pregnancy is associated with choosing a healthier lifestyle by women during the preconception period” Poels et al. [14].

3.2 Age of Marriage

This bar graph is showing that out of 100 women 53 women were married between the age of 18-22, 33 women were married between the age of 23-27, 13 women were married between the age of 28-31 and 1 woman was married in the age of 32 years. The Table 1, shown below depicts the age of 1st marriage in India as suggested by Singh et al. [15].

3.3 Age of 1st Pregnancy

This graph is showing that 7 women were got pregnant between the age of 15-20 years, 8 women were got pregnant between the age of 21-23 years, 52 women were got pregnant between the age of 24-28 years, 27 were got pregnant between the age of 29-31 years and 5 women got pregnant after 31 years of age.

Wubshet Debebe Negash and Desale Bihonegn Asmamaw in 2022 found in a survey that the overall median age at first birth was found to be 19 years (IQR: 16, 21 years). Rural residency

(AHR = 1.02, 95%, CI 1.00,1.04), agricultural employee (AHR = 1.14, 95%, CI 1.13, 1.17), and nonagricultural employee (AHR = 1.06, 95%, CI 1.05, 1.08), marriage below 15 years (AHR = 5.47, 95%, CI 5.37, 5.57) and 15–17 years (AHR = 3.27, 95%, CI 3.22, 3.32), had sex below 15 years (AHR = 1.57, 95%, CI 1.54, 1.61) and 15–17 years (AHR = 1.38, 95%, CI 1.38, 1.43), women who had unmet need for contraceptive (AHR = 1.39, 95%, CI 1.37, 1.42), and met need (AHR = 1.32, 95%, CI 1.30, 1.35), high spousal age gap (AHR = 1.17, 95%, CI 1.15, 1.19), not heard family planning message (AHR = 1.02, 95%, CI 1.01,1.04) were the higher hazard of early childbirth.

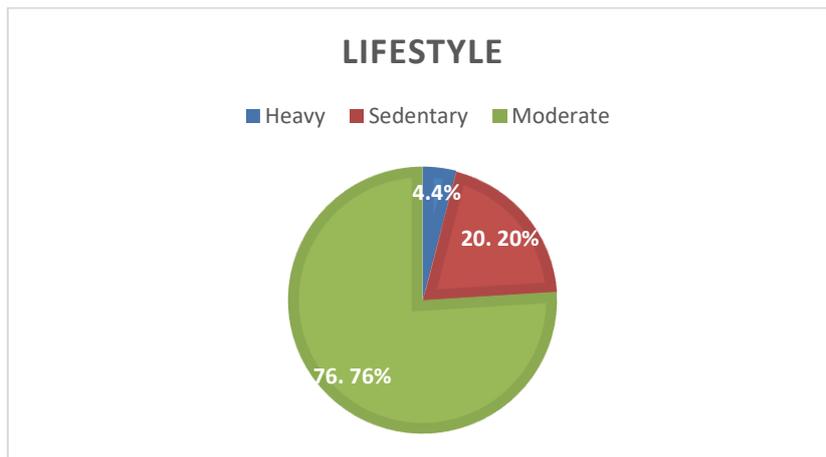


Fig. 1. Pie chart showing lifestyle scenario

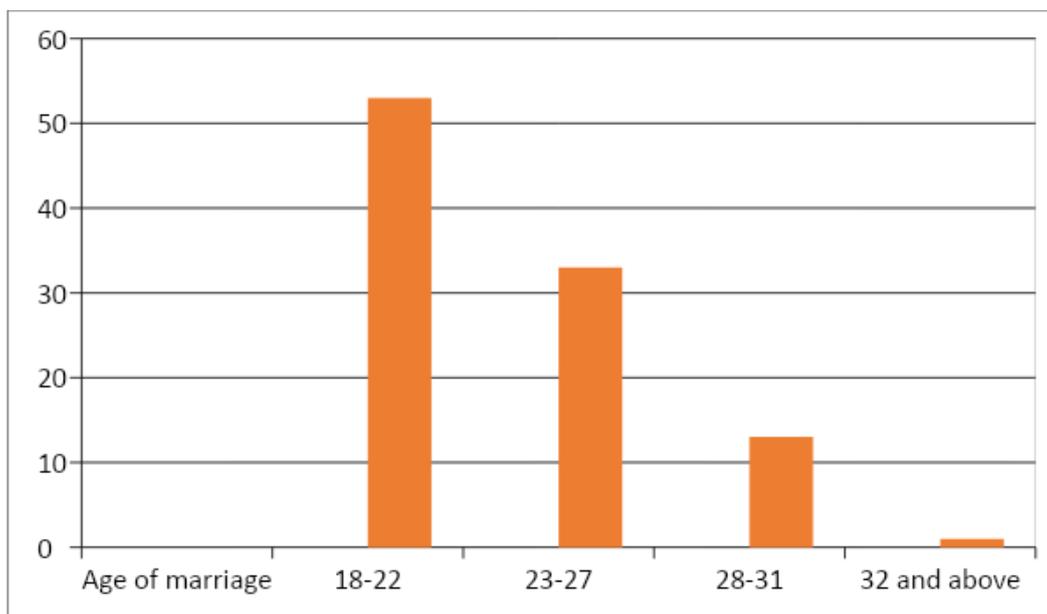


Fig. 2. Bar graph showing Age of marriage

Table 1. Distribution of age at first marriage by exact age in India over the period 1992–2021

Percentage of women who married for the first time by specific exact age and the median age at first marriage by current age											
Current Age	NFHS-Rounds	Percentage married by exact age								Number of Women	Median age at first Marriage
		15	16	17	18	19	20	21	25		
15–19	NFHS-I	43.1	na	9098	a						
	NFHS-II	41.0	na	8275	a						
	NFHS-III	11.9	na	7133	a						
	NFHS-IV	2.6	na	19,194	a						
	NFHS-V	1.7	na	15,897	a						
20–24	NFHS-I	31.2	44.3	56.2	65.9	79.1	87.2	na	na	17,974	16.5
	NFHS-II	29.3	42.1	53.8	63.5	77.9	85.5	na	na	16,583	16.7
	NFHS-III	18.2	27.2	36.9	47.4	56.8	64.4	na	na	16,294	18.3
	NFHS-IV	6.5	10.9	17.5	26.6	37.4	47.7	na	na	78,800	a
	NFHS-V	4.8	8.7	14.7	23.2	33.4	43.0	na	na	71,356	a
25–29	NFHS-I	32.4	45.2	56.5	64.7	75.1	80.7	87.0	97.5	17,439	16.4
	NFHS-II	30.2	42.9	53.8	61.9	73.3	79.2	85.8	97.0	17,960	16.7
	NFHS-III	25.4	35.8	46.2	55.4	65.7	72.4	78.6	91.3	18,163	17.4
	NFHS-IV	12.1	18.5	26.4	35.8	45.6	54.5	62.7	83.8	100,084	19.5
	NFHS-V	8.9	14.4	22.1	32.0	42.7	52.5	61.1	82.7	1,02,068	19.7
30–34	NFHS-I	33.6	46.4	58.3	66.1	76.3	81.1	87.1	96.1	14,665	16.3
	NFHS-II	31.6	44.9	56.8	64.8	75.3	80.3	86.4	95.8	15,288	16.4
	NFHS-III	28.5	40.7	51.8	61.2	70.9	76.5	82.0	93.2	16,366	16.8
	NFHS-IV	16.4	24.4	33.5	43.6	53.0	61.4	68.4	85.7	88,867	18.7
	NFHS-V	13.5	20.9	29.6	39.3	49.1	57.8	65.9	86.1	94,719	19.1
35–39	NFHS-I	36.7	49.8	61.9	69.2	78.4	82.7	88.3	96.0	12,461	16.0
	NFHS-II	33.5	46.4	58.3	66.1	76.1	81.1	86.5	95.3	13,252	16.3
	NFHS-III	31.0	43.6	54.8	63.4	73.5	79.1	84.3	93.8	14,813	16.6
	NFHS-IV	17.8	26.1	35.0	45.1	54.6	62.8	69.6	85.6	82,729	18.5
	NFHS-V	15.8	24.4	34.2	44.9	55.0	63.3	70.4	87.5	92,831	18.5
40–44	NFHS-I	40.3	53.8	64.7	72.0	81.1	85.1	90.9	96.9	9755	15.7
	NFHS-II	36.3	49.1	60.1	68.0	77.9	82.8	88.5	96.2	10,646	16.1
	NFHS-III	32.4	44.4	55.6	64.6	74.1	79.8	85.5	94.6	12,222	16.5
	NFHS-IV	19.6	28.1	37.1	46.8	55.6	63.5	70.2	84.9	69,863	18.4
	NFHS-V	17.9	26.7	36.3	46.9	56.8	65.4	72.7	88.6	77,467	18.3
45–49	NFHS-I	44.1	56.7	67.4	73.8	82.6	86.5	91.7	97.4	8046	15.7
	NFHS-II	38.3	51.7	62.0	69.7	78.5	82.5	88.5	95.8	8272	15.9
	NFHS-III	33.0	44.7	55.4	64.2	73.3	79.1	85.1	94.5	9203	16.5
	NFHS-IV	18.0	26.3	34.7	43.7	52.7	60.6	67.1	82.4	65,737	18.7
	NFHS-V	17.3	26.2	35.7	46.0	56.0	64.4	71.2	87.6	80,331	18.4
15–49	NFHS-I	36.0	na	89,437	a						
	NFHS-II	33.2	na	90,276	a						
	NFHS-III	23.9	na	94,194	a						
	NFHS-IV	12.3	na	505,274	a						
	NFHS-V	10.6	na	5,34,670	a						
20–49	NFHS-I	35.2	48.1	59.7	67.7	78.2	83.6	na	na	80,340	16.2
	NFHS-II	32.4	45.4	56.7	65.0	76.2	81.8	na	na	82,001	16.4
	NFHS-III	26.9	37.9	48.6	57.9	67.7	74.0	na	na	87,061	17.2
	NFHS-IV	14.3	21.3	29.6	39.1	48.8	57.5	na	na	486,080	19.1
	NFHS-V	12.4	19.3	27.7	37.6	47.7	56.7	na	na	5,18,773	19.2
25–49	NFHS-I	36.3	49.2	60.7	68.2	77.9	82.6	88.5	96.7	62,366	16.1
	NFHS-II	33.2	46.2	57.5	65.4	75.7	80.8	86.8	96.1	65,418	16.3
	NFHS-III	29.4	41.1	52.0	61.1	70.9	76.8	82.5	93.2	70,767	16.8
	NFHS-IV	16.4	24.2	32.8	42.5	51.9	60.1	67.3	84.5	407,280	18.8
	NFHS-V	14.2	21.9	30.9	41.1	51.3	60.1	67.7	86.3	4,47,417	18.9

Notes: na = Not applicable, a = Median is not calculated because less than 50 percent of women had a birth before reaching the beginning of the age group. Singh et al., [15]. From NFHS-1 to NFHS-V, there has been a considerable decline in women currently aged 15–19 years marrying at age 15. Similarly, there has been a considerable decline in the proportion of women aged 20–24 and 25–29 years during the survey marrying at younger ages. For instance, the percentage of married women in the age group 20–24 who got married at 15 years (young adolescents) of age declined by around one-sixth from 1992-93 to 2019-20. There has been an increase in the proportion marrying at higher ages across the survey rounds. Primarily during 1992–93, approximately 66% of women were married before 18 years while during 2019–21 it reduced to 23.2% among women aged 20–24 years. The same declining pattern of marriage was also observed for respondents married by the age of 21 years. Still, during 2019–21 around 32%, 39.3%, 44.9%, 46.9%, and 46.0% of women were married before 18 years among women with current ages 25–29 years, 30–34 years, 35–39 years, 40–44 years, and 45–49 years respectively. During the last three decades, there has been a significant increase in the median age at marriage. For women in the age group 20–49 years, the median age of marriage improved from 16.2 years in 1992–93 to 19.2 years in the year 2019–21. Similar patterns were observed in the median age at marriage for women aged 25–49 years

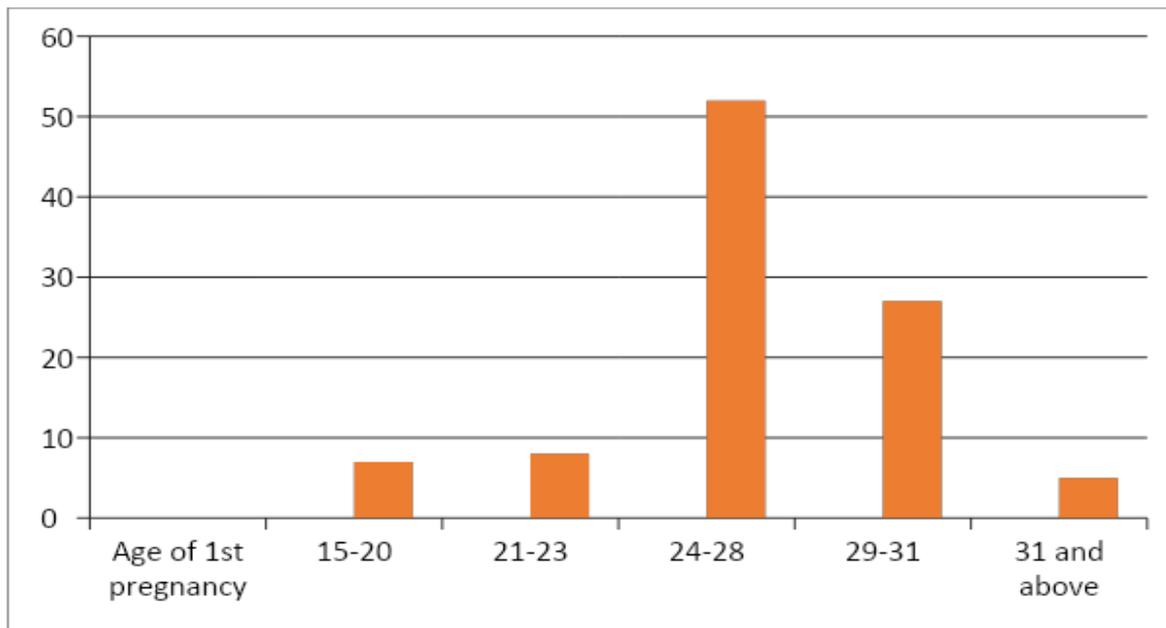


Fig. 3. Bar graph showing Age of 1st pregnancy

Table 2. Age of 2nd Pregnancy

24-27	14
28-32	19
32-34	5
35 and above	9
No Respondants	28

3.4 Type of Delivery

The study done in a survey by Nivedita et al. [16] revealed that “the C-section deliveries are higher in the southern states than in the other parts of India. Literacy plays a vital role in C-section deliveries. The probabilities of C-section deliveries are more in 30–40 and 40 + years. The women belonging to the median wealth index category were more likely (OR–CI, 1.62 [1.55–1.66]) to undergo the C-section followed by the women from wealthy households (OR–CI, 1.46 [1.41–1.52])”.

This result shows 60 out of 100 women had normal delivery and 40 out of them had c-section delivery.

3.5 Women Suffering from PCOD

This graph depicts 83 out of 100 women had not suffered from PCOD before pregnancy and 11 out of 100 women had suffered and 8 out of 100 with no response.

Stein-Leventhal syndrome, often known as polycystic ovarian syndrome (PCOS), is a syndrome that affects women’s reproductive

health. PCOS is one of the most common endocrine and metabolic disorders in women of reproductive age. The etiology of PCOS remains unknown mainly, and the estimation of PCOS burden in a specific geographical location will impact disease control strategies. Only those published Indian studies that reported the prevalence of PCOS from 2010 to 2021 and had at least one of the following diagnostic PCOS criteria were included in the systematic review: the National Institutes of Health (NIH), Rotterdam’s criteria, or/and Androgen Excess Society (AES). MetaXL version 5.3 software was used for data analysis by Bharali M. et al. [17].

They found that the risk of bias was assessed using modified Joanna Briggs Institute criteria for cross-sectional studies. Out of 17132 articles, 11 articles were selected for systematic review and meta-analysis. The pooled prevalence of PCOS was 11.33(7.69-15.59) using the random effect. The proportion of Hirsute using the Ferriman-Gallwey score was highly variable, ranging from 1.6% to 37.9% (n=6). The prevalence rate of PCOS is high among Indian women. The pooled prevalence of PCOS was close to 10% using Rotterdam’s criteria and AES criteria, while it was 5.8% using NIH criteria. The study’s overall finding emphasizes the need for more acceptable and uniform diagnostic criteria for screening PCOS. At the same time, policy-makers should consider giving more importance to PCOS in their effort to control non-communicable diseases.

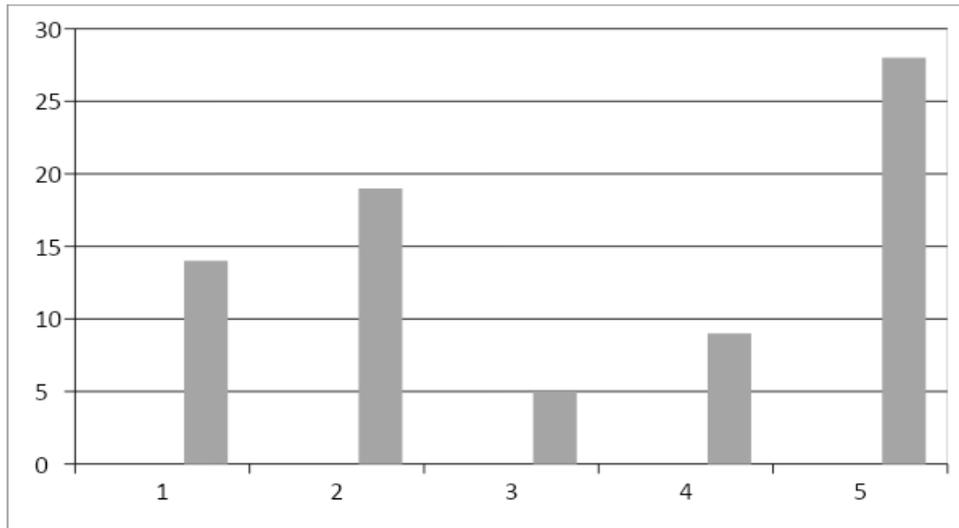


Fig. 4. Bar graph showing age of 2nd pregnancy

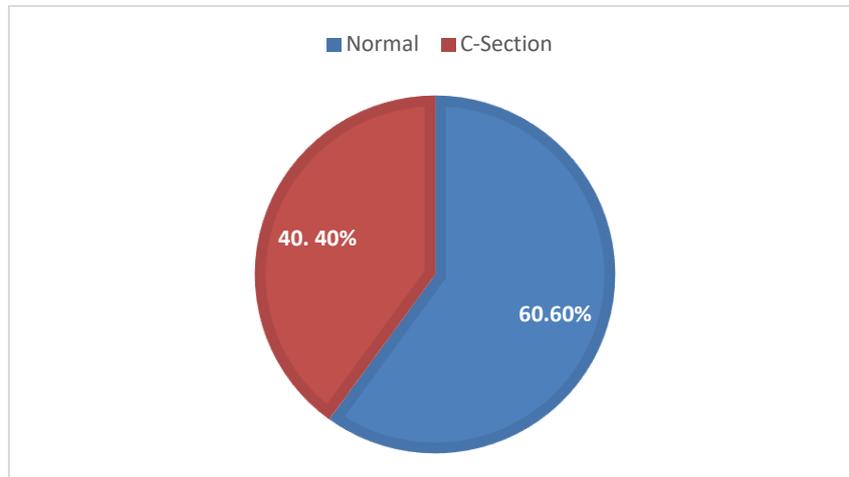


Fig. 5. Pie chart showing type of delivery in 1st pregnancy

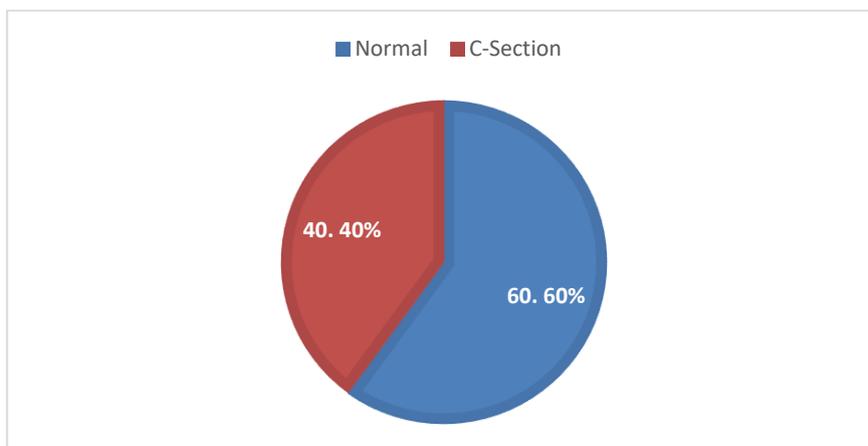


Fig. 6. Type of delivery in 2nd pregnancy

Normal 60%
C-section 40%

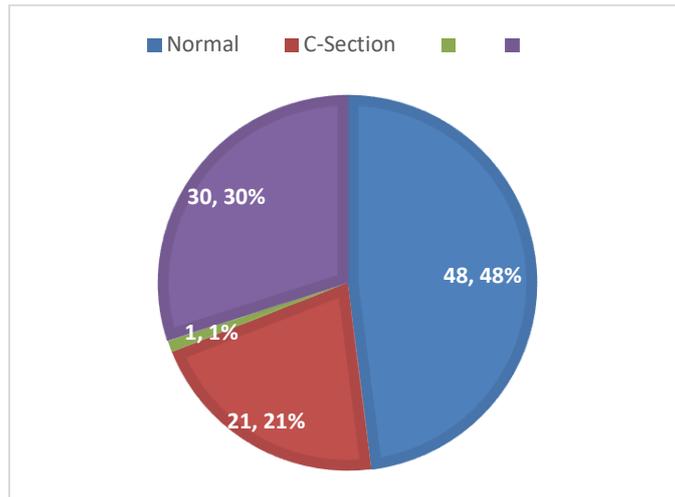


Fig. 7. Pie chart showing suffered from PCOD before pregnancy

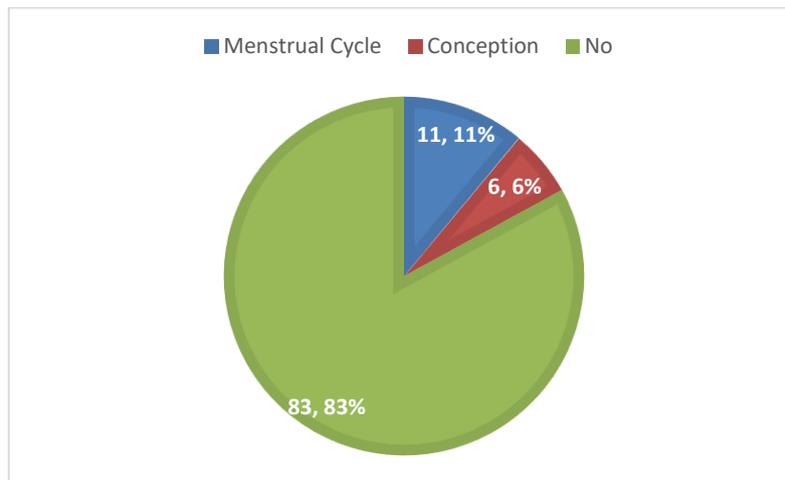


Fig. 8. Have you suffered from PCOD before pregnancy

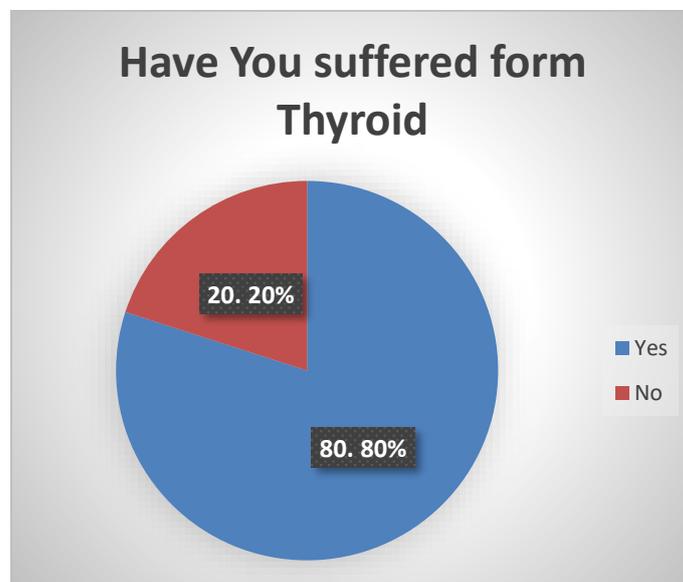


Fig. 9. Pie chart showing suffering from thyroid

Women Suffering from Thyroid: Women with polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS) are more prone to autoimmune thyroiditis, and both disorders lead to subfertility and pregnancy-related complications. The aim of this study was to investigate whether mothers with and without PCOS and their offspring have comparable thyroid parameters at term and how thyroid parameters are associated with perinatal outcome in this population.

This pie chart depicts that 20 women out of 100 were suffering from thyroid and 80 women out of 100 didn't suffer from thyroid. Severe anemia, diabetes, and thyroid disorders contributed to 14.7% of high-risk pregnancies and 13.7% of high-risk pregnancies were multigravidas (four or more) in a study by Bharti *et al.*, [18].

Table 3. Common symptoms during pregnancy

Cold	2
Cough	1
Fever	1
Headache	11
Weakness	36
Nausea	51
Vomiting	52
Others	08
Morning sickness	52
Missed period cycle	35

Nissin *et al.* [19] report "real-world evidence from patient-reported outcomes that exceeds previous works: 1,549,186 tracked symptoms from 183,732 users of a smartphone pregnancy app symptom tracker are analyzed. The majority of users track symptoms on a single day. These data are generalizable to those users who use the tracker for at least 5 months. Week-by-week symptom report data are presented for each symptom. There are few or conflicting reports in the literature on the course of diarrhea, fatigue, headache, heartburn, and sleep problems. A peak in fatigue in the first trimester, a peak in headache reports around gestation week 15, and a steady increase in the reports of sleeping difficulty throughout pregnancy are found".

Dehingia *et al.* [20] found "in a survey that around one-fifth of the total women (16.9%) reported that their previous pregnancy was unintended. Logistic regression analyses revealed that unintended pregnancy was significantly associated with maternal complications- pre-eclampsia

(AOR:2.06; 95% CI:1.57–2.72), postpartum hemorrhage (AOR:1.46; 95% CI: 1.01–2.13) and postpartum pre-eclampsia (AOR:2.34; 95% CI:1.47–3.72). Results from the Mantel Haenszel test indicated that both ANC and CHW home visit in pregnancy significantly affect the association between unintended pregnancy and postpartum hemorrhage ($p < 0.001$)".

Swaminathan *et al.* [21] Found that "of the 31 746 pregnant women with complete data in the study, the mean (SD) age was 24.3 (4.7) years, and the mean (SD) gestational age was 5.1 (2.3) months. The weighted age-adjusted prevalence of gestational diabetes was 1.3% (95% CI, 1.1%-1.5%). The prevalence of gestational diabetes increased with age, from 1.0% (95% CI, 0.5%-1.5%) at age 15 to 19 years to 2.4% (95% CI, 1.0%-3.8%) at age 35 years or older. The age-adjusted prevalence of gestational diabetes was higher among women with a body mass index of 27.5 or greater (1.8%; 95% CI, 1.0%-2.5%) compared with women with a body mass index of less than 18.5 (0.8%; 95% CI, 0.5%-1.1%), among women in the highest wealth quartile (1.7%; 95% CI, 1.1%-2.5%) compared with those in the lowest (0.9%; 95% CI, 0.7%-1.2%), and women in the south (eg, Kerala: 4.5%; 95% CI, 2.4%-6.7%; Telangana: 5.4%; 95% CI, 0.0%-11.0%) compared with the northeast (eg, Assam: 0.23%; 95% CI, 0.0%-0.48%; Mizoram: 0.16%; 95% CI, 0.0%-0.49%)".

Out of 100, only 8 women suffered covid-19 during pregnancy, while 5 women suffered covid-19 at the time of delivery. Rest remained unaffected.

"There were exceedingly rare cases of COVID-19 transmission to the fetus, and newborns can pick up COVID-19 when exposed. Vaccines were proved to be safe for pregnant women and help prevent both mother and the fetus from getting COVID-19 and were also highly effective to prevent COVID-19 infection, critical illness, and fatalities in general. There are specific guidelines for labor and delivery during the COVID-19 pandemic which are to be imposed and followed to achieve safer and healthier childbirth. In this article, the overall influence of COVID-19 in pregnancy, its pathophysiology, effects on placenta and neonates, maternal and perinatal features and outcomes, the role of vaccination, available treatment options, and the guidelines to be followed during the pandemic are discussed based on the available scientific evidence". Choudhary *et al.* [22].

3.6 Mental Health During Pregnancy

“Research has indicated that India has a high burden of mental health disorders. According to the India State-Level Disease Burden Initiative, in 2017, approximately, 197.3 million Indians suffered from mental illnesses, meaning every

seventh Indian was affected by mental illnesses of varying severity. The study also estimated the percentage prevalence of depressive and anxiety disorders to be higher in Indian women (3.9%) than men (2.7%)”. Sagar et al. [23].

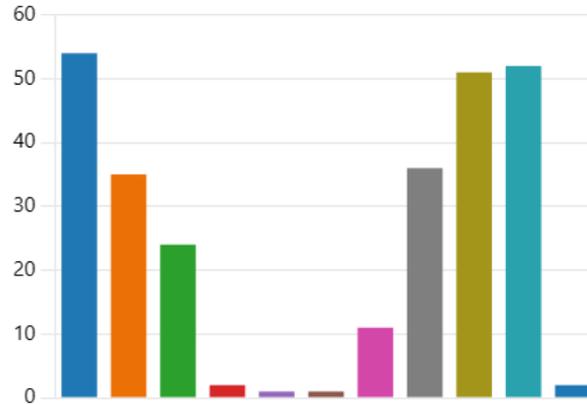


Fig. 10. Complications faced during pregnancy

What were the complications suffered during period cycle?

- Disturbed cycle 11(16%)
- Irregular periods 36(54%)
- Pain during menses 20(36%)



Fig. 11. Pie chart showing Diabetes during pregnancy

Did you have diabetes during pregnancy?

- Prolonged 10(53%)
- Gestational Diabetes 9(47%)

Did you suffer from Covid-19?

- During pregnancy 8
- At the time of delivery 5

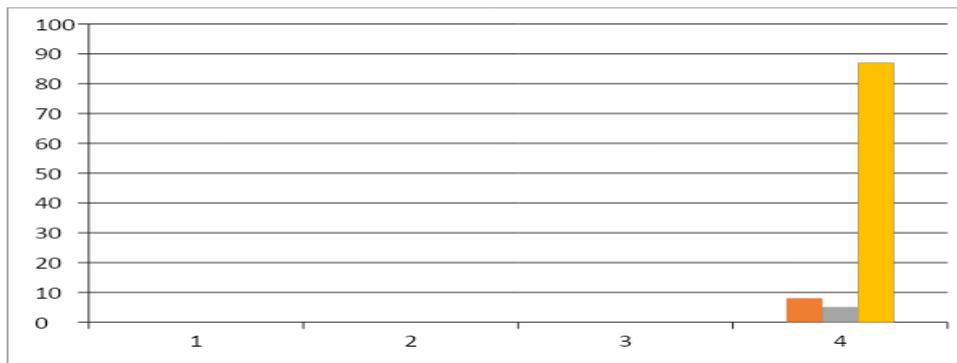


Fig. 12. Women who Suffered from COVID-19 During Pregnancy

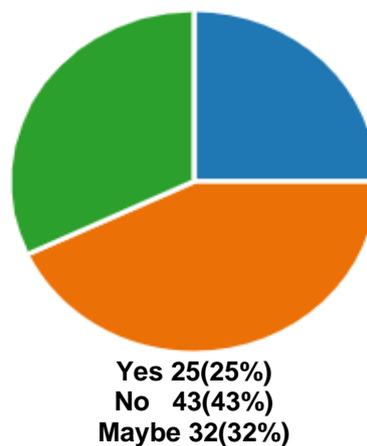


Fig. 13. Pie chart showing affect in mental health

“For 2021–2022, India’s Ministry of Finance allotted to the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare Rs. 712,690 million, about 3% of India’s Gross Domestic Product [15]. Of this, the government dedicated a total of Rs. 5970 million to mental health care and only Rs. 400 million to NMHP”. Mantri Ji, [24].

Table 4. What were the issues?

Mood swings	63
Irritation	35
Stress	32
Anxiety	28
Fatigue	48
Relation with family members	14
Others	5

In 2005, researchers estimated prevalence of antenatal and postnatal depressive disorders in high-income countries, to be 11% and 15%, respectively Gavin et al. 2005. Some studies in low-and middle-income countries (LMICs) have reported estimated prevalence to be even higher,

15.6% antenatally and 19.8% postnatally. Despite such high prevalence, maternal mental health problems remain “under-recognized and under-treated” Gelaye et al. [25]. “In India, recent studies estimated the prevalence of perinatal depression to be between 14 and 24%” Seshu et al. [26] Researchers estimated in 2020 the magnitude of other pregnancy-related disorders such as pregnancy-related stress and anxiety to be 30.9% Aneja et al. [27] and 23% Jyothi et al. [28] respectively.

3.7 Cravings During Pregnancy

“The most common food craving was fruit, seen in 31.1% vs 13.6%, p -value < 0.00001. In the group of women with craving, 64.6% reported that they craved the food item prior to becoming pregnant, 76.0% could not wait until another day to satisfy their food craving, and 41.7% reported there was something they liked as much. Only 2.9% of women in our cohort had pica vs 9.0%, p -value 0.00001. The cohorts differed in fruit craving, (31.1% vs 13.6%), meat, poultry, fish, dry beans,

eggs, and nuts (21.0% vs 5.0%), milk, yogurt, and cheese, (17.0% vs 2.2%) and vegetable, (14.1% vs 6.9%), all with p -value < 0.00001. They did not differ in the category of bread, cereal, rice, and pasta, 17.9% vs 22.3, p -value 0.06.” Jonathan *et al.* [29].

Table 5. How did you deal with negative mental health during pregnancy?

Going park and relaxing	10
Watching television	12
Doing walk	20
Yoga	13
Meditation	21
Satisfying cravings	16

Food craving during the third trimester of pregnancy has remained constant for almost 60 years, although the items craved have changed. Pica was less common in our modern cohort of women.

3.8 What were the Cravings you Had in your Pregnancy?

This graph depicts various types of cravings were there from which 100 women gone through.

3.9 Complications at the Time of Delivery

“Giving birth should be a time for celebration; however, for an estimated 358,000 women worldwide, pregnancy and childbirth end in death and mourning” [30]. “Beyond these maternal deaths are numerous episodes of acute maternal complication: by some estimates, 9-10% of pregnant women or about 14 million women per year suffer from acute maternal complications” [31]. “Estimate of the World Health Organization (WHO), United Nations Children's Fund, and United Nations Population Fund (approximately 15% of expected births suffering from obstetric complications) is more than double this figure: approximately 20 million women suffer from an obstetric complication” [32]. The consequences of birth and acute maternal complications, including death and disabilities, make up the largest burden of disease affecting women in developing countries United Nations Children's Fund [33].

3.10 What were the Complications in your Delivery?

This graph represents multiple types of complications from which 10 women suffered at the time of delivery.

3.11 Abortions

Despite the legalisation of abortion in India, morbidity and mortality continue to remain a serious problem for a majority of women undergoing abortions. A lack of reliable information, wide regional and rural-urban differences and a thin research base all make it difficult for policy-makers, administrators and women's health advocates to develop strategic interventions.

3.11.1 Any abortion?

This pie chart shows 80 out of 100 women had suffered from abortion and 20 women had not suffered from abortion.

3.12 Miscarriage During Pregnancy

Pregnancy outcome is an important health indicator of the quality of maternal health. Adverse pregnancy outcomes is a major public health problem, which can lead to poor maternal and neonatal outcomes. This study investigates the trends in pregnancy outcomes prevalent during 2015–2021 in Indian women.

3.12.1 Any miscarriage?

This pie chart depicts that 13 out of 100 women were suffered from miscarriage and 87 women did not.

“Livebirth decreased by 1.3 points (90.2% vs. 88.9%), and nearly half of the Indian states/UTs ($n = 17/36$) had lower than the national average of livebirth (88.9%) reported during 2019-21. A higher proportion of pregnancy loss was noted, particularly miscarriages increased in both urban (6.4% vs. 8.5%) and rural areas (5.3% vs. 6.9%), and stillbirth increased by 28.6% (0.7% vs. 0.9%). The number of abortions decreased (3.4% vs. 2.9%) among Indian women. Nearly half of the abortions were due to unplanned pregnancies (47.6%) and more than one-fourth (26.9%) of abortions were performed by self. Abortions among adolescent women in Telangana was eleven times higher during 2019-21 as compared to 2015-16 (8.0% vs. 0.7%)”. Kappusamy [34].

3.13 Pre-Mature Delivery

In the 21st century, India is still struggling to reduce the burden of malnutrition and child mortality, which is much higher than the neighbouring countries such as Nepal and Sri Lanka. Preterm birth (PTB) and low birth weight

(LBW) predispose early-age growth faltering and premature mortality among children below the age of five. Thus, highlighting the determinants of LBW and PTB is necessary to achieve sustainable development goals.

3.13.1 In how many weeks your baby was born?

According to Jana A. [35] “there were cross-state disparities in the prevalence of PTB and LBW. In India, an estimated 12% and 18% of children were LBW and PTB, respectively, in 2019–21. Maternal obstetric and anthropometric factors such as lack of antenatal care, previous caesarean delivery, and short-stature mothers were associated positively with adverse birth outcomes such as LBW and PTB. However, a few correlates were

found to be differently associated with PTB and LBW. Mothers belonging to richer wealth status had higher chances of having a preterm birth (OR = 1.16, 95% CI: 1.11–1.20) in comparison to poor mothers. In contrast, the odds of having LBW infants were found to be increased with the decreasing level of the mother’s education and wealth quintile”.

3.14 Baby Birth Weight

Low birth weight (LBW) is an important public health indicator extensively linked to infant and child mortality, especially in lower-middle-income countries (LMICs). Globally, 15.5% of all infants are born with LBW while 95% of these occur in LMICs. This study aims to examine the prevalence and determinants of LBW in India.

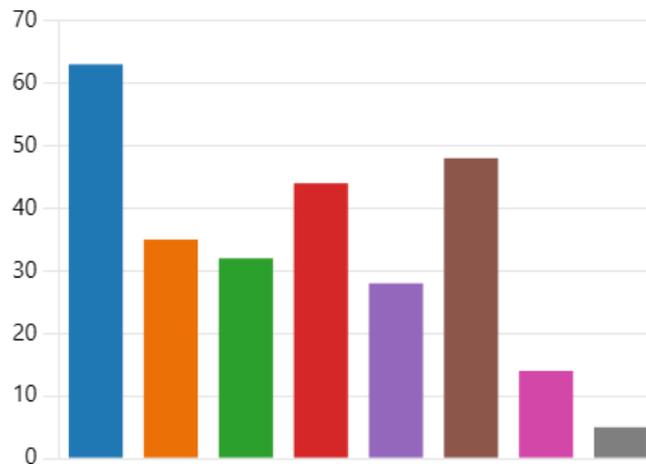


Fig. 14. Bar graph showing related issues

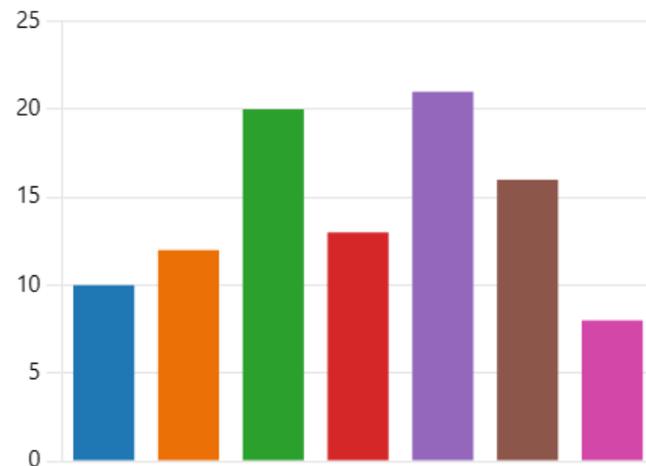


Fig. 15. Bar graph showing mental health during pregnancy

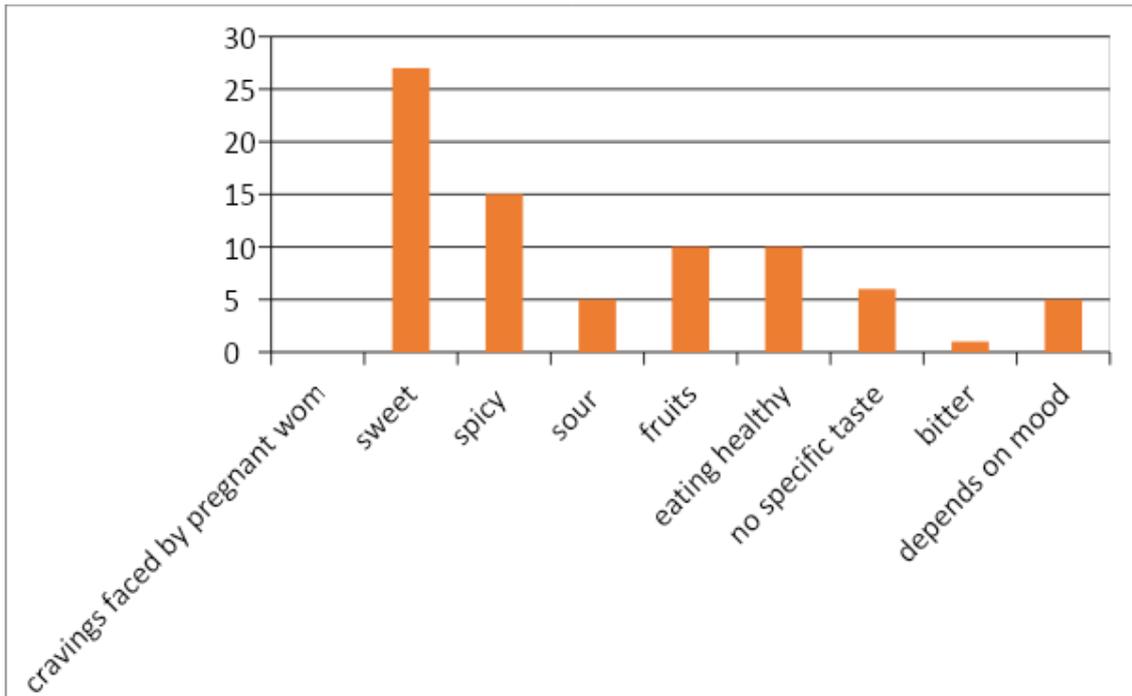
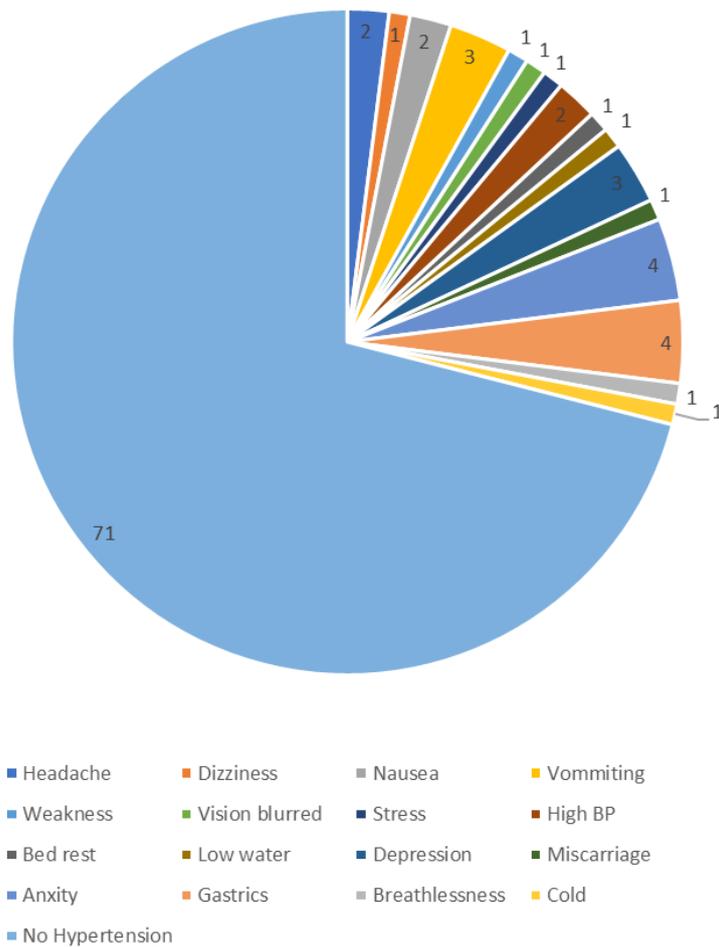


Fig. 16. Bar graph showing cravings during pregnancy



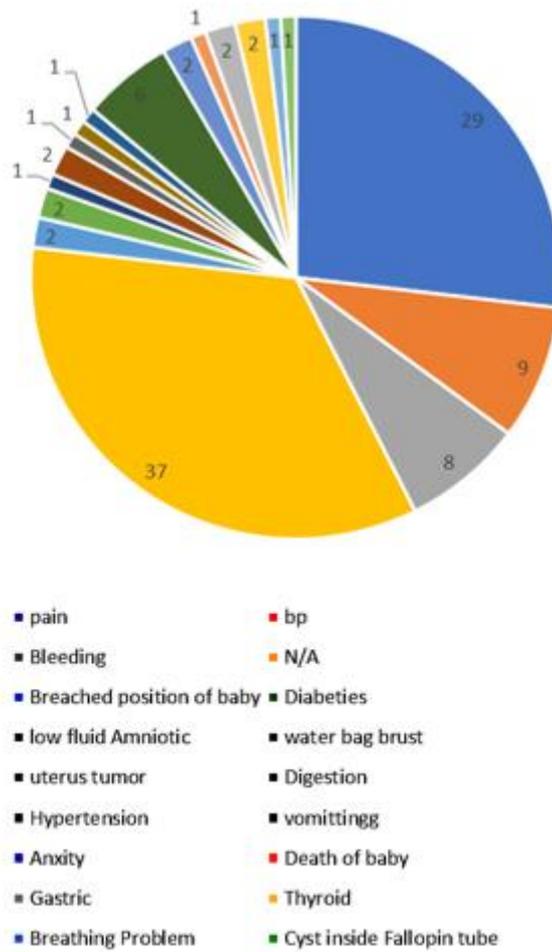


Fig. 17. Pie chart showing complications in delivery

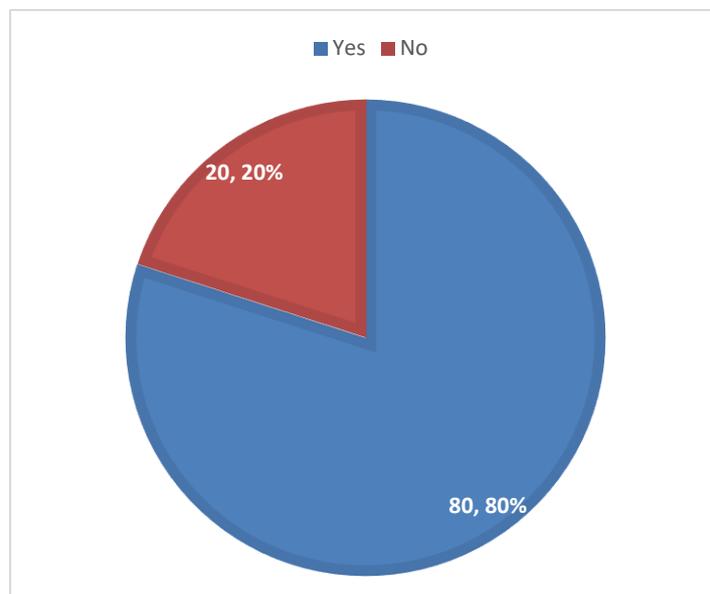


Fig. 18. Pie chart showing abortion scenario

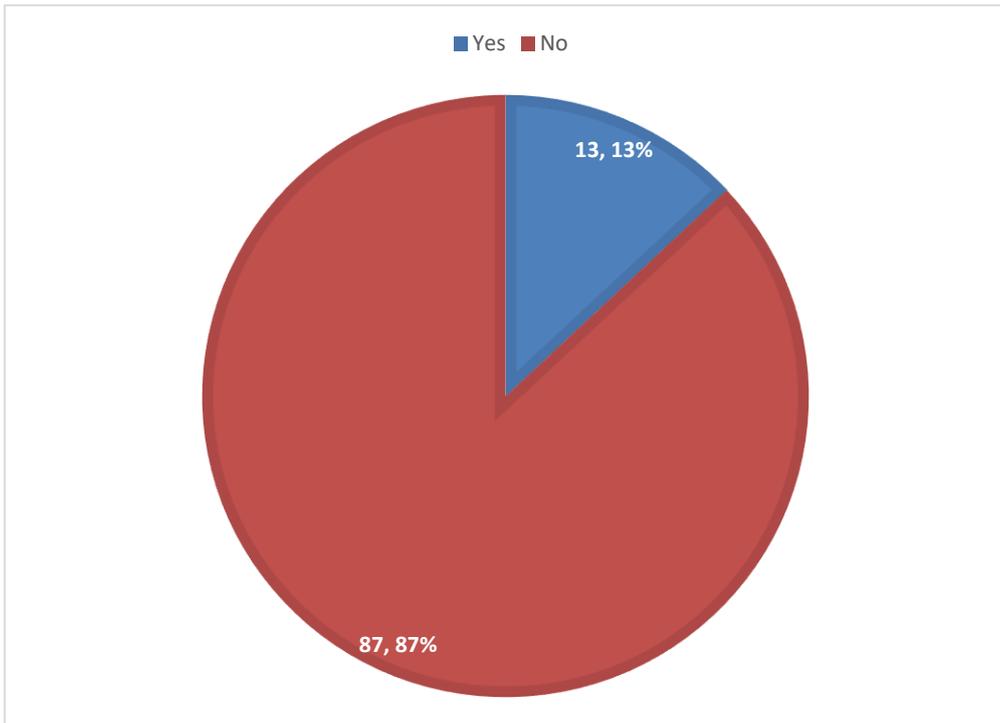


Fig. 19. Pie chart showing miscarriage scenario

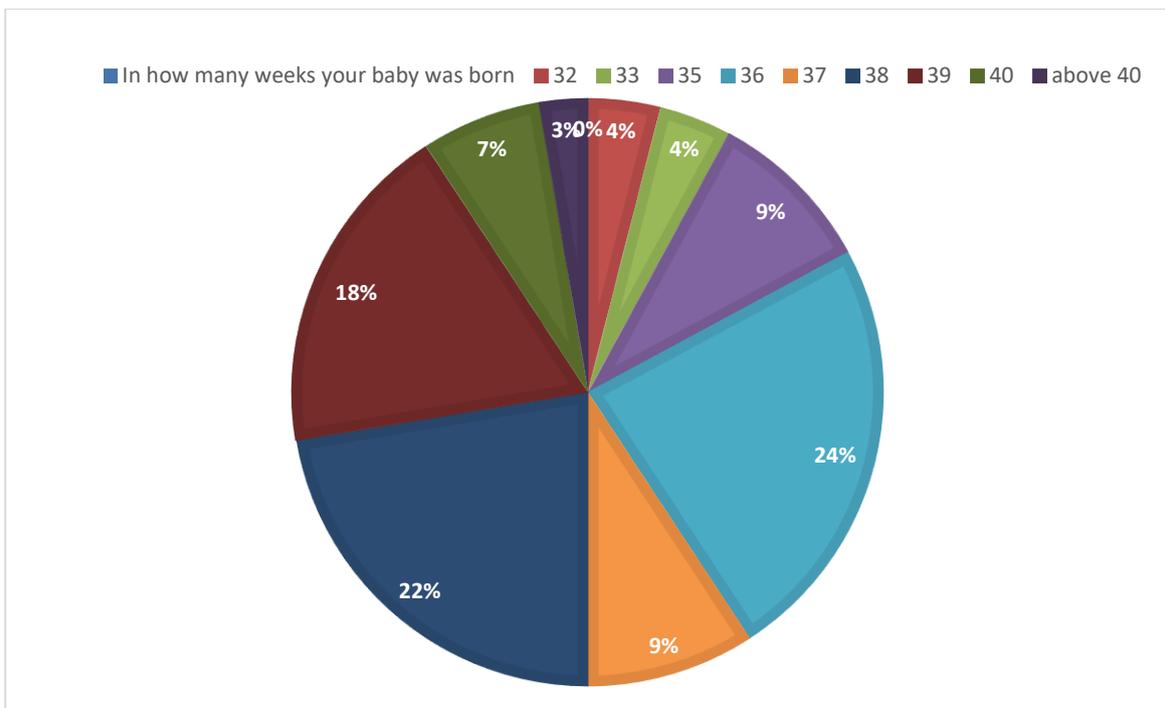


Fig. 20. Pie chart showing weeks of born of baby

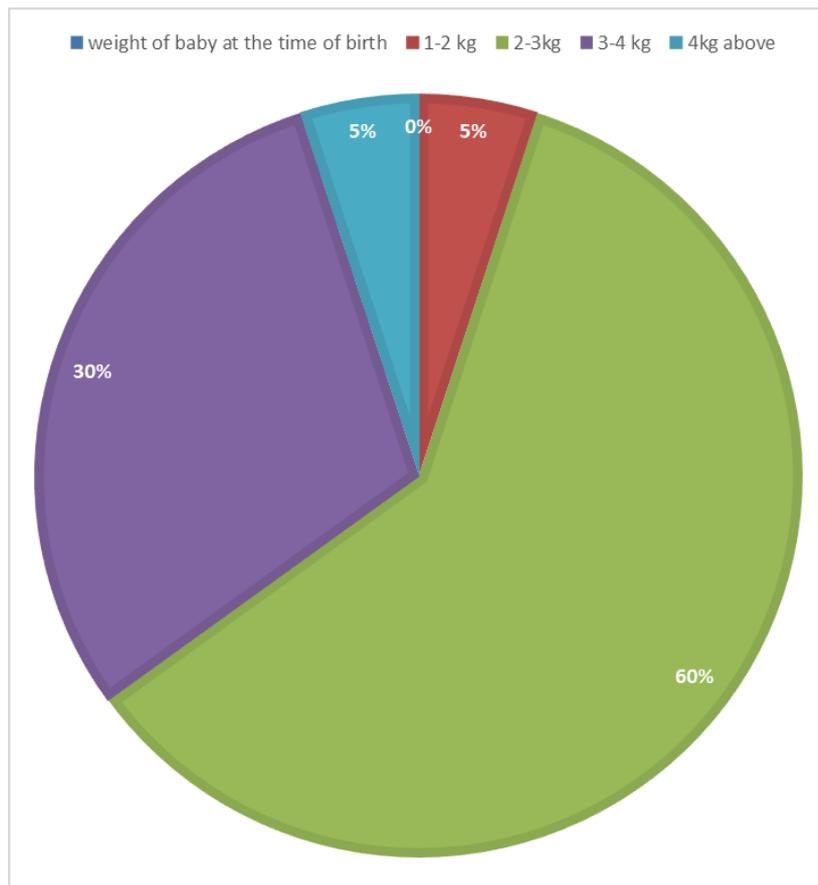


Fig. 21. Pie chart showing weight of baby at the time of birth

3.14.1 What was the weight of your baby at the time of birth?

This pie chart represents that 5 babies were born in the category of 1-2kg birth weight, 60 babies were born in the category of 2-3kg birth weight 30 babies were born in the category of 3-4 kg birth weight and 5 babies were born under the category of above 4 kg birth weight.

“In a study conducted, a total of 175,240 mothers were included in the present study. The proportion of newborns with LBW was 17.29% (n=26366, 95% confidence interval [CI] 17.01, 17.57), of which 6% (n=1450, 95% CI 5.61, 6.41) had very low birth weight (less than 1500 g). An increase in the education level of women or wealth index also resulted in significantly reduced odds of LBW in the newborn. However, the number of antenatal care (ANC) visits lacked any statistically significant association with the odds of having a newborn with LBW”. Girotra S et al. [36].

3.15 Mother’s weight at the Time of Conception

GWG of Indian women is lower than the prescriptive standards of the Intergrowth charts. Dangat et al. [37]. They further found in a study that the median GWG was 1.68, 5.80, 7.06, and 11.56 kg at gestational ages 18, 26, 30, and 40 weeks, respectively. In our study, pregnant women gained less weight throughout pregnancy compared to Intergrowth-21st study, but more weight compared to the GARBH–Ini cohort centile curves in all the BMI categories. GWG in overweight/obese women (BMI ≥ 25) was significantly lower (<0.001) as compared to underweight (BMI < 18.5), or normal weight women (BMI ≥ 18.5 and <25). The median GWG at 40 weeks in underweight, normal and overweight/obese women was 13.18, 11.74, and 10.48 kg, respectively. Higher maternal BMI, older maternal age, higher parity and higher hemoglobin concentrations were associated with lower GWG, while taller maternal height was associated with greater GWG.

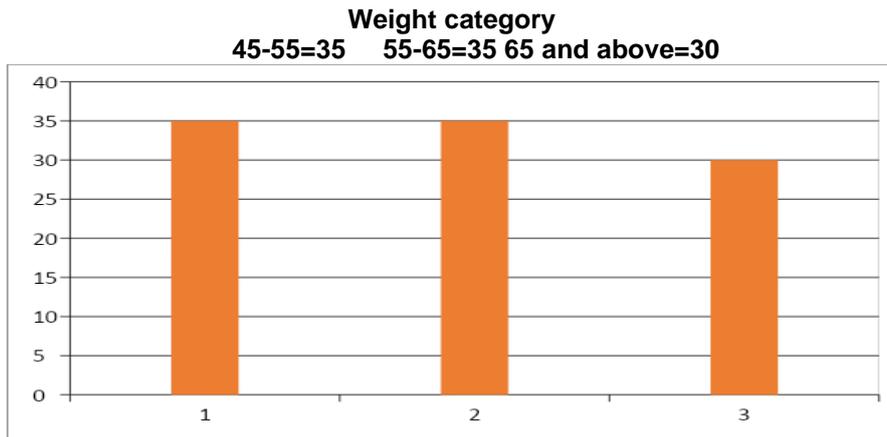


Fig. 22. Bar graph showing weight (in kg) before pregnancy

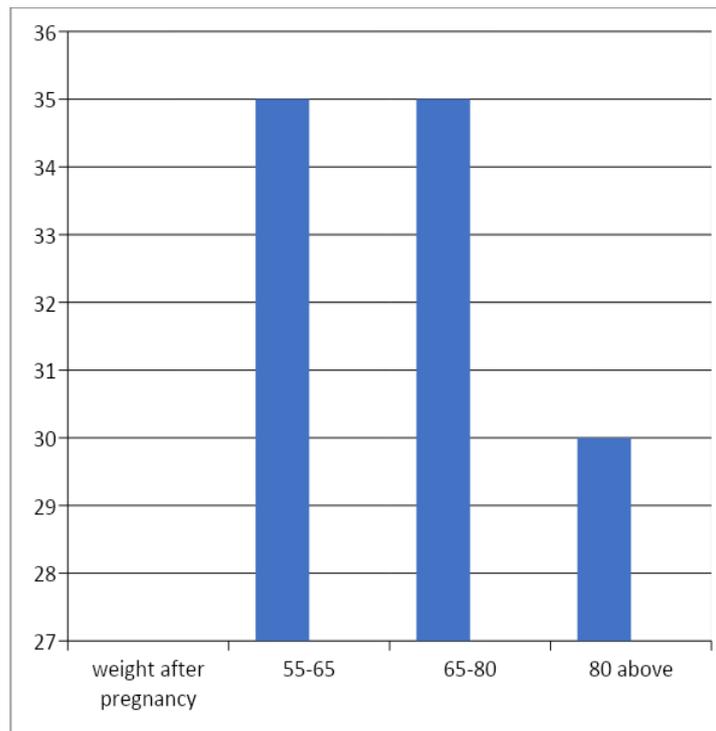


Fig. 23. Bar graph showing weight (in kg) after pregnancy

3.15.1 What was your weight (in kg) before pregnancy?

Results showed that 35 women were between 45 to 55 kgs of weight, while 35 at 55-65 kg of weight and 30 women were above 65kgs at the time of conception.

3.16 Weight Gain During Pregnancy

3.16.1 What was your weight (in kg) after pregnancy?

Women gain little weight during pregnancy, but because of prepregnancy deficits, Indian women

end pregnancy weighing less than African women do at the beginning. Deficits in maternal nutrition could help explain the Asian enigma, the puzzle of why Indian children are much smaller than their relative wealth predicts.

This graph represents that 35 out of 100 women gained weight between the range of 55-65kg and also 35 more women gained weight between the range of 65-80 kg weight and 30 women gained weight above 80 kg.

The latest Demographic and Health Survey (DHS), in 2005, showed that 35.5% of women

aged 15–49 y are underweight, suggesting that maternal health and nutrition are extremely also poor. India's high rate of underweight among women is worrisome in light of mounting evidence that nutrition during pregnancy is important not only for neonatal survival but also for birth weight Ludwig et al [38] which is associated with height and health in childhood and adulthood Adair LS, [39] as well cognition and productivity [40].

4. CONCLUSION

In this study on 100 different women, we found that, 27 women were suffering from complications during late age pregnancy include Gestational Diabetes, Thyroid, complications due to High Blood Pressure, Cyst in Uterus, Bed Rest due to previous Miscarriage, Bleeding in Second Trimester, Acute Body Pain, Acute Rise in Blood pressure. Premature delivery was seen due to late age pregnancy. 16 out of 100 women had premature delivery i.e in 33 to 35 weeks of pregnancy or 7th and 8th month of pregnancy. As per risks and complications, diets were also different like low sodium diet. Protein was also in moderate amount because of high blood pressure. This also included taking less amount of saturated fats like oil, butter, ghee and including anti-hypertensive drugs in diet is must. As pregnancy is a period in which a baby develops in a living state so more dietary requirement is there so in this study there were many types of diet recommended as high calorie diet, calcium rich diet, iron rich diet, healthy and nutritious diet with lots of antioxidants like fruits, vegetables and whole grains. Women were recommended some tablets like iron, calcium, folic acid in normal pregnancy and Thyroxine in case women had Thyroid. In late age pregnancy, there were total 59 responses out of 100, 27(45.7%) women facing problems due to late age pregnancy like high BP, stillbirth, death of fetus in womb, thyroid, gestational diabetes and complications during delivery and 54.20% women were not having any problems.

Women who suffered pregnancy induced hypertension, out of 57 women 17(29.82%) were facing problems like depression, anxiety, miscarriage, weakness, vomiting, nausea. Out of 100 women, 9 women suffered from gestational diabetes and 10 women had prolonged diabetes. So from above results, it is considered that women who are 35 years and above are considered to be at "high risk" for pregnancy. Women who were aged 22-30 years didn't suffer from such diseases but gestational diabetes was observed in some cases. Women who were aged 28-35 years

suffered miscarriage and abortion due to unknown reason.

According to Stillbirth Collaborative Research Network Writing Group Association [41] long before admitting women for emergency situations during parturition, efforts should be directed to mitigation of pathologic risk factors that can be modified, conversely non-pathologic factors that cannot be mitigated. Reddy et al. [42]. said that these factors should not be ignored since they lead to more awareness so that adequate management can be planned [43-46].

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

1. Duckitt K, Harrington D. Risk factors for pre-eclampsia at antenatal booking: systematic review of controlled studies. *BMJ*. 2005;12330(7491):565.
2. Barthélémy Tandu-Umba, Muela Andy Mbangama, Kitenge Marc Brunel Kamongola, Armel Georges Kamgang Tchawou, Mawamfumu Perthus Kivuidi, Sam Kasonga Munene, Irène Kambashi Meke, Oscar Kapuku Kabasele, Bituemi Jackson Kondoli, Kibundila Rolly Kikuni, and Simon Kasikila Kuzungu. Pre-pregnancy high-risk factors at first antenatal visit: how predictive are these of pregnancy outcomes? *Int J Womens Health*. 2014;6:1011–1018.
3. Haas JS, Fuentes-Afflick E, Stewart AL, et al. Prepregnancy health status and the risk of preterm delivery. *Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med*. 2005;159(1):58–63.
4. Hedderson MM, Darbinian JA, Sridhar SB, Quesenberry CP. Prepregnancy cardiometabolic and inflammatory risk factors and subsequent risk of hypertensive disorders of pregnancy. *Am J Obst Gynecol*. 2012;207(1):68. e1–e9.
5. Bergsjø P. What Is the Evidence for the Role of Antenatal Care Strategies in the Reduction of Maternal Mortality and Morbidity? *Reduction of Maternal Mortality: A Joint WHO/UNFPA/UNICEF/World Bank Statement*. Geneva: World Health Organization; 1999.
6. Mgaya AH, Massawe SN, Kidanto H, Mgaya HN. Grand multiparity: is it still a risk in pregnancy? *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth*. 2013;13:241.

7. Majoko F, Nyström L, Munjanja S, Lindmark G. Usefulness of risk scoring at booking for antenatal care in predicting adverse pregnancy outcome in a rural African setting. *J Obstet Gynaecol.* 2002;22(6):604–609.]
8. Periyasamy Kuppusamy, Ranjan Kumar Prusty, and Deepali Prakash Kale. High-risk pregnancy in India: Prevalence and contributing risk factors – a national survey-based analysis. *J Glob Health.* 2023;13: 04116.
9. Ye L, Cao W, Yao J, Peng G, Zhou R. Systematic review of the effects of birth spacing after caesarean delivery on maternal and perinatal outcomes. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet.* 2019;147:19-28. DOI:10.1002/ijgo.12895
10. India – Sample Registration System (SRS)-Special Bulletin on Maternal Mortality in Indian. 2017-19. Available: <https://censusindia.gov.in/nada/index.php/catalog/40525#metadata-authors>. Accessed: 13 June 2023.
11. Oyerinde K. Can antenatal care result in significant maternal mortality reduction in developing countries? *J Community Med Health Educ.* 2013;3(2):2–3.
12. Kutchi I, Chellammal P, Akila A. Maternal Obesity and Pregnancy Outcome: in Perspective of New Asian Indian Guidelines. *J Obstet Gynaecol India.* 2020;70:138-44. DOI:10.1007/s13224-019-01301-8
13. Goossens J, Beeckman D, Van Hecke A, Delbaere I, Verhaeghe S. Preconception lifestyle changes in women with planned pregnancies. *Midwifery.* 2018; 56:12–120. DOI: 10.1016/j.midw.2017.10.004]
14. Poels M, van Stel HF, Franx A, Koster MPH. Actively preparing for pregnancy is associated with healthier lifestyle of women during the preconception period. *Midwifery.* 2017;50(2017): 228–234. DOI: 10.1016/j.midw.2017.04.015
15. Singh M, Shekhar C, Shri N. Patterns in age at first marriage and its determinants in India: A historical perspective of last 30 years (1992–2021). *SSM - Population Health.* 2023;22. Available: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2023.101363>
16. Nivedita Roy, Piyush Kumar Mishra, Vijay Kumar Mishra, Vijay Kumar Chattu, Souryakant Varandani, and Sonu Kumar Batham (2021) . Changing scenario of C-section delivery in India Understanding the maternal health concern and its associated predictors. *Journal of Family Medicine and Primary Care.* 2021;10(11): 4182-4188. DOI: 10.4103/jfmpc.jfmpc_585_21
17. Bharali M, Rajendran R, Goswami J, et al. Prevalence of Polycystic Ovarian Syndrome in India: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Cureus.* 2022;14(12) :e32351. DOI:10.7759/cureus.32351.
18. Bharati KV, Kaur A, Chawla S, et al. Prevalence and correlates of high risk pregnancy in rural Haryana: a community based study. *Int J Basic Appl Med Sci.* 2013;3:212–217.
19. Nissen M, Barrios Campo N, Flaucher M. et al. Prevalence and course of pregnancy symptoms using self-reported pregnancy app symptom tracker data. *npj Digit. Med.* 2023;6:189 Available: <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41746-023-00935-3>
20. Dehingia N, Dixit A, Atmavilas Y. et al. Unintended pregnancy and maternal health complications: cross-sectional analysis of data from rural Uttar Pradesh, India. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2020;20:188. Available: <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12884-020-2848-8>
21. Swaminathan G, Swaminathan A, Corsi DJ. Prevalence of Gestational Diabetes in India by Individual Socioeconomic, Demographic, and Clinical Factors. *JAMA Netw Open.* 2020;3(11):e2025074. DOI:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2020.25074.
22. Chowdhury S, Bappy MH, Desai S, Chowdhury S, Patel V, Chowdhury MS, Fonseca A, Sekzer C, Zahid S, Patousis A, Gerathanasi A, Masenga MJ. COVID-19 and Pregnancy. *Discoveries (Craiova).* 2022;10(2):e147. DOI: 10.15190/d.2022.6. PMID: 36438440; PMCID: PMC9683860.
23. Sagar R, Dandona R, Gururaj G, et al. The burden of mental disorders across the states of India: the Global Burden of Disease Study 1990–2017. *Lancet Psychiatry;* 2020. DOI: 10.1016/S2215-0366(19)30475-4.
24. Mantri G. India’s budget for mental health leaves a lot to be desired: Here’s why. *The News Minute.*

- Available:<https://www.thenewsminute.com/article/india-s-budget-mental-health-leaves-lot-be-desired-here-s-why-142931> (2021). Accessed 10 June 2021
25. Gelaye B, Rondon MB, Araya R, Williams MA. Epidemiology of maternal depression, risk factors, and child outcomes in low-income and middle-income countries. *Lancet Psychiatry*; 2016. DOI: 10.1016/S2215-0366(16)30284-X.
 26. Seshu U, Khan HA, Bhardwaj M, et al. A qualitative study on the use of mobile-based intervention for perinatal depression among perinatal mothers in rural Bihar, India. *Int J Soc Psychiatry*. 2020;67(5):467–471. DOI: 10.1177/0020764020966003.
 27. Aneja J, Chavan BS, Huria A, Goel P, Kohli N, Chhabra P. Perceived stress and its psychological correlates in pregnant women: an Indian study. *Int J Cult Ment*; 2018. DOI: 10.1080/17542863.2017.1364284.
 28. Jyothi Kantipudi S, Kannan G, Viswanathan S, Ranganathan S, Menon J, Ramanathan S. Antenatal depression and generalized anxiety disorder in a tertiary hospital in South India. *Indian J Psychol Med*; 2020 DOI: 10.1177/0253717620928440.
 29. Jonathan D. Baum, Erin E. Curcio, Sarah E. Goodheart, Pregnancy Craving and Pica: 60 Years Later. *Open Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology*. 2020;10:8.
 30. World Health Organization. Trends in maternal mortality: 1990 to 2008. Estimates developed by WHO, UNICEF, UNFPA and the World Bank. Geneva: World Health Organization. 2010;47.
 31. Hogan MC, Foreman KJ, Naghavi M, Ahn SY, Wang M, Makela SM, et al. Maternal mortality for 181 countries, 1980-2008: a systematic analysis of progress towards Millennium Development Goal 5. *Lancet*. 2010;375:1609–23.
 32. Fillipi V, Ronsmans C, Campbell OM, Graham WJ, Mills A, Borghi J, et al. Maternal health in poor countries: the broader context and a call for action. *Lancet*. 2006;368:1535–41.
 33. United Nations Children's Fund. Guidelines for monitoring the availability and use of obstetric services. 2nd ed. New York, NY: United Nations Children's Fund. 1997; 103.
 34. Kuppusamy P, Prusty RK, Chaaitanya IK, et al. Pregnancy outcomes among Indian women: increased prevalence of miscarriage and stillbirth during 2015–2021. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth*. 2023;23:150. Available:<https://doi.org/10.1186/s12884-023-05470-3>.
 35. Jana A. Correlates of low birth weight and preterm birth in India. *PLOS ONE*. 2023;18(8): e0287919. Available:<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0287919>
 36. Girotra S, Mohan N, Malik M, Roy S, Basu S. Prevalence and Determinants of Low Birth Weight in India: Findings From a Nationally Representative Cross-Sectional Survey (2019-21). *Cureus*. 2023;15(3):e36717. DOI: 10.7759/cureus.36717. PMID: 37123748; PMCID: PMC10129903.
 37. Dangat K, Gupte S, Wagh G, Lalwani S, Randhir K, Madiwale S, Pisal H, Kadam V, Gundu S, Chandhiok N, Kulkarni B, Joshi S, Fall C, Sachdev HS. Gestational weight gain in the REVAMP pregnancy cohort in Western India: Comparison with international and national references. *Front Med (Lausanne)*. 2022;9:1022990. DOI: 10.3389/fmed.2022.1022990. PMID: 36275827; PMCID: PMC9579320.
 38. Ludwig DS, Currie J. The association between pregnancy weight gain and birthweight: A within-family comparison. *Lancet*. 2010;376(9745):984–990.
 39. Adair LS. Size at birth and growth trajectories to young adulthood. *Am J Hum Biol*. 2007;122(1):409–439.
 40. Black S, Devereux P, Salvanes K. From the cradle to the labor market? The effect of birth weight on adult outcomes. *Q J Econ*. 2007;122(1):409–439.
 41. Stillbirth Collaborative Research Network Writing Group Association between stillbirth and risk factors known at pregnancy confirmation. *JAMA*. 2011;306(22):2469–2479.
 42. Reddy UM, Laughon SK, Sun L, Troendle J, Willinger M, Zhang J. Prepregnancy risk factors for antepartum stillbirth in the United States. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2010;116(5):1119–1126.
 43. Gavin NI, Gaynes BN, Lohr KN, Meltzer-Brody S, Gartlehner G, Swinson T. Perinatal depression. *Obstet Gynecol*; 2005 DOI: 10.1097/01.AOG.0000183597.31630.db.
 44. Global Burden of Disease Study 1990–2017. India State-Level Disease Burden

- Initiative Malnutrition Collaborators The burden of child and maternal malnutrition and trends in its indicators in the states of India: Lancet Child Adolesc Health. 2019;3:855-70.
DOI:10.1016/S2352-4642(19)30273-1
45. Horwood G, Opondo C, Choudhury SS, Rani A, Nair M. Risk factors for maternal mortality among 1.9 million women in nine empowered action group states in India: secondary analysis of Annual Health Survey data. BMJ Open. 2020;10:e038910.
DOI:10.1136/bmjopen-2020-038910
46. Wubshet Debebe Negash and Desale Bihonegn Asmamaw (2022) BMC Pregnancy Childbirth. 2022; 22: 844. Published online; b 2022.
DOI: 10.1186/s12884-022-05206-9

© Copyright (2024): Author(s). The licensee is the journal publisher. This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Peer-review history:

*The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here:
<https://prh.ikpress.org/review-history/11989>*