

Antenatal and parent education classes: evidence and some recent Italian models of care

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Abstract. The transition to parenthood involves both women and men. For the family, this life experience is one of the most challenging transformations they will ever face. (Huston & Holmes, 2004). The couple relationship during the transition to parenthood is at its most fragile, as parents learn to adapt to the physical, psychological, emotional, and relational changes that occur. A substantial proportion of couples struggle to adapt to parenthood, feel stress in caring for their infant, and experience a significant decline in their relationship as a couple (Petch & Halford, 2008) and a similar decline in positive couple communication (Cowan & Cowan, 2000; Doss et al., 2009). A collaborative and interdisciplinary perinatal care model is gaining acceptance and represents a growing scope of practice. The approach is a viable way of providing each mother with the specific physical, emotional, and social support relevant to her needs (Kwee & McBride, 2015). Involving fathers during pregnancy and childbirth may have positive outcomes for the health of the father, his wife, and their baby (Plantin et al., 2011).

Keywords: parental needs, models of care, Italian experience

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Introduction: the Perinatal experience

A woman's desire and need for a positive pregnancy experience can be summed up in four subthemes: the preservation of physical and sociocultural normality; the continuation of a healthy pregnancy for both mother and baby (including the prevention and treatment of risks, illness and death); an effective transition to positive labor and birth; and achieving positive motherhood (including the mothers' self-esteem, competence and autonomy) (Downe et coll., 2016). A positive childbirth experience is achievable when women are at the center of care, when they are involved in decisions with respect to care, and when they feel themselves to be in a safe, empathetic environment with competent healthcare professionals. An essential element of this care, particularly in cases where intervention is considered necessary, is the woman's sense of control and personal achievement of the birth outcome (Downe et al., 2018).

Empowering a woman during the childbearing period is expected to have a beneficial effect on her psychological well-being. The same favorable outcome is anticipated with respect to the woman's readiness to face the challenges that arise after the birth, when she is called upon to adapt to her new role as mother, now responsible for raising a child (Garcia & Yim, 2017; Raymond et al., 2014; Nilsson et al., 2013). A positive birth experience also appears to have an empowering effect (Olza et al., 2018; Lewis et al., 2018).

The empowerment of women needs to be considered at both the macro and the micro levels for it to be practical as well as sustainable within the broader arena of health and social care (Downe et al., 2018). Women's empowerment is influenced by collective, social, economic, legal, and political conditions, as well as by the individual psychological aspect (Salazar et al., 2012).

Expectant and new fathers experience a range of fears, and they frequently do not know what to expect from the processes leading to the transition to fatherhood. This can bring about a feeling of helplessness in the fathers who sense themselves being pushed out of the relationship and left to struggle to find their role. They experience fears related specifically to their partner's labor and birthing process. They often worry about the wellbeing of their partner and of the baby throughout the perinatal period (Baldwin et al., 2018).

The role restrictions experienced by the new fathers and the changes in their lifestyle result in increased stress levels which can manifest as tiredness, irritability, and frustration. In response, fathers adopt coping techniques such as denial or escape activities like smoking, working longer hours, or listening to music (Baldwin et al., 2018). Fathers' involvement is affected by levels of

informational support, the fathers' own attitudes towards involvement, the marital relationship, the fathers' relationships with their own parents, and other socioeconomic factors (Xue et al., 2018). Marital relationship has also been identified as a factor associated with father involvement in infant care (Falceto et al., 2008).

Health and care needs

In recent decades, there have been significant improvements in care during the term extending from pregnancy, through delivery, and including the postpartum, yet mothers and their babies are still at risk during that time (EURO-PERISTAT project, 2018). The main objectives of the World Health Organization (WHO) are to reduce maternal and newborn mortality and to improve the care experience (World Health Organization HQ, 2019). Promoting healthy pregnancy and safe childbirth is a goal of all European health care systems (EURO-PERISTAT project, 2018).

The cultural shift to medicalize the perinatal experience which is essentially an event of deep personal, relational, and cultural significance has objectified women and increased their risk of emotional maladjustment. The implications of mothers' psychosocial well-being are compelling from a maternal health aspect as well as from an infant development perspective (Kwee & McBride, 2015).

First-time fathers have demonstrated a need for more guidance and support in their preparation for fatherhood. Offering a variety of support mechanisms that encompass father-inclusive services is a useful strategy in support of fathers' mental health and well-being. (Baldwin et al., 2018).

"... While reductions in maternal and infant mortality ought to be celebrated as milestones of modern medicine, the person behind the medical experience should remain in focus in perinatal care" (McBride and Kwee, 2016, page 16).

Preventive interventions

For more than 50 years, antenatal education has been offered in most high-income countries. Including expecting fathers is a more recent development. Overall, the aim of antenatal education is to provide expectant parents with strategies for dealing with pregnancy, labor, and childbirth (Koehn, 2002) and, to a lesser extent, with parenting (Walker, Visger & Rossie, 2009).

Although antenatal education calls for a significant effort by women and families and results in considerable cost to maternity services centers

(Ferguson, Davis, and Browne, 2013), pregnant women and health professionals view education as a significant component of antenatal care. Antenatal education is recommended by most health professionals, and used by most expectant parents (Fabian, Rådestad & Waldeström, 2005). However, there is a noticeable lack of widely adopted standards or guidelines, and the objectives, subject matter and methods of antenatal education vary considerably (O'Meara, 1993).

The objectives of antenatal education programs often include increasing the participants' knowledge on matters such as: antenatal and postnatal depression, the birth process, pain relief and obstetric interventions, promoting breast feeding, and increasing the woman's confidence in her own ability to give birth and to transition to parenthood. Providing information on health promotion and risk reduction is also an important aim of antenatal education (Brixval, 2015). Additionally, antenatal classes are structured to facilitate the development of social networks and to help participants connect with others in the same situation (Fabian et al., 2005).

The sensitivity of antenatal educators to opinions and trends has led to the implementation of marked changes in form and content over time. There were periods when antenatal education was delivered to small classes with group discussions. At other times, the practice involved lectures in large auditoriums. The curriculum has also varied greatly. For example, topics like breathing and/or relaxation techniques are sometimes included, and sometimes left out of antenatal education programs (Brixval, 2015). Financial constraints and structural changes in the delivery of health care over time have also led to changes in the number of antenatal education sessions (Fabian et al., 2005).

Antenatal education classes with a small number of participants promote the creation of an environment that enables expecting parents to discuss their feelings and concerns (Brixval, 2015). Moreover, small class-size may enhance the participants' awareness of their own resources and provide them with problem-solving strategies that reinforce their own competencies to cope with birth and parenthood (Ip, Tang, & Goggins, 2009).

Antenatal education may have some positive effects on labor and birth including fewer episodes of false labor and less epidural use. Evidence with respect to the effect of antenatal education on mode of birth is contradictory. There is a need for further research to explore the impact of antenatal education on women's birthing outcomes (Ferguson, Davis & Browne, 2013).

"Parent education", on the other hand, describes a range of activities designed to meet specific learning objectives that promote the physical, psychological, and social growth and development of the child (Gilmer et al.,

2016).

The primary assumption on which parent education is based, both implicitly and explicitly, is that parental challenges and distress are the result of a knowledge deficit. This premise leads to the expectation that pre- and postnatal parent education will help to resolve the knowledge deficit by providing information to parents on topics such as breastfeeding, healthy eating strategies, and information on child development. Parent education is based on the additional assumption that parents who are equipped with this new knowledge will experience less distress and will go through positive changes in attitudes and ultimately behavior. These positive changes in parental behavior will then advance the overall goal of helping parents create a nurturing environment for their children. Parent education programs are also expected to produce benefits beyond simply educating parents including, for example, the development of a trusting relationship with the facilitator, a connection with other parents, and the reduction of isolation. The primary focus of these initiatives, however, is on providing a curriculum to educate people on becoming better parents (McDermott, 2006).

Models of care in Italy and appropriateness of health activities

Health care systems in industrialized countries are developed around acute health problems (Etzweiler, 1997).

The medicalized view of the full perinatal period calls into question the use of pathogenesis to frame maternity care services (Ferguson et al., 2015). Therefore, adopting a salutogenic model may reduce inequity of care and improve the quality of maternity care provided (Shorey et al., 2020).

In Italy, the Consultorio Familiare Centers provide the NHS's primary care services following a salutogenic model of maternal care dedicated to perinatal assistance. The centers employ a multidisciplinary, proactive, and holistic approach. They are tasked with providing both pre- and postnatal assistance to mothers and their families, including maternal and fetal assessments, antenatal classes, breastfeeding promotion, and postpartum support (Grussu, Lega, Quatraro & Donati 2020). Additionally, the centers carry out comprehensive promotional campaigns supported by the Ministry of Health such as "Genitoripiù" (www.genitoripiu.it).

Moreover, in Italy there is a new Surveillance System, coordinated by NHS (www.epicentro.iss.it/sorveglianza02anni/), on early childhood health determinants which promotes child health during the first 1000 days of life (Pizzi et al., 2019). The latest data, collected through a questionnaire compiled by mothers in NHS's vaccination centers, highlighted the need for early

intervention – even as early as the preconception period – with targeted methods and the involvement of diverse professionals (Pizzi et al., in press) and services like Consultorio Familiare centers.

Unlike a few years ago (Baglio et al., 2000), Italian antenatal classes offered by the Consultorio Familiare of the NHS are today the primary means by which suitable health pathways, relevant behavioral patterns, good habits and risk prevention in the perinatal period are consolidated within the daily life of pregnant and postnatal women, couples and families.

Reducing maternal mortality (Donati et al., 2018), reducing caesarean sections, as well as developing additional care models to support parenting, assisting emotionally fragile women and couples, safeguarding perinatal psychological well-being with early detection of those at risk and those suffering from perinatal emotional disorders – these goals must find their legitimate place in the work of the Italian agencies dedicated to the perinatal experience.

“... Podcasts in the waiting room, posters, flyers, and apps for one’s smartphone are all viable methods to support women with information that will facilitate women’s awareness of and responsibility for their health and wellbeing, help them to ask relevant questions, and promote formal help seeking when needed” (Kwee and McBride, 2015, page 7).

In the face of these health necessities, the pressing need is to build care models appropriate to local realities and to draft documents that describe in detail the objectives of care and the procedures used to achieve them. All of this must consider the most recent scientific evidence, the recommendations developed by the major scientific societies, and the current local health legislation.

In the Italian health context, antenatal classes represent a significant effort by women and families as well as a substantial cost to the NHS’s maternity services. This allocation of resources calls for careful evaluation. The measurement of outcomes, the assessment of the effectiveness of the services offered to the perinatal population, not to mention the users’ satisfaction with the care received, are therefore basic elements for measuring what has been done, justifying the significant economic expenses incurred and further disseminating these types of services throughout the national territory. Effectiveness, efficiency, equity (Rodríguez & des Rivières-Pigeon, 2007) and appropriateness are the hallmarks of “Best Practice” and should always be linked to the activities of the Italian antenatal and parental education classes of the NHS.

Conclusions

Maternal and child health is a public health priority, because pregnancy, childbirth and puerperium are leading determinants contributing to the hospitalization of women. Furthermore, birth-related events are internationally considered to be among the principal measures for assessing health-care quality (Pileggi et al., 2019).

Providing safe, first-rate perinatal care is a complex process focused on achieving maximum health potential for the fetus, the newborn, and the mother. Correspondingly, the evaluation of the quality of perinatal care is also a complex process because it involves different populations (Pileggi et al., 2019).

Optimality in perinatal health care can be described as the maximal perinatal outcome with minimal intervention placed against the dynamic context of the woman's social, medical, and obstetric history. However, optimal perinatal health care is likely to be defined differently by various groups with different risk orientations, such as women, clinicians, health care administrators, policymakers, and insurers (Kennedy, 2006). To improve outcomes, health professionals need the right tools to assess perinatal health problems and their causes, and there is the further need to monitor the impact of policy initiatives over time (EURO-PERISTAT project, 2018).

Practices in perinatal care impact a woman's self-experience (Redshaw & Van den Akker, 2008). Intervention and psychosocial support are effective in reducing emotional distress and improving a woman's resilience and ability to cope during the perinatal period (Kwee & McBride, 2015). Psychosocial care not only improves psychological outcomes but also improves medical outcomes and reduces birth complications (Griffiths & Barker-Collo, 2008; Saisto et al., 2006; Williams et al., 2009).

More specifically, providing a woman with psychosocial support during pregnancy and during the postpartum period reduces her risk of distress, increases her ability to thrive, and contributes to her ability to nurture the healthy development of her child (Kwee & McBride, 2015). At the same time, involving fathers in antenatal classes or parental education may have positive outcomes for the health of the father, his wife, and their baby (Plantin et al., 2011).

The future

“... Bringing together data from civil registration, medical birth registers, other registers, hospital discharge systems, and European surveys presents exciting research possibilities. This common framework could be used to

develop epidemiological surveillance in perinatal health and to provide opportunities for collaboration among health researchers in Europe who wish to undertake more focussed studies to gain knowledge about the specific causes of adverse perinatal outcomes, interventions for prevention and treatment, and the potential for improving perinatal health by improving the socioeconomic circumstances of parents and babies” (EURO-PERISTAT project, 2018, page 16).

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