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- 2 Barriers and facilitators for the inclusion of fertility care in reproductive health policies in
- 3 Africa: a qualitative evidence synthesis
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39 Abstract

BACKGROUND: Infertility affects over 50 million couples worldwide and impacts people's
social and emotional wellbeing. In low and middle-income countries, particularly across
Africa, the inclusion of fertility care into reproductive health (RH) policies remains fragmented
or non-existent.

OBJECTIVE AND RATIONALE: This systematic review aims to provide a framework for
understanding the inclusion (or lack thereof) of fertility care in RH policies in African settings.
It synthesises barriers and facilitators to such inclusion, with a view to uncovering the
positioning of fertility care in broader health systems and on the agendas of key stakeholders
such as health policymakers and practitioners.

SEARCH METHODS: A qualitative evidence synthesis was performed, systematically searching papers and grey literature. Searches were conducted in MEDLINE, EMBASE, CINAHL, Web of Science, and Scopus between February and April 2020. No date restrictions were applied. Language was limited to publications written in English and French. Two reviewers independently screened titles and abstracts, and extracted data, applying thematic coding. The quality of the included papers was evaluated using The Joanna Briggs Institute Checklist for Text and Opinion Papers.

**OUTCOMES:** The search identified 744 papers, of which 20 were included. Findings were 56 organised under four cross-cutting categories, namely: (i) perceived importance of infertility; 57 (ii) influence of policy context; (iii) resource availability and access; and (vi) perceived quality 58 59 of care. Across these categories, key barriers to the inclusion of fertility care in RH policies were: limited political commitment, under-recognition of the burden of infertility, and high 60 costs associated with assisted reproductive technologies (ART). Conversely, facilitators 61 comprised specialised training on infertility for healthcare providers, standard procedures for 62 ART safety and guidelines, and North-South / South-South collaborations. 63

WIDER IMPLICATIONS: The inclusion of fertility care in African RH policies depends upon factors that include the recognition of infertility as a disease, strong political engagement and proactivity, and affordability of ART through opportunities for partnership with the private sector, which ease costs on the public health system. Further qualitative and quantitative research, including context-specific analysis and in-depth comparative approaches across diverse African countries, will help to delineate differential impacts of local and global factors on fertility care to address this neglected RH issue.

71 **Keywords**: Fertility care, infertility services, reproductive health, health policy, Africa

# 73 Introduction

74 Infertility is an important yet neglected reproductive health issue that significantly impacts upon wellbeing (Gipson et al., 2020). While global prevalence and incidence rates 75 remain unclear, infertility is estimated to affect 15% of reproductive-age couples (Gerrits et al., 76 2017), yet this is likely to be an underestimation. In the Global South, this includes almost 25 77 million couples, with highest proportions in Africa and Southeast Asia (Mascarenhas et al., 78 2012). Infertility in Central Africa is often referred to as "bareness amid plenty" signifying its 79 80 presence in countries with otherwise high fertility rates (van Balen and Gerrits, 2001). The consequences of infertility can be overwhelming with an array of social, emotional and 81 economic impacts and the burden afflicting couples, and in particular women, is severe 82 (Okonofua et al., 1997; Dierickx et al., 2018; Serour et al., 2019; Dierickx, 2020). 83 In Africa, numerous poverty-related conditions contribute to infertility, including a high 84 85 prevalence of Sexually Transmitted Infections (STI), unsafe abortions, and poor birth care leading to pregnancy-related sepsis (Tjiam et al., 1986; Sharma et al., 2009). It has been argued 86 that infertility can be avoided through improved sexual and reproductive health education and 87 via the promotion of a healthy lifestyle (FIGO, 2012). Though success rates vary, infertility can 88

89 be clinically managed with medication and Assisted Reproductive Technology (ART)

90 (Bahadur *et al.*, 2020). The package of interventions aimed to support women and men living

91 with infertility to "...realize their desires associated with reproduction and/or to build a

92 *family*..." is encompassed in a comprehensive set of activities named "fertility care" that

93 includes fertility awareness, prevention, management, and support (Zegers-Hochschild *et al.*,

94 2017). Infertility services, extend beyond treatments such as cryopreservation of gametes or

- 95 embryos, *in vitro* fertilization (IVF), and intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI), to comprise
- 96 diagnostic screening and assessments, all of which are included in the fertility care package.

Since the 1994 International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) 97 recognised reproductive health (RH) as a universal right, increased attention has been directed 98 at the prevention, management, and treatment of infertility (United Nations, 1994). Yet, 99 fertility care remains absent or poorly represented in many RH policies, especially in Africa 100 (Nachtigall, 2006; Ombelet et al., 2008). Following the ICPD recommendations, several 101 authors have noted the benefits of including fertility care in RH policies, however there is little 102 103 agreement on the policy process of how such inclusion could be implemented and successfully scaled up across different settings (Gerrits and Shaw, 2010; Dierickx et al., 2019; Serour et al., 104 105 2019).

The systematic review of qualitative research (also known as a qualitative evidence 106 synthesis or QES), is an approach aiming to understand, explain, and provide rich 107 108 interpretations related to health conditions, interventions or policies, bringing together multiple 109 perspectives including contradictory viewpoints (Flemming et al., 2019). Due to its additional utility in retrieving and analysing texts, opinions, and policy documents, this approach is 110 increasingly used in understanding health system decision-making processes, and was therefore 111 selected for this review (Booth et al., 2019). Furthermore, one of the acknowledged functions 112 of QES is to evidence suppositions that are commonly believed but have not been substantiated 113 across multiple studies. By focusing on barriers and facilitators for the inclusion of fertility 114 care into broader RH, this review provides a comprehensive overview of fertility care policy in 115 116 Africa, thereby broadening and complementing a recent review by Chiware et al. (2020) on IVF and other ART in low and middle-income countries (LMIC). A conceptual framework, 117 based in the evidence, is proposed to facilitate a better understanding of the main influences 118 119 shaping fertility care policy inclusion in African contexts.

# 120 Methods

The protocol for this review was registered on 13 July 2020, and published on
PROSPERO, on 14 August 2020 (ID CRD42020175808). The Preferred Reporting Items for
Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) guidelines were used for reporting
purposes (Moher *et al.*, 2009).

## 125 Search strategy

Published and unpublished papers were retrieved from multiple sources, including 126 direct contact with three authors. The electronic databases searched included MEDLINE, 127 128 EMBASE (via Ovid), CINAHL (via EBSCO), Web of Science, and Scopus. The PubMed Central website was also searched for completeness. Records identified through Google 129 Scholar were extracted with the dual purpose of checking for citations and searching for 130 relevant documents in the grey literature. A combination of free-text keywords, controlled 131 vocabulary, Boolean operators AND and OR, and subject headings were used in combining: (i) 132 infertility<sup>1</sup>; (ii) Africa; (iii) health policy; and (iv) reproductive health. Two lead reviewers (AA 133 and HA) were involved in searching the databases and identifying relevant references and they 134 independently selected relevant papers to be included in the review. The complete search 135 136 strategy is provided in Supplementary File S1. The PerSPEcTiF framework was used as a question formulation framework as it accommodates context, perspective, time and space 137 within a health system context (Booth et al., 2019). The framework is provided in 138 139 Supplementary Table S2.

140 Study selection

The databases were searched between February and April 2020 with no initial cut-off
start date. Papers published in English and French were included. We included literature

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Also included in the search were fertility care, fertility service, and other related terms, through use of "explode" or "truncation" tools, MESH, etc. as detailed in Supplementary File S1.

reviews, monographs, commentaries, viewpoints and opinion papers that specifically addressed 143 policy related to fertility care in African contexts. Studies that focused on ART were selected if 144 they reflected on barriers and facilitators for inclusion in health services provision. We 145 excluded studies evaluating the prevalence of infertility, the biomedical and traditional 146 treatment of infertility, reproductive health genomics/genetics, and socio-cultural or religious 147 barriers. The complete list of eligibility criteria is summarised in Supplementary Table S3. The 148 149 lead reviewers screened the papers by title and abstracts and the final selection was based on full text reading. During the study selection phase, the opinion of a third reviewer (JB) was 150 151 required for a small number of papers. Discrepant results were resolved by discussion until a unanimous decision was reached among all three reviewers. The full list of excluded papers is 152 provided in Supplementary Table S4. Key characteristics of the included papers are available 153 in Supplementary Table S5. 154

#### 155 Quality Assessment

This review did not focus on the analysis of qualitative studies and therefore a formal 156 157 approach to quality assessment based on study design was not appropriate. The lead reviewers assessed and validated the quality of the selected papers using the Joanna Briggs Institute 158 Checklist for Text and Opinion (Joanna Briggs Institute, 2017). Six criteria were assessed, 159 notably: (i) the source of opinion or authorship; (ii) the field of expertise of the author; (iii) the 160 relevant population/audience as the central focus of the opinion; (vi) rationale or basis of the 161 opinion; (v) clear reference of the existent literature; and (vi) if any incongruence with the 162 sources was logically defended (McArthur et al., 2015). As specified by the developers of the 163 checklist, the lead reviewers attributed to each paper a criterion and the overall quality of the 164 papers was labelled as "high", "medium" or "low". The quality assessment for each included 165 paper is available in Supplementary Table S6. 166

#### 167 Data Extraction

The data was extracted according to characteristics of the selected papers, including 168 information about: (i) the author(s) and date of publication; (ii) the settings of the study; (iii) 169 the data collection method; and (iv) the type of paper. The lead reviewers independently read 170 the selected papers and compiled a matrix indicating factors enabling and/or inhibiting fertility 171 care policy in African health systems including, but not limited to, barriers and facilitators 172 concerning the inclusion of fertility care and services in reproductive health policies, the cost 173 174 of infertility treatment, public-private partnership (PPP), and training of healthcare providers on infertility management. Data was extracted from the papers in the form of text fragments. 175 Each section of the paper was reviewed, with particular attention to findings and 176 177 recommendations. Data from the conclusion section of the paper was also extracted and included within this synthesis. 178

#### 179 Data Synthesis

Lead reviewer AA used a thematic synthesis approach consisting of three coding stages 180 and departing from Thomas and Harden method (Thomas and Harden, 2008), each stage 181 allowing themes to be increasingly elaborated. In the first stage, fragments of text were 182 extracted and classified according to meaning and content, inductively and iteratively with an 183 intentionally broad scope. This generated 18 "factors" which were categorised as "barriers" or 184 185 "facilitators" (Supplementary Table S7). In the second stage, these 18 factors were grouped into eight "themes" (elements of fertility care that might influence policymaking) as detailed in 186 the following section. These themes were subsequently used to identify relevant fragments of 187 text and sentences within and across papers, with the purpose of interpreting rather than simply 188 aggregating information (Barnett-Page and Thomas, 2009). In the third stage, the eight themes 189 were further analysed and clustered into four cross-cutting "categories", namely: (i) perceived 190 191 importance of infertility; (ii) influence of policy context; (iii) access and availability of

resources; and (iv) perceived quality of care. The three stages of coding are displayed in
Supplementary Table S8. Each cross-cutting category included one or more themes and
represents the overarching level of coding (Supplementary Figure S9). Factors are described in
detail and referenced for transparency in Supplementary Table S10. Finally, a conceptual
framework was developed offering a graphical model of factors that enable inclusion of
fertility care in RH policies in Africa (Figure 2).

# 198 Results

The search identified 744 references of which 119 were excluded as duplicates and a further 562 were deemed not relevant. A full text review was conducted on 63 documents from which an additional 43 were excluded leaving 20 papers for the final analysis. A PRISMA flow chart (Moher *et al.*, 2009) illustrating the process for the study identification and selection is shown in **Figure 1**.

Of the 20 papers included in the QES, six specifically focused on African countries 204 (Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria, Sudan, Tanzania and The Gambia); a further six mentioned African 205 206 countries and Sub-Saharan Africa in broader terms (e.g., West Africa including Mali, Togo and Senegal). The remaining eight cited LMIC or resource-poor settings more generally without 207 naming specific countries, although referring to Africa. The papers comprised a set of articles, 208 literature reviews, systematic reviews, monographs, commentaries, viewpoints, brief reports, 209 short communications, and opinion pieces. Of all the selected papers, 12 (60%) were rated as 210 high quality, three (15%) as medium/high quality, and five (25%) as medium quality. No 211 studies were discarded based on the quality assessment. 212

#### 213 Analysis of included papers

214

### a. Perceived importance of infertility

### 215 Theme 1: Perceived importance among policymakers

The recognition of infertility as a disease or disability that negatively affects large 216 numbers of women and men is important for appropriate prioritisation within national health 217 agenda and broader policymaking processes. Sharma et al. (2009) reported that political 218 willingness and commitment are essential for the consideration of infertility within 219 comprehensive RH. Similarly, international stakeholders' interest in infertility is vital, yet still 220 221 largely missing in global health (Ombelet, 2011; Gerrits et al., 2017; Dierickx et al., 2019). Equally important in recognising infertility as a RH issue, Serour et al. (2019) contend that 222 population-level databases do not accurately report the burden of infertility. In two papers in 223 224 Nigeria and Sudan, authors suggest that the systematic collection of infertility-related health information is essential for improved resources allocation (Akinloye and Truter, 2011; Khalifa 225 226 and Ahmed, 2012). Furthermore, recording such infertility-related data would allow for international comparisons and benchmarking in access, efficacy, quality and safety of ART 227 228 (Serour et al., 2019) and other aspects of fertility care. 229 "...Infertility should be recognized as a public health issue

- 230 worldwide, including in developing countries; policymakers and
- 231 *health staff should give attention to infertility and the needs of*
- 232 *infertile patients…*"
- 233 (Ombelet, 2014, pp 2)
- 234 Theme 2: Perceived importance among society

In Sub-Saharan Africa and other resource-constrained settings, infertility is often perceived as a woman's problem, highly stigmatised by societal taboos, and simply not discussed in public spaces (Gerrits and Shaw, 2010; Hammarberg and Kirkman, 2013). Unequal gender norms and relationships were also found to exert an influence on access to, and
utilisation of, health services. One study in The Gambia found that women with infertility seek
healthcare by themselves, with little participation of the spouse (Dierickx *et al.*, 2019).

Nevertheless, infertility is important for men too and as shown in Nigeria and Sudan, 241 male infertility is often wrongly associated with a lack of masculinity and, in consequence, is 242 frequently stigmatised and ignored (Inhorn, 2009; Akinloye and Truter, 2011; Khalifa and 243 244 Ahmed, 2012). To overcome male-related (and general) misperceptions of infertility, Gerrits et al. (2017), suggests that health education focussing on the de-stigmatisation of infertility may 245 246 help sensitise society. Raising awareness of biomedical causes of infertility, the commonality of male factor infertility and the benefits of timing intercourse according to the fertile window 247 is also important (Sharma et al., 2009; Gerrits, 2012). 248

249

#### b. Influence of policy context

## 250 Theme 3: Effects of policies

251 Several authors maintain that despite the challenges, fertility care needs to be included in national RH policies (van Balen and Gerrits, 2001; Ombelet, 2009). When included, regulation 252 and access to infertility services are legitimised, leading to improved provision in the public 253 254 and/or private sectors (Sharma et al., 2009; Ombelet, 2014). In contrast, it has been argued that collaborations between local governments, civil society and the research community might not 255 exert sufficient power or influence for the formulation of health policies that include fertility 256 257 care if international partnerships are not established and maintained (van Balen and Gerrits, 2001; Ombelet, 2014). Hörbst (2012) highlights that, in Mali, international donor funding 258 played a key role in influencing infertility policy and governance, though donor dependency is 259 also cited as a barrier in the decision-making process of legislators (Hammarberg and Kirkman, 260 2013). North-South collaborations have arisen over the past decade, exploring new approaches 261 262 to ART that could be applicable in LMIC. To this effect, both the European Society for Human

Reproduction and Embryology (ESHRE) and the Walking Egg Project partnered with African 263 countries to support infertility care (Hammarberg and Kirkman, 2013; Bahamondes and 264 Makuch, 2014; Ombelet, 2014). Some ART clinics in Africa also have established 265 relationships with ART centres in Europe and the USA mainly for training purposes or to 266 purchase second-hand equipment (Gerrits and Shaw, 2010; Hörbst, 2016). Finally, Sharma et 267 al. (2009) note that the formulation of specific fertility care guidelines is vital to reducing the 268 269 risks of, and increasing the safety associated with, treatment. Fertility care protocols should follow international standards and be applied uniformly in public and private facilities. 270

271

c. Resource availability and access

# 272 Theme 4: Cost of ART

Making infertility care affordable across the African continent is of utmost importance 273 and requires the development of low-cost regimens and techniques (Akande, 2008; 274 275 Bahamondes and Makuch, 2014; Ombelet, 2014). Asemota and Klatsky (2015) suggests that Intrauterine Insemination (IUI) should be used as a first-line treatment for unexplained 276 infertility. Both IVF and ICSI can be offered at a much lower cost if less expensive methods 277 and laboratory materials are used (Ombelet, 2009). However, the efforts to make ART 278 affordable in LMIC must not be allowed to result in the provision of poor quality care, and 279 safety standards should not be compromised in the pursuit of cost reduction (Ombelet, 2011). 280 "...Reducing ART cost by all possible means is important to 281 increase access to ART in Africa..." 282 (Serour *et al.*, 2019, pp 3) 283

284 Theme 5: Private care

Several authors claim that private actors are important partners in the provision of
infertility care in Africa (Okonofua, 1996; Akande, 2008; Akinloye and Truter, 2011; Hörbst,
2012; Khalifa and Ahmed, 2012). Indeed, ART is mostly provided by the private sector in

288	many African countries, with some cases of public and private partnership (PPP) (e.g., Nigeria
289	and Egypt) (Akande, 2008; Serour et al., 2019). Yet, the costs associated with many private
290	clinics are generally unaffordable to the majority of those in need, further exacerbating the
291	inequalities in access to treatment (Dyer, 2008). To help alleviate public health financing, and
292	to maximise health resources while keeping equity in mind, there have been calls for major
293	investments by, and a cooperative environment with, the private sector. This may help increase
294	access to infertility services through long-term PPP building (Gerrits, 2012).
295	"PPPs can offer services at lower costs that are more
296	realistic in developing countries. In addition, PPPs can help
297	influence the establishment of standards, regulations and
298	policies to safeguard the health of couples undergoing
299	treatment"
300	(Akande, 2008, pp 13)
300 301	(Akande, 2008, pp 13) Theme 6: Referrals
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*health care systems is generally considered desirable as this* 

313	may increase referral of infertile couples to the biomedical
314	sector"
315	(Dyer, 2008, pp 32)
316	d. Perceived quality of care
317	Theme 7: Drugs, equipment, and supplies
318	Infertility care requires highly specialised equipment, as well as a variety of supplies
319	and drugs. Yet, as described by Ombelet (2009), not all infertility regimes require expensive
320	drug protocols (i.e., ovulation induction with Clomiphene Citrate is more cost-effective). In her
321	qualitative research in West Africa, Hörbst (2012) suggests that using an outsourced laboratory
322	could reduce the cost of infertility treatment because it does not require purchasing of
323	equipment or maintaining experienced staff. Similarly, Khalifa (2012) proposes that fertility
324	clinics can share embryologists and cryo-banking to reduce the cost of procedures (Khalifa and
325	Ahmed, 2012). Yet, providing safe and high-quality infertility services does require the
326	availability of a minimal infrastructure capability (Bahamondes and Makuch, 2014).
327	Theme 8: Specialised training for health providers
328	The provision of fertility care entails skilled labour. Several authors described that
329	specific training is necessary to create, improve or maintain the technical abilities of the
330	healthcare providers in managing infertility (Hörbst, 2012; Ombelet, 2014). Infertility training
331	is often undervalued or missed from the medical/allied health educational curricula (van Balen
332	and Gerrits, 2001; Sharma et al., 2009) or Continued Professional Development (CPD). Such
333	training is expensive, and usually requires trainees to travel abroad to learn new techniques
334	(Hammarberg and Kirkman, 2013). Seeking collaboration with international academic clinical
335	specialists – especially embryologists and andrologists – can be explored as a means of
336	developing local capability (Hörbst, 2012), particularly with the recent transition to digital
337	learning brought on by the coronavirus pandemic. Authors highlighted that unregulated

practice and lack of professional oversight could lead to a distorted perception of the quality of
care and induce a certain level of professional liberty (Gerrits and Shaw, 2010; Hörbst, 2012;
Asemota and Klatsky, 2015).

341	"Local providers can be trained to provide a basic evaluation
342	and guidance or treatment for specific causes of infertility"

343 (Asemota and Klatsky, 2015, pp 19)

Extending from the above findings, a conceptual framework was created offering a graphical model which could support fertility care policymaking in Africa. Within four categories, a list of items were identified to guide policy actors toward a most wide-ranging analysis of determinants for fertility care policymaking (**Fig. 2**).

# 348 Discussion

349 This work reviewed and synthesised factors that inhibit or enable the inclusion of fertility care into RH policies in Africa. Findings highlight that policymakers and international 350 stakeholders require urgent information and sensitisation on infertility in order to understand its 351 352 importance as a biomedical and social condition and as a reproductive health right. Yet their interest in, and commitment to infertility is diminished by the prevailing view that it is a 353 condition without life-threatening consequences and its priority within RH policies remains 354 355 masked by more high-risk conditions (Gerrits et al., 2017). We argue that this de-prioritisation of infertility is strongly influenced by an absence of systematic recording, storing, and sharing 356 of relevant data. This information gap also negatively influences government responsiveness 357 and the allocation of resources required to address infertility in African countries (Sharma et 358 al., 2009; Gerrits and Shaw, 2010; Khalifa and Ahmed, 2012). 359

360 The limited awareness of infertility among the public and even among some health professionals fuels misinformation, perpetuates myths – for example, that use of contraceptives 361 cause infertility - and amplifies fear, stigma and public reluctance to seek treatment (Asemota 362 and Klatsky, 2015). This is exacerbated by low levels of attention to (in)fertility in health 363 education programmes. Undervaluing interventions that focus on reproductive health education 364 365 may also impede recognition of early signs and symptoms that could lead to infertility (namely STI) and can delay access to treatment (Dyer, 2008). Holistic approaches to fertility education, 366 awareness and literacy in resources-poor settings can help better inform and sensitise the public 367 368 (Bahamondes and Makuch, 2014; Dierickx et al., 2019) and should begin in adolescence in order to have an impact on future prospects of fertility (Ombelet, 2009). 369

Raising awareness on infertility and improving reproductive health literacy more broadly
is also key to reducing stigma and fostering changes in policy and practice (Dierickx *et al.*,
2019). In Turkey, for example, activists from patients' organisations have successfully lobbied

for fertility care gaining traction with the government and instigating the formulation of a
national infertility policy (Gerrits, 2012). Similarly, in The Gambia, infertility-related NGOs
such as Safe Haven raises awareness through public walks and other campaigns, and groups of
women with infertility, the *Kanyaleng*, support each other by providing a safe space to release
infertility-related social pressure (Dierickx *et al.*, 2019; Dierickx, 2020).

Several other factors influence fertility care policy creation, one being dependency on 378 379 external funds. Donors can steer the policymaking process by exerting political influence in areas concerning public health and social policy. In this regard, the lack of global interest in 380 381 infertility, from a donor perspective, has resulted in comparatively little attention on the issue (Hörbst, 2012). Similarly, the frequent absence of state subsidies and health insurance schemes 382 contributes to poor access to infertility services among those most in need (Gerrits, 2012; 383 Hörbst, 2012). Access might be facilitated through the adoption of a model of subsidising 384 infertility treatment allowing, for example, 2-3 cycles of treatment funded by the public sector 385 for couples with specific characteristics (women under 40 years of age.; primary infertility, 386 socio-economic status, etc.) (Inhorn and Gürtin, 2012). This model could form a first step 387 towards decreasing inequalities in access to infertility treatment in selected African settings. 388 Yet, the high costs associated with ART remain a major impediment (Chiware et al., 389 2020). With the aim of decreasing these costs in the Global South, the European Society of 390 Human Reproduction and Embryology (ESHRE) and The Walking Egg Foundation have 391 392 worked, alongside researchers, to promote more reasonably priced ART (Ombelet, 2013, 2014; Ombelet and Goossens, 2016). Despite promising efforts however, these North-South 393 collaborations remain restricted to few African clinics mainly because of the challenges in 394 395 allocation of public funding, optimisation of ART techniques, and an absence of fertility care from national health policies (Ombelet and Onofre, 2019). A reduction in the cost of ART, 396 while feasible, may not therefore offer an immediate solution (Ombelet, 2014). To reduce the 397

costs, international donors and other stakeholders such as pharmaceutical organisations, would
have to support the longer-term development of low-cost approaches. Such investment requires
that donors recognise infertility as a global reproductive health issues of importance in LMIC,
including across Africa (Ombelet, 2011).

The African Network and Registry for ART (ANARA), established in 2015, is an 402 important South-South collaboration that facilitates, via data sharing, an improved 403 404 understanding of access to ART in Africa. According to the most recent data, Africa provides only 1 percent of ARTs, worldwide. With 20 African countries in the ANARA network, 405 406 several including South Africa, Nigeria, Egypt, Sudan and Ghana now systematically report on ART. While Dyer et al. (2019) asserted that the data from these African countries are still little 407 representative of the true utilisation of ART, it is anticipated that ANARA will develop and 408 409 that ART from data across Africa will become more robust. Even though it is too early to evaluate the impact of the African ART registries, there is good reason to believe that the 410 collection of data on ART utilisation will help strengthen decision and policymaking and could 411 contribute to reducing the burden of infertility in Africa (Botha, Shamley and Dyer, 2018; Dyer 412 and Zegers-Hochschild, 2019; Dyer et al., 2020). 413

Another major barrier to the provision of fertility care is the lack of appropriate 414 infrastructure, equipment and supplies. The organisation of infertility services extends beyond 415 416 mere technical expertise; it also requires a continuous supply of high-quality laboratory materials (Okonofua, 1996). Yet, not all cases of infertility require costly, high-technology 417 treatments. For example, IUI is far less complex – and cheaper – than IVF and achieves similar 418 live birth success rates (Bahadur et al., 2020). Furthermore, simple procedures such as the 419 420 intravaginal culture of oocytes (INVO) have considerably reduced the cost of ART and can be 421 performed with minimal equipment investment (Frydman and Ranoux, 2008; Khan et

*al.*,2013). In this regard, simplification of ART becomes fundamental for the delivery offertility care within African health systems, both in the public and private sectors.

424 Open and bi-directional communication between the public and private health sectors can facilitate discussion on whether building a public-private partnership is valuable for the 425 provision of infertility services (Akande, 2008; Gerrits, 2012; Hörbst, 2012; Hammarberg and 426 Kirkman, 2013). In countries where the public sector cannot afford laboratory equipment, staff, 427 428 or expensive therapeutic protocols, partnership with private fertility clinics can add significant value. The public sector would rely on private facilities for supplies and human resources while 429 430 private fertility clinics would have increase patient flow, allowing medical skills to be maintained. Building on public-private trust also facilitates transparent sharing of data between 431 both sectors (Hörbst, 2012) and referral pathways may be established without losing track of 432 patients (Dyer, 2008; Asemota and Klatsky, 2015). 433

Fertility care embedded in broader RH policies can stimulate the creation of national 434 guidelines and protocols, the gold standard for the provision of high quality services (Sharma 435 et al., 2009). The existence of national regulations ensures that physicians establishing fertility 436 clinics are supported by comprehensive standards (Gerrits and Shaw, 2010; Hammarberg and 437 Kirkman, 2013). The establishment, in early 2020, of the African Federation of Fertility 438 Societies (AFFS) is a remarkable first step toward the creation of national branches of fertility 439 societies, and can be the driving force in bringing together infertility specialists, creating a 440 space where the provision of infertility services is considered safe and of high quality (Gerrits, 441 2012; Asemota and Klatsky, 2015). Finally, the recent creation of the WHO Sexual and 442 Reproductive Health and Rights Policy Portal is giving fertility care policymaking a new 443 impetus, and increase global attention. 444

445 Moving forward, findings suggest a strong need and timely opportunity for African 446 governments to increase their focus on fertility care and its inclusion in RH policies through

South-South and North-South partnerships for technical and financial assistance where
required. Contextualised strategies should be developed based on local needs, priorities,
resources, and perspectives. African researchers, clinicians, policymakers, and patients must be
supported as equal and vested partners in researching and addressing infertility across the
continent.

#### 452 Limitations

The findings of this review must be considered in light of several limitations. Firstly, 453 the QES presents a plethora of factors that potentially influence the inclusion of fertility care in 454 RH policies in African settings. Although these factors reflect the opinions of experts and 455 researchers, they do not fully explain why and how policymakers and practitioners might 456 consider how to apply them when establishing or implementing a RH policy that includes 457 fertility care. Findings therefore cannot be overstated, but they can facilitate an understanding 458 of how approaches differ across contexts and where improvements can be made. An in-depth 459 context-sensitive analysis is needed in countries where fertility care has been included and in 460 461 those where it has not. Secondly, due to limits in the available literature specifically addressing 462 policymaking and fertility care in Africa, it was challenging to trace and identify papers focused on these two themes. To this effect, there is an urgent need for further research in this 463 area. Finally, papers using concepts such as "developing countries or low-resource settings" 464 were included when they appeared to refer to Africa. However, such labels are vague and 465 extend to geographic areas such as Latin America and South Asia that were not specifically 466 targeted in this review. The authors recognise that specific local factors may exert different 467 impact and that context-relevant findings might have been missed or overlooked. 468

#### 469 Priorities for further research

470 Further research is required to contextualise factors and processes that influence the471 inclusion of fertility care in national reproductive health policies in African countries. While

fertility care is receiving increased attention from the WHO, to date it has been prioritised in 472 few African countries (WHO, 2019) and efforts need to be boosted and sustained over time. 473 Multidisciplinary and/or mixed-methods research on fertility care can help better understand 474 infertility in relation to socio-economic, cultural-religious and political determinants. This has 475 the potential to influence the health system in general, and specifically the provision of fertility 476 care through informing development and implementation of locally and nationally appropriate 477 478 policies. If appropriately contextualised, findings might be relevant to resource-poor regions other than Africa where fertility care also remains scant. Finally, implementation of already 479 480 included fertility care policies requires further attention through operational research and improved uptake of policy into practice. As a starting point, researchers could compare across 481 countries that have already included fertility care and services in their RH policies and form 482 recommendations for best practices. 483

# 484 Conclusions

This review reveals that including fertility care in RH policies in Africa recognition of 485 infertility as a disease, strong political commitment, and improved affordability of ART. Civil 486 society leaders and other stakeholders should call for increased attention and awareness 487 concerning infertility. To overcome budget limitations and reduce the cost of equipment, 488 supplies and drugs, African governments could continue to build collaborations with the 489 private sector and seek support from international partners. Human resources, infrastructures 490 and supplies should be further developed and standardised protocols drafted. Infertility is 491 accompanied by strong social and emotional factors affecting the wellbeing of women and 492 men, and addressing the gender dimensions of infertility is one of the foremost tasks required. 493

494	Supplementary data
495	Supplementary data are available at Human Reproduction Update online.
496	S1 File. Search strategy
497	(DOCX)
498	S2 Table. PerSPEcTiF Framework
499	(DOCX)
500	S3 Table. Inclusion and exclusion criteria
501	(DOCX)
502	S4 Table. Characteristics of excluded papers
503	(DOCX)
504	S5 Table. Characteristics of included papers
505	(DOCX)
506	S6 Table. Quality assessment checklist
507	(DOCX)
508	S7 Table. Synthesis of thematic analysis
509	(DOCX)
510	S8 Table. Framework for factors, themes and categories
511	(DOCX)
512	S9 Figure. Schematic representation of barriers and facilitators associated with each
513	category
514	(DOCX)
515	S10 Table. Summary of findings. Barriers and facilitators for fertility care in Africa
516	
517	
518	

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523

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