

Impact of Recurrent Floods on the Utilization of Maternal and Newborn Healthcare in Bangladesh

 $Abdul \, Baten^{1,2} \cdot Pascaline \, Wallemacq^2 \cdot Joris \, Adriaan \, Frank \, van \, Loenhout^2 \cdot Debarati \, Guha-Sapir^2$

Published online: 13 April 2020 © Springer Science+Business Media, LLC, part of Springer Nature 2020

Abstract

Objective Floods are one of the most common types of disasters in Bangladesh and lead to direct and indirect impacts on health. The aim of the study was to assess the impact of floods on Maternal and Newborn Healthcare (MNH) utilization in Bangladesh between the years 2011 and 2014.

Methods We used variables from the Bangladesh Demographic and Health Survey 2014 data and georeferenced data of floods between 2011 and 2014 from the Emergency Events Database. Multivariate logistic regression was used to determine whether the flood-affected exposures were significant in predicting differences in MNH utilization.

Results The odds for the received antenatal care by skilled providers, institutional deliveries, deliveries by c-section, and postnatal care of the babies were significantly lower (Unadjusted OR = 0.81, 0.88, 0.83, and 0.82 respectively; P < 0.05) in the flood-affected area than the non-affected area. Additionally, the odds of postnatal checkup of women was statistically significant (P < 0.001) and less likely to be received in flood-affected area (OR = 0.76). The odds of all indicators were significantly lower (OR < 1) for the women living in the twice and four times flooded areas compared to the once flooded areas. **Conclusions for Practice** The study shows that floods can have a negative impact on MNH utilization. In addition, repeated floods have a worse impact on MNH utilization than incidental floods. Extra effort should be put on ensuring access to MNH of women in flood-affected areas.

 $\textbf{Keywords} \ Bangladesh \cdot Maternal \cdot Newborn \cdot Healthcare \cdot Utilization \cdot Flood-affected$

Significance

Floods bring substantial damages to human capital, including death and destruction, and produce deleterious consequences on nutrition, education, hospitals, health facilities and health services of a community. The impact of floods on human health, in particular on flood-related diseases and nutrition are described in many papers. But the impact of

Electronic supplementary material The online version of this article (https://doi.org/10.1007/s10995-020-02917-3) contains supplementary material, which is available to authorized users.

Abdul Baten batenstatjnu@gmail.com

- ¹ Department of Statistics, Jagannath University, Dhaka 1100, Bangladesh
- ² Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters (CRED), Institute of Health and Society, Université Catholique de Louvain, Brussels, Belgium

floods especially recurrent floods on MNH utilization is not extensively explored.

The study fills a gap in the knowledge on the impact of incidental and recurrent flooding on maternal and newborn healthcare utilization, while controlling for other confounders. We found that floods have a negative impact on MNH utilization. In addition, repeated floods have a worse impact on MNH utilization than incidental floods.

Introduction

Environmental hazards such as storms, droughts, heat waves and floods, lead to a substantial disruption on individual and community resources, infrastructure, health and health services (Watts et al. 2015; McMichael 2013; McGlown and Fottler 1996; Callaghan et al. 2007; Cordero 1993). Direct and indirect impact of natural disasters on health care systems lead to reduced accessibility, availability, affordability, coverage, and quality of the health care services (Phalkey and Louis 2016). Failure of any components within a system can affect drug procurement and vertical disease control programs such as immunization, maternal and child health (Phalkey and Louis 2016).

Maternal health is particularly at risk during a disaster and pregnant women are at higher risk for complications due to lack of trained obstetricians in disaster settings (Goodman 2016). During disasters, maternal and neonatal deaths, and physical and sexual violence increase, coupled with limited or no access to reproductive health services such as prenatal care, family planning, assisted delivery, and emergency obstetric care (Chi et al. 2018).

Bangladesh is one of the most natural disaster-prone countries in the world (Disaster Report 2013), and it experienced a total of 129 natural disasters since 2000 (EM-DAT 2018). The disasters that frequently occur in Bangladesh are storms, floods, droughts, earthquakes, landslides, extreme temperatures and epidemics. Flood is the second most frequent disaster in Bangladesh. Since 2000, 28% of all natural disasters in Bangladesh were floods, which killed 2943 people and directly affected 80 million people physically, mentally and/or economically (EM-DAT 2018).

A 2012 systematic review described the impact of floods on human health, in particular on flood-related diseases and nutrition (Alderman et al. 2012). One study found that breastfeeding and complementary feeding practices for infant and young children in Dhaka slums, Bangladesh were poor and inappropriate in normal times, and were worse in flooding conditions (Goudet et al. 2011a, b). A qualitative study within slums in Dhaka found that flooding is the root cause of malnutrition among pregnant women (Goudet et al. 2011a, b).

However, there is limited evidence on the impact of floods on maternal and newborn healthcare (MNH) utilization. In this study, we fill part of this knowledge gap. Our main hypothesis was that floods have negative impacts on MNH utilization, and repeated floods have a worse impact than a single flood.

Objectives

The general objective of this study is to assess the impact of floods on the utilization of MNH in Bangladesh between the years 2011 and 2014, and to assess whether repeated exposure has a larger impact on MNH utilization than single exposure. The general objective focuses on the following specific objectives:

- To compare MNH utilization by women in floodaffected versus non-affected areas.
- (ii) To determine correlation if present between MNH utilization and number of flood exposures.

Methods

Data Sources

The Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) Database

Since 1984, technical support has been provided by the DHS Program to more than 300 demographic and health surveys in over 90 countries. The objective of the DHS program is to collect nationally representative data on population and health in developing countries. In this study, Bangladesh Demographic and Health Survey (BDHS) 2014 data is used for the analysis. The survey was designed in such a way that represent the whole country for the rural and the urban areas separately, and for each of the seven administrative divisions. Detailed information about sampling methodologies and data collection procedures can be found in the BDHS reports (Bangladesh Demographic and Health Survey 2014).

The study also used the Global Positioning System (GPS) coordinates of the clusters from the DHS program to identify the individuals cluster number. In the survey, the groupings of households that participated in the survey, known as clusters, are georeferenced.

Georeferenced Data of Emergency Events Database (EM-DAT)

The Emergency Events Database (EM-DAT) provides a global systematic overview of the human impact of disasters since 1900 (EM-DAT 2018). In the study, georeferenced data of EM-DAT is used for floods between the years 2011 and 2014. A standardized methodology is applied to each disaster reported into EM-DAT, in which the name of the area(s) impacted by a disaster is (are) extracted from a various panel of sources and this location data is transformed into Global Administrative Unit Layers (GAUL) (Vanderveken and Guha-Sapir 2016). Disasters are recorded both at the 1st (Division of Bangladesh) and 2nd (Districts of Bangladesh) administrative Unit Layers 2018). Since EM-DAT uses 2nd administrative unit levels of Bangladesh to record disaster events, this study has used this level.

Study Sample

The BDHS 2014 dataset included 17,863 ever-married women. 4620 of these women had a live birth in the three years preceding the survey, and are included in our study. Subjects with missing data were excluded from the study. A flowchart of the study sample is presented in Fig. 1.

ple size of the study



Study Setting and Assigning Participants as Flood-Affected

Bangladesh is located in the Northeastern part of South Asia. Bangladesh occupies an area of 147,570 square kilometers (Bangladesh Demographic and Health Survey 2014). The whole country is administratively divided into 8 divisions, 64 districts, and 491 upazilas or thanas.

During the time period of 2011 to 2014, five floods (one in 2011, two in 2012 and two in 2014) occurred in Bangladesh. By these floods, 19 districts were affected once, 10 districts twice, 7 districts thrice, and 3 districts four times (EM-DAT 2018).

A map was made using QGIS version 2.18.13 and a shapefile of the second administrative level of Bangladesh (districts), obtained from the GAUL database (Fig. 2). Then the flood-affected districts and non-affected districts were selected using EM-DAT data. The clusters of the BDHS 2014 were then distributed over the map by using the GPS shape file data obtained from the DHS program (Fig. 2). Clusters found in the flood-affected districts were then considered as the exposed clusters and assigned the value 1, while the clusters out of the flood-affected districts were assigned the value 0. Participants in each cluster were segregated into exposed or non-exposed groups, and each participant's number of exposures between 2011 and 2014 was recorded.

Study Variables

In the study, seven indicators were considered as outcome variables for the analysis of the impacts of the flood on MNH utilization (Table 1). The exposure variables were the place of residence of the participants, dichotomized as residing in the flood-affected region or not, and the number of times participants were affected.

Household, demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of the selected women were included as potential confounding variables for the determinants of MNH utilization (Table 1). These factors were selected based on a previous review of the literature, as having an effect on MNH utilization (Chakraborty et al. 2003; Målqvist et al. 2012; Rutaremwa et al. 2015; Gabrysch and Campbell 2009).

Statistical Analysis

Statistical Packages for the Social Science (SPSS) version 20 was used for data management and descriptive analyses and R software version 3.5.0 was used for logistic regression analyses.

Means and standard deviations were calculated for numerical variables and frequencies and percentages for categorical variables. T-tests with a 5% level of significance were conducted to assess the differences in mean of the numerical variables between flood-affected and nonaffected areas. Chi-square tests with a level of significance at 5% were conducted to assess the differences in the proportion of the categorical variables between flood-affected and non-affected areas. The variance inflation factor (VIF) was analyzed to identify multicollinearity between the explanatory variables. Then, VIF was obtained by taking the square of GVIF values, and variables with values of VIF exceeding 4 were not considered for the final model (O'brien 2007).



Fig. 2 Distribution of BDHS 2014 clusters over the flood-affected and non-flood affected districts of Bangladesh

Finally, multivariate logistic regression was used to determine whether the flood-affected region is significant in predicting differences in MNH utilization. Parameters were estimated from the data using the maximum likelihood method (Hosmer and Lemeshow 2004). Regression was carried out unadjusted and adjusted for confounders. Measures of association were presented as odds ratios (ORs) and 95% confidence intervals (CIs).

Ethical Considerations

The study used secondary data from DHS and EM-DAT database under the rules and regulations of the respective databases. We used EM-DAT to identify the flood-affected areas. EM-DAT uses aggregated data from country reports and do not use or collect any data from individuals.

The host country of the DHS (BDHS) obtained the written consent from all the respondents before each interview was conducted. Most importantly, the informed written consent statement emphasizes that the respondent's identity and information will be kept strictly confidential (Demographic and Health Survey 2019). All procedures and questionnaires of standard DHS surveys have been reviewed and approved by ICF international Institutional Review Board (IRB). Moreover, country-specific DHS survey protocols are reviewed by the ICF international IRB and generally by an IRB in the host country (Demographic and Health Survey 2019).

Results

Household, Demographic and Socioeconomic Characteristics of the Study Participants

Household, demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of the study participants in the flood-affected and non-affected areas are presented in Table 2. A total of 4620 women were part of the study, and 2899 women were living in at least once flood-affected area. The women had an average age of 24 years and average household size of 6 (Table 2). A higher proportion of urban women had lived in the flood-affected areas (29.2% vs 20.9%, P<0.001). On the other hand, a higher proportion of women in nonflood affected area had completed their secondary education (53.2% vs 44.4%, P<0.001). A higher proportion of women in flood-affected area had no education (16.2% vs 10.6%, P<0.001). Likewise, a higher proportion of poorest women were living in the flood-affected area (23.6% vs 18.5%, P<0.001).

| Outcome variables | | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|---|--|--|--|--|
| Number of antenatal care visits | Grouped as: No: 0–3 visits or Yes: \geq 4 visits; At least four visits are recommended by WHO guidelines (WHO 2007) | | | | |
| Received ANC from skilled provider | Computed as: No: If care not received by medically trained providers: a qualified doctor, nurse, midwife, paramedic, family welfare visitor (FWV), community skilled birth attendant (CSBA), or sub-assistant communi- medical officer (SACMO) Yes: If care received by medically trained providers | | | | |
| Delivery assisted by skilled provider | Computed as: No: If not received assistance at birth by medically trained providers: a qualified doctor, nurse, midwife, paramedic, family welfare visitor (FWV), community skilled birth attendant (CSBA), or sub-assistant community medical officer (SACMO) Yes: If received assistance by medically trained providers | | | | |
| Place of delivery | Grouped as: Home: Respondent's home Institutional: Public hospital/District hospital/ Maternal and child welfare centre/Upazilla health com- plex/Upazilla health and welfare centre/other public sector/Community clinic/Private hospital/Non- governmental Organization (NGO) static clinic/other NGO sector/other | | | | |
| Delivery by c-section | Computed as: No: Not delivered by caesarean section Yes: Delivered by caesarean section | | | | |
| Postnatal check up of the respondents | Computed as: No: Respondent's checkup not done after delivery Yes: Respondent's checkup done after delivery | | | | |
| Post natal check up of the baby | Computed as: No: Post natal checkup not done within 2 months of the delivery Yes: Post natal checkup done within 2 months of the delivery | | | | |
| Exposure variable or predictor | | | | | |
| Living area of the respondents | Grouped as flood-affected districts or non-flood affected districts | | | | |
| Covariates | | | | | |
| No. of household members | Household member listed per household | | | | |
| Sex of household head | Grouped as male or female | | | | |
| Age | Current age of the respondents | | | | |
| Place of residence | Grouped as urban or rural | | | | |
| Education level | Grouped as no education, primary, secondary, or higher | | | | |
| Number of children ever born | Grouped as 1, $2-3$ or ≥ 4 | | | | |
| Wealth index ^a | Grouped as poorest, poorer, middle, richer or richest | | | | |
| Respondent occupation | Grouped as not working, professional/tec./managerial, sales and services, agriculture, household and domestic or skilled and unskilled manual | | | | |
| Birth in last 3 years | Grouped as 1 or 2–3 | | | | |

^aWealth index was used as a proxy variable of the household economic status in this study, as data is generally not collected on household income as part of the DHS survey. The index is constructed using household asset data via principal components analysis. The index is computed, national-level wealth quintiles (from lowest to highest) are obtained by assigning the household score to each of the household member, ranking each person in the population by his or her score, and then dividing the ranking into five equal categories, each comprising 20 percent of the population

About 75% of the participants reported no full-time occupation. The proportion of women with a single birth in the three years preceding the survey was 94%, the remaining had multiple births. Of the flood affected population, 1,341 women were affected by flood once, 780 twice, 589 three times and 189 four times.

MNH Indicators in the Flood-Affected and Non-flood Affected Areas

Of all study participants, only 31.2% of women had attended the required number of antenatal visits (Table 3). The proportion of women in the flood-affected area who had
 Table 2
 Background characteristics of the study participants in the flood-affected area and non-affected area of Bangladesh during 2011 to 2014

| Background characteristics | Non-flood affected $(n=1721)$ | Flood affected ($n = 2899$) | Total (N=4620) | P-value | |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------|----------|--|
| Age; mean (SD) | 24.31 (5.73) | 24.77 (5.78) | 24.60 (5.77) | 0.008** | |
| No. of household members; mean (SD) | 6.00 (2.65) | 6.06 (2.76) | 6.04 (2.72) | 0.422** | |
| Sex of household head | | | | < 0.001* | |
| Male | 1538 (89.4%) | 2687 (92.7%) | 4225 (91.5%) | | |
| Female | 183 (10.6%) | 212 (7.3%) | 395 (8.5%) | | |
| Place of residence | | | | < 0.001* | |
| Urban | 360 (20.9%) | 846 (29.2%) | 1206 (26.1%) | | |
| Rural | 1361 (79.1%) | 2053 (70.8%) | 3414 (73.9%) | | |
| Education | | | | < 0.001* | |
| No education | 183 (10.6%) | 470 (16.2%) | 653 (14.1%) | | |
| Primary | 436 (25.3%) | 857 (29.6%) | 1293 (28.0%) | | |
| Secondary | 916 (53.2%) | 1288 (44.4%) | 2204 (47.7%) | | |
| Higher | 186 (10.8%) | 284 (9.8%) | 470 (10.2%) | | |
| Wealth Index | | | | < 0.001* | |
| Poorest | 318 (18.5%) | 683 (23.6%) | 1001 (27.7%) | | |
| Poorer | 365 (21.2%) | 509 (17.6%) | 874 (18.9%) | | |
| Middle | 322 (18.7%) | 559 (19.3%) | 881 (19.1%) | | |
| Richer | 398 (23.1%) | 557 (19.2%) | 955 (20.6%) | | |
| Richest | 318 (18.5%) | 591 (20.4%) | 910 (19.7%) | | |
| Respondent occupation | | | | < 0.001* | |
| Not working | 1300 (75.5%) | 2151 (74.2%) | 3541 (74.7%) | | |
| Professional/technical/managerial | 24 (1.4%) | 58 (2.0%) | 82 (1.8%) | | |
| Sales and services | 51 (3.0%) | 100 (3.4%) | 151 (3.3%) | | |
| Agriculture | 185 (10.8%) | 377 (13.0%) | 562 (12.2%) | | |
| Household and domestic | 8 (0.5%) | 49 (1.7%) | 57 (1.2%) | | |
| Skilled and unskilled manual | 153 (8.9%) | 164 (5.7%) | 317 (6.9%) | | |
| Number of children ever born | | | | 0.014* | |
| 1 | 730 (42.4%) | 1112 (38.4%) | 1842 (39.9%) | | |
| 2–3 | 774 (44.9%) | 1365 (47.1%) | 2139 (46.3%) | | |
| ≥ 4 | 217 (12.6%) | 422 (14.6%) | 639 (13.8%) | | |
| Number of birth in last 3 years | | | | < 0.001* | |
| 1 | 1652 (96%) | 2697 (93.0%) | 4349 (94.1%) | | |
| 2–3 | 69 (4.0%) | 202 (7.0%) | 271 (5.9%) | | |

*Chi-squares test

**t-test

attended four or more antenatal visits (33.1%) was significantly higher compared to the non-affected women (27.9%). The majority of the women who received antenatal care (ANC) by skilled (medically trained) providers, was less in the flood-affected area (62%) than the non-affected area (67.0%, P < 0.001).

In total, 57% of women received skilled attendance at birth, and the difference between flood-affected and non-affected area was not significant (P=0.486). The proportions of women by place of delivery also did not differ between living in the flood-affected and non-affected areas. The proportion of women who had caesarian deliveries was

significantly lower in flood-affected area. More than 64% of women received postnatal checkup after their delivery. In the non-flooded area, the proportion of postnatal checkup was significantly higher than in the flood-affected area (Table 3).

Impact of Floods on MNH Indicators

In the study, measures of association between flood and MNH indicators were presented as odds ratios (ORs). Odds ratios above 1 signify a higher likelihood of utilizing MNH, and odds ratios below 1 signify a lower likelihood of utilizing MNH.

Table 3 MCH indicators stratified by flood-affected and non-affected area for the years 2011 to 2014

| Maternal health indicator | Non-flood affected $(n=1721)$ | Flood-affected (n=2899) | Total (n=4620) | P value |
|--|-------------------------------|-------------------------|----------------|---------|
| Antenatal visits | | | | < 0.001 |
| 0–3 (no) | 1241 (72.1%) | 1938 (66.9%) | 3179 (68.8%) | |
| 4+(yes) | 480 (27.9%) | 961 (33.1%) | 1441 (31.2%) | |
| Received ANC by skilled providers | | | | < 0.001 |
| No | 567 (33.0%) | 1103 (38.0%) | 1670 (36.2%) | |
| Yes | 1154 (67.0%) | 1796 (62.0%) | 2950 (63.8%) | |
| Delivery assisted by skilled providers | | | | 0.486 |
| No | 983 (57.1%) | 1653 (57.0%) | 2636 (57.1%) | |
| Yes | 738 (42.9%) | 1246 (43.0%) | 1984 (42.9%) | |
| Place of delivery | | | | 0.412 |
| Home | 1060 (61.6%) | 1774 (61.2%) | 2834 (61.3%) | |
| Institution | 661 (38.4%) | 1125 (38.8%) | 1786 (38.7%) | |
| Delivery by caesarean section | | | | 0.013 |
| No | 1286 (74.7%) | 2215 (76.4%) | 3501 (75.8%) | |
| Yes | 435 (25.3%) | 684 (23.6%) | 1119 (24.2%) | |
| Women postnatal check up | | | | < 0.001 |
| No | 560 (32.5%) | 1083 (37.4%) | 1643 (35.6%) | |
| Yes | 1161 (67.5%) | 1816 (62.6%) | 2977 (64.4%) | |
| Baby postnatal check up | | | | 0.010 |
| No | 593 (34.5%) | 1099 (37.9%) | 1692 (36.6%) | |
| Yes | 1128 (65.5%) | 1800 (62.1%) | 2928 (63.4%) | |

In the unadjusted analyses, we found that the odds for the received antenatal care by skilled providers, the institutional delivery, delivered by c-section, and postnatal care of the babies were significantly lower (unadjusted OR = 0.81, 0.88, 0.83, 0.76, and 0.82 respectively; P < 0.05) in the flood-affected area than in the non-affected area (Table 4). However, the odds of four or more antenatal visits (unadjusted OR = 1.11) were higher in the flood-affected area.

Additionally, the odds for postnatal checkup of women were statistically significant (P < 0.001) in the flood-affected area than the non-affected area and the women living in the flood-affected area were less likely to take postnatal checkup (OR = 0.76) compared to the non-affected area. The difference in delivery assisted by skilled providers was not statistically significant (P = 0.5415).

In the adjusted analysis (Table 4), the odds of the four or more antenatal visits for women living in the flood-affected area was significantly higher (adjusted OR 1.20; 95% CI 1.04, 1.38; P<0.05) compared to the non-affected area of the country. Similar to the unadjusted analysis, the odds for delivery by c-section, and postnatal care for the babies were significantly lower (adjusted OR 0.84, and 0.82 respectively; P<0.05) in the flood-affected area than in non-affected area. Postnatal checkup taken by women was statistically significant (P<0.001) and flood-affected women were less likely to take postnatal checkup compared to the non-affected women.

Consequences of Repeated Floods on MNH Utilization

We found that the odds of all indicators were statistically significantly lower (P < 0.05) for the women in the twice flooded area compared to the once flooded area, except the odds of received antenatal care by skilled provider (Table 5).

For the thrice flooded areas, only the odds of delivered by c-section was significantly lower. The odds for number of ANC visits and institutional delivery were significantly higher in the thrice flooded versus once flooded areas. Women living in areas flooded four times were less likely to utilize MNH compared to once flooded area for all indicators except for the number of antenatal visits and the place of delivery.

Discussion

The study fills a gap in the knowledge on the effects of flooding on MNH utilization. The principal hypothesis of the study was that floods negatively impacts MNH utilization. The findings of the study mostly support this hypothesis, although some unexpected results had found.

In the unadjusted analyses we found that women in the flood-affected areas were less likely to utilize MNH, No

Yes

Table 4 Odds of unadjusted and adjusted logistic regression models for the MNH indicators in the flood-affected and non-affected areas during 2011-2014

| Outcome variables | Non-flood affected | ed vs flood-affe | cted | | | |
|----------------------|--------------------|------------------|-----------------------------|-------------|--------------|---------|
| | Unadjusted mode | el | Adjusted model ^a | | | |
| | Unadjusted OR | 95% CI | P value | Adjusted OR | 95% CI | P value |
| Antenatal visits | | | | | | |
| 0–3 (no) | 1 | | | 1 | | < 0.05 |
| 4 + (yes) | 1.11 | (0.98, 1.27) | 0.108 | 1.20* | (1.04, 1.38) | |
| Received ANC by sk | cilled providers | | | | | |
| No | 1 | | | 1 | | 0.1846 |
| Yes | 0.81* | (0.72, 0.93) | < 0.05 | 0.91 | (0.79, 1.05) | |
| Delivery assisted by | skilled providers | | | | | |
| No | 1 | | | 1 | | 0.5415 |
| Yes | 0.90 | (0.80, 1.02) | 0.0916 | 0.96 | (0.83, 1.10) | |
| Place of delivery | | | | | | |
| Home | 1 | | | 1 | | 0.1664 |
| Institutional | 0.88* | (0.78, 0.99) | < 0.05 | 0.90 | (0.79, 1.04) | |
| Delivery by caesarea | in section | | | | | |
| No | 1 | | | 1 | | < 0.05 |
| Yes | 0.83* | (0.72, 0.96) | < 0.05 | 0.84* | (0.72, 0.99) | |
| Women post natal ch | neck up | | | | | |
| No | 1 | | | 1 | | < 0.001 |
| Yes | 0.76** | (0.67, 0.87) | < 0.001 | 0.78** | (0.68, 0.90) | |

*Denote ORs with P<0.05

0.82*

**Denote ORs with P<0.001

^aVariables included in the adjusted model: no. of household members, sex of household head, and respondent's age, place of residence, education, wealth index, occupation, number of children ever born, and birth in last 3 years

(0.72, 0.93)

including ANC by skilled providers, institutional deliveries, deliveries by c-section, and postnatal checkup for themselves and their babies during the study period. The result is as expected, since floods bring substantial damages to human capital, including death and destruction, and produce deleterious consequences on nutrition, education, hospitals, health facilities and health services of a community, as shown in the literature (Goodman 2016; Du et al. 2010; Baez et al. 2010). Previous studies have showed similar types of results for institutional deliveries, and deliveries assisted by skilled providers in some crisis settings (Namasivayam et al. 2017; Tatah et al. 2016). Furthermore, a study has shown that during disasters, maternal and neonatal deaths increase, because of limited or no access to reproductive health services (Chi et al. 2018). Neonatal mortality of flood vs. non flooded area could be also something to look at in further studies if the data were available.

In the case of the 2011 Pakistan flood, 46% of all health facilities in the flood-affected districts were damaged to some extent, which adversely affected reproductive health services as well (Pakistan Flood 2011 Early Recovery Framework 2012). Due to this flood, 55% of births in the affected districts took place at home, with 27% of the births at home not being attended by any medical professional (Pakistan Flood 2011 Early Recovery Framework 2012). Lack of human resources (doctor, nurse, etc.) in the flood-affected area could be a cause of lower utilization of MNH.

1

0.84*

< 0.05

Since food becomes scarce and expensive during and after a flood, and income may drop, households can suffer from lack of adequate food (Shimi et al. 2010). The American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists noted that the lack of resources in the aftermath of a disaster, including food, water, and shelter adversely impact pregnancies ("ACOG" 2010). The study results could also support the premise that maternal healthcare may not be a top priority in times of floods, as people may be more focused on food security. In addition, diseases such as cholera, (and other diarrhoeal diseases), rotavirus, shigellosis and typhoid fever generally increase due to water contamination during and after floods (Ligon 2006), which also could affect prioritization for maternal and neonatal healthcare.

< 0.05

(0.73, 0.96)

 Table 5
 Odds of adjusted logistic regression models for the MNH indicators on the basis of repeated flood from the years 2011 to 2014

| Outcome variables | Once vs twice affected | | | Once vs thrice affected | | | Once vs fourth affected | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------|--------------|---------|-------------------------|--------------|---------|-------------------------|--------------|---------|
| | OR | 95% CI of OR | P value | OR | 95% CI of OR | P value | OR | 95% CI of OR | P value |
| Number of antenatal | visits | | | | | | | | |
| No | 1 | | | 1 | | | 1 | | 0.6033 |
| Yes | 0.57** | (0.46, 0.70) | < 0.001 | 1.19 | (0.93, 1.52) | 0.1695 | 0.92 | (0.67, 1.26) | |
| Received ANC by sk | tilled provid | ler | | | | | | | |
| No | 1 | | | 1 | | | 1 | | < 0.05 |
| Yes | 0.95 | (0.77, 1.16) | 0.594 | 1.17 | (0.89, 1.54) | 0.273 | 0.66* | (0.48, 0.90) | |
| Delivery assisted by | skilled prov | vider | | | | | | | |
| No | 1 | | | 1 | | | 1 | | < 0.05 |
| Yes | 0.80* | (0.65, 0.98) | < 0.05 | 0.96 | (0.75, 1.24) | 0.774 | 0.72* | (0.52, 1.00) | |
| Place of delivery | | | | | | | | | |
| Home | 1 | | | 1 | | | 1 | | 0.340 |
| Institutional | 0.74* | (0.60, 0.91) | < 0.05 | 1.06 | (0.82, 1.36) | 0.678 | 0.85 | (0.61, 1.18) | |
| Delivery by c-section | n | | | | | | | | |
| No | 1 | | | 1 | | | 1 | | < 0.05 |
| Yes | 0.67* | (0.52, 0.85) | < 0.05 | 0.51** | (0.38, 0.69) | < 0.001 | 0.61* | (0.41, 0.90) | |
| Women postnatal che | eckup | | | | | | | | |
| No | 1 | | | 1 | | | 1 | | < 0.001 |
| Yes | 0.77* | (0.64, 0.94) | < 0.05 | 0.87 | (0.67, 1.14) | 0.315 | 0.43** | (0.32, 0.59) | |
| Baby postnatal check | cup | | | | | | | | |
| No | 1 | | | 1 | | | 1 | | < 0.001 |
| Yes | 0.75* | (0.62, 0.90) | < 0.05 | 0.80 | (0.62, 1.03) | 0.082 | 0.41** | (0.31, 0.55) | |

*Denote ORs with P<0.05

**Denote ORs with P<0.001

Both in the adjusted and unadjusted analyses, we have found unexpected findings for the outcome variable 'number of ANC visits'. The study found that women living in flood-affected area were more likely to receive the required number of ANC visits compared to the non-affected area. This outcome could be indicative of interventions and humanitarian assistance specifically targeting women in flood-affected areas to improve birth outcomes and delivery services through the training and deployment of skilled personnel. In Bangladesh, few NGOs like Grameen Bank, Proshika, BRAC and others are trying to incorporate health and hygiene-related motivational activities for their beneficiaries before, during, and after disasters (Shimi et al. 2010). The possible categories of interventions to improve reproductive, maternal and newborn health in crisis settings include expanding the provision of health care from facility-based to non-facility-based systems in homes or the community, rolling out mobile health care services through a mobile clinic van, education and services for ANC, safe delivery and postnatal care (Chi et al. 2018). Based on our findings, we would recommend health NGOs to stay for a period of at least a year after a disaster, so that they can assist all peridisaster pregnancies with birth and postnatal care through a 3-month infant check-up.

The results of the odds of the outcome variables vary between the unadjusted and the adjusted models, since in the latter, other household, demographic and socio-economic characteristics were taken into account. The impact of floods on the human community is not only related directly to the geographical location but also human demographics, socioeconomic, and household characteristics, as was shown in a previous study (Du et al. 2010). For that reason, we have considered the adjusted odds ratios to give a more accurate representation of the actual difference in MNH utilization between flood-affected and non-affected areas.

In the analyses of repeated floods, most MNH indicators of the study were lower for women exposed to twice and four times flooded areas compared to the once flooded areas. The odds of delivery assisted by skilled providers, delivered by c-section, postnatal checkup for women and children were also lower for women living in the thrice flooded area compared to the once flooded area. The results are expected, since frequent floods have devastating and more chronic impact on people, infrastructure, and health in affected areas, compared to areas that were affected only once. For instance, due to the impact of the 2010 flood in Sindh and Balochistan Province of Pakistan, the health infrastructures were already affected. Before the health system could recover, another major flood hit Sindh and Balochistan during August 2011, completely debilitating the already weakened public health infrastructures (Pakistan Flood 2011 Early Recovery Framework 2012). Impact of frequent floods leads to poverty, which is a significant contributor to increase people's vulnerability to flooding (Shimi et al. 2010), and may have an indirect effect on MNH utilization.

Women were more likely to receive ANC by skilled providers, and institutional delivery in the thrice flooded area compare to the once flooded area. One explanation could be that people become more adaptive in frequent floods regions. Due to frequent floods and their devastating impacts, people in the flood prone areas have become used to deal with the problems associated with flood through innovation of their own adaptation mechanism (Shimi et al. 2010). Another explanation could be that future disaster preparedness in the flood-prone areas may include the planning of earlier evacuation of pregnant women to minimize their exposure to severe disaster events, as was done after Hurricane Katrina in the USA (Xiong et al. 2008).

Limitations

Despite filling a gap in the literature, the study has several limitations. Firstly, the area considered as flooded is based on EM-DAT georeferenced data, which can be an over estimation of the flood affected area as it takes into account comparatively large administrative units (2nd level; districts). The analysis of the study would be more precise if one could use smaller administrative units (Upazila or Union).

Secondly, the analysis is based on retrospective outcome measures, which may have led to a recall bias. Thirdly, due to unavailability of data on intensity and severity of the floods, the association between flood severity and MNH utilization could not be examined, although we used the number of times people were affected by floods as a proxy.

Fourthly, we could not relate the timing of births among our study participants to specific flood events. Part of the women in the flood-affected group will have given birth during periods without floods, which we were not able to assess separately. However, the aim of our study was to compare the overall groups non-affected to flood-affected, even though floods were not affecting women in this group continuously.

Fifthly, the indicators for maternal and newborn healthcare utilization used in this study were limited to those around antenatal care, delivery and postnatal care. More indicators are available in the DHS and WHO guidelines and could provide a more comprehensive understanding of other aspects of maternal and neonatal health, such as contraception and birth weight. Finally, some other covariates that could have influenced MNH care utilization during the flood, such as the quality and availability of healthcare services, and distance to the nearest health facility were not analyzed due to the unavailability of these variables in the BDHS dataset.

Conclusion

The findings of the study have shown that floods can have a negative impact on MNH utilization. Women who experienced floods in Bangladesh between the years 2011 and 2014 were less likely to receive ANC by skilled providers, institutional delivery, delivery by c-section, and postnatal checkup for themselves and for their newborn baby. However, certain aspects of MNH utilization, such as receiving four or more antenatal visits, show better results in the flood-affected area, possibly as a result of people's adaptive mechanism and/or humanitarian aid interventions to ensure the continuity of some basic healthcare services.

The study found as well that repeated flooding can have a negative impact on utilization of MNH, compared to incidental flooding. Except the number of ANC visits, all indicators of the study have shown lower utilization of MNH in the twice and four times flooded areas.

Extra effort should be put on ensuring access to MNH of women in flood affected areas. A follow-up study evaluating the impact of floods on utilizing MNH could try to consider the smaller administrative units to identify the affected area or to analyze the impact of the severity of floods.

References

- Alderman, K., Turner, L. R., & Tong, S. (2012). Floods and human health: A systematic review. *Environment International*, 47, 37–47.
- American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists (ACOG). (2010). Preparing for disasters: Perspectives on women. The American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists Committee. Retrieved from https://www.acog.org/Clinical-Guidance-and-Publications/ Committee-Opinions/Committee-on-Health-Care-forUnderse rved-Women/Preparing-for-Disasters-Perspectives-on-Women.
- Baez, J., de la Fuente, A., & Santos, I. (2010). Do natural disasters affect human capital? An assessment based on existing empirical evidence. IZA Discussion Paper No. 5164, Washington, DC. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/46442 629_Do_Natural_Disasters_Affect_Human_Capital_An_Asses sment_Based_on_Existing_Empirical_Evidence.
- Bangladesh Demographic and Health Survey. (2014). National Institute of Population Research and Training (NIPORT), Dhaka, Bangladesh. Mitra and Associates, Dhaka, Bangladesh and Macro International, Inc. Retrieved from https://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/ FR311/FR311.pdf.
- Callaghan, W. M., Rasmussen, S. A., Jamieson, D. J., Ventura, S. J., Farr, S. L., & Sutton, P. D. (2007). Health concern of women and infants in times of natural disasters: Lessons learned from

Hurricane Katrina. *Maternal and Child Health Journal*, *11*(4), 307–311. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10995-007-0177-4. **PMID:** 17253147.

- Chakraborty, N., Islam, M. A., Chowdhury, R. I., Bari, W., & Akhter, H. H. (2003). Determinants of the use of maternal health services in rural Bangladesh. *Health Promotion International*, 18(4), 327–337. https://doi.org/10.1093/heapro/dag414.
- Chi, P. C., Urdal, H., Umeora, O. U. J. U. J., Sundby, J., Spiegel, P., & Devane, D. (2018). Improving maternal, newborn and women's reproductive health in crisis settings. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*, 2018(8), CD011829.
- Cordero, J. F. (1993). The epidemiology of disasters and adverse reproductive outcomes: Lessons learned. *Environmental Health Perspective*, *101*(2), 131–136. https://doi.org/10.1289/ehp.93101 s2131.
- Demographic and Health Survey (DHS). (2019). Protecting the privacy of DHS survey respondents. Retrieved from January 15, 2019 from https://dhsprogram.com/What-We-Do/Protecting-the-Priva cy-of-DHS-Survey-Respondents.cfm.
- Disaster Report 2013. (2014). *Relief web*. Retrieved from October 31, 2014 from https://reliefweb.int/report/bangladesh/disaster-repor t-2013.
- Du, W., FitzGerald, G. J., Clark, M., & Hou, X. Y. (2010). Health impacts of floods. *Prehospital Disaster Medicine*, 25(3), 265–272. https://doi.org/10.1017/S1049023X11000148.
- EM-DAT. (2018). The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database. Retrieved from October 20, 2018 fromhttp://www.emdat.be/datab ase.
- Gabrysch, S., & Campbell, O. M. (2009). Still too far to walk: Literature review of the determinants of delivery service use. BMC Pregnancy and Childbirth, 9, 34. https://doi. org/10.1186/1471-2393-9-34.
- Global Administrative Unit Layers (GAUL). (2018). UN, FAO. Retrieved March 1, 2018 from https://www.fao.org/geonetwork /srv/en/metadata.show?currTab=simple&id=12691.
- Goodman, A. (2016). In the aftermath of disasters: The impact on women's health. *Critical Care Obstetrics and Gynecology*, 2(6), 1–5.
- Goudet, S. M., Faiz, S., Bogin, B. A., & Griffiths, P. L. (2011). Pregnant women's and community health workers' perceptions of root causes of malnutrition among infants and young children in the slums of Dhaka, Bangladesh. *American Journal of Public Health*, 101, 1225–1233. https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2010.300090.
- Goudet, S. M., Griffiths, P. L., Bogin, B. A., & Selim, N. (2011). Impact of flooding on feeding practices of infants and young children in Dhaka, Bangladesh Slums: What are the coping strategies? *Maternal and Child Nutrition*, 7, 198–214. https://doi.org/10.111 1/j.1740-8709.2010.00250.x.
- Hosmer, D. W., & Lemeshow, S. (2004). *Applied logistic regression* (probability and statistics) (2nd ed.). New York: Wiley.
- Ligon, B. L. (2006). Infectious diseases that pose specific challenges after natural disasters: A review. Seminar in Pediatric Infectious Diseases, 17(1), 36–45. https://doi.org/10.1053/j. spid.2006.01.002.
- Målqvist, M., Hoa, D. T. P., & Thomsen, S. (2012). Causes and determinants of inequity in maternal and child health in Vietnam. BMC Public Health, 12, 641. https://doi. org/10.1186/1471-2458-12-641.

- McGlown, K. J., & Fottler, M. D. (1996). The impact of flooding on the delivery of hospital services in southeastern United States. *Health Care Manage Review*, 21(3), 55–71.
- McMichael, A. J. (2013). Globalization, climate change, and human health. *The New England Journal of Medicine*, *368*, 1335–1343. https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMra110934.
- Namasivayam, A., González, P. A., Delgado, R. C., & Chi, P. C. (2017). The effect of armed conflict on the utilization of maternal health services in Uganda: A population-based study. *PLoS Current*, 3, 9.
- O'brien, R. M. (2007). A caution regarding rules of thumb for variance inflation factors. *Quality & Quantity*, 41, 673–690. https://doi. org/10.1007/s11135-006-9018-6.
- Pakistan Flood 2011 Early Recovery Framework. (2012). OCHA, UN. https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/20120220_ Early%20Recovery%20Framework%20Floods%202011_Final .pdf.
- Phalkey, R. K., & Louis, V. R. (2016). Two hot to handle: How do we manage the simultaneous impact of climate change and natural disasters on human life? *The European Physical Journal Special Topics*, 225, 443–457. https://doi.org/10.1140/epjst/e2016-60071 -v.
- Rutaremwa, G., Wandera, S. O., Jhamba, T., Akiror, E., & Kiconco, A. (2015). Determinants of maternal health services utilization in Uganda. *BMC Health Services Research*, 15, 271. https://doi. org/10.1186/s12913-015-0943-8.
- Shimi, A. C., Parvin, G. A., Biswas, C., & Shaw, R. (2010). Impact and adaptation to flood: A focus on water supply, sanitation and health problems of rural community in Bangladesh. *Disaster Prevention* and Management, 19(3), 298–313. https://doi.org/10.1108/09653 561011052484.
- Tatah, L., Delbiso, T. D., Rodriguez-Llanes, J. M., Cuesta, G. G., & Guha-Sapir, D. (2016). Impact of refugees on local health systems: A difference-in-differences analysis in Cameroon. *PLoS ONE*. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0168820.
- Vanderveken, A., Guha-Sapir, D. (2016). CRED CRUNCH: The EM-DAT higher resolution disaster data. CRED, USAID; Report No.: 43. https://www.cred.be/credcrunch-43-em-dat-higher-resolution -disaster-data.
- Watts, N., Adgar, W. N., Agnolucci, P., Blackstock, J., Byass, P., & Cai, W. (2015). Health and climate change: Policy responses to protect public health. *The Lancet*, 386, 1861–1914. https://doi. org/10.1016/S0140-6736(15)60854-6.
- World Health Organization (WHO). (2007). *Standards for maternal and neonatal care*. Geneva: WHO. Retrieved from https://www.who.int/maternal_child_adolescent/documents/a91272/en/.
- Xiong, X., Harville, E., Mattison, D., Elkind-Hirsch, K., Pridjian, G., & Buekens, P. (2008). Exposure to Hurricane Katrina, posttraumatic stress disorder and birth outcomes. *The American Journal of Medical Sciences*, 336, 111–115. https://doi.org/10.1097/ MAJ.0b013e318180f21c.

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.