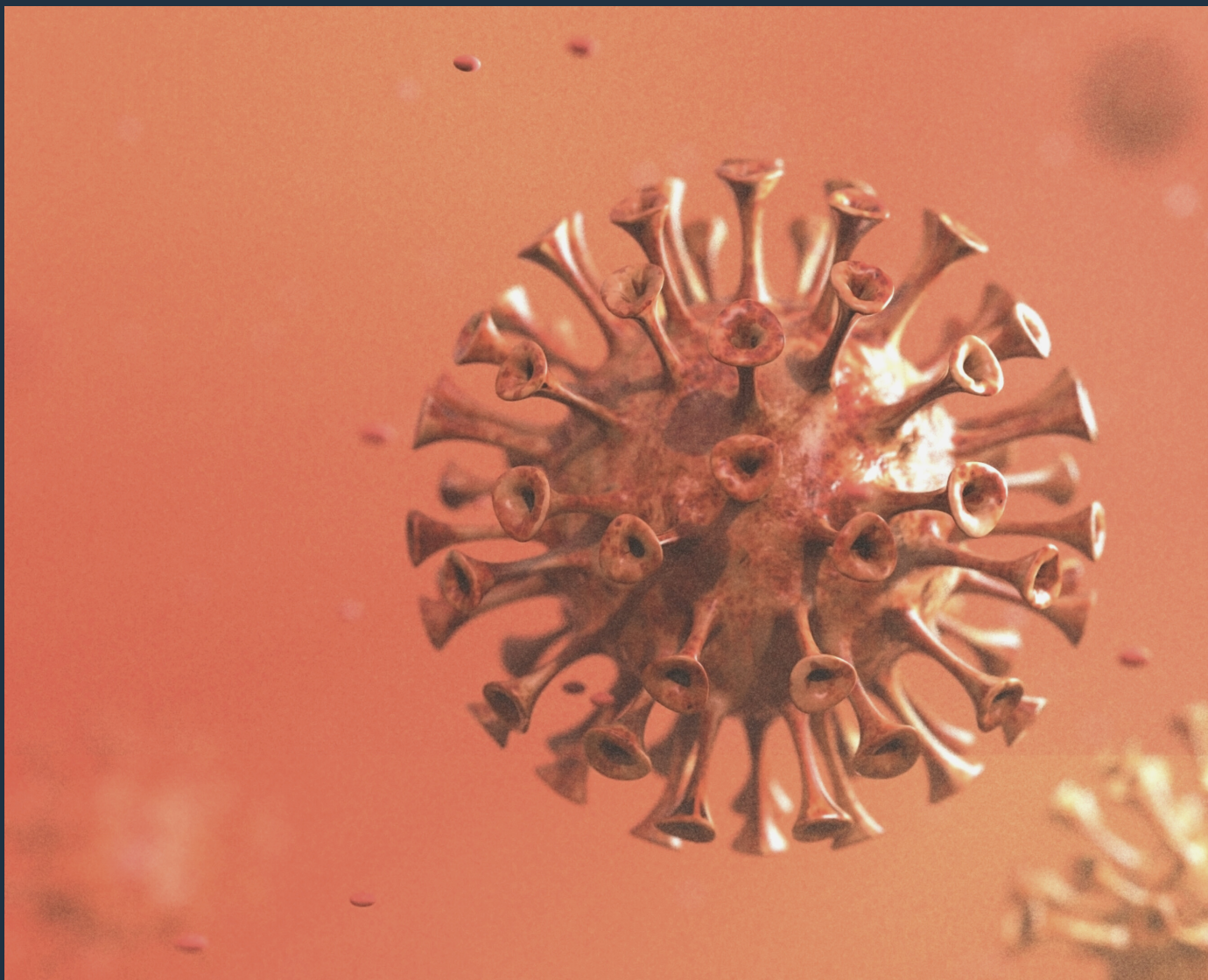


COVID-19 in West Africa

Summary Report of Sub-regional Webinars



THE NIGERIAN ACADEMY OF SCIENCE



THE NIGERIAN ACADEMY OF SCIENCE

COVID-19 in West Africa Summary Report of Sub-regional Webinars

Copyright © 2022 The Nigerian Academy of Science

Editors: Sonny F. Kuku FAS, Mobolaji O. Odubanjo, Anjola Olanipekun, Blessing Onyema

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means - electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording, or otherwise - without the prior permission of the copyright owner, the Nigerian Academy of Science

ISBN: 978-978-790-606-4

The Nigerian Academy of Science

Academy House

8a Ransome Kuti Road, University of Lagos

PMB 1004, University of Lagos Post Office, Akoka, Yaba

Lagos, Nigeria

Tel: +234 808 962 2442

Email: admin@nas.org.ng

Website: www.nas.org.ng

Disclaimer

The views and opinions expressed in this publication are those of the meeting speakers, and do not necessarily reflect the position of the Nigerian Academy of Science (NAS).

Table of Contents

Disclaimer.....	3
List of Figures	6
List of Acronyms	7
About the Nigerian Academy of Science.....	8
Introduction.....	9
Non-Pharmaceutical Interventions (NPIs) in COVID-19 Containment in Africa	11
Public Health and Social Measures in West Africa	11
NPIs in COVID-19 Containment: The Evidence Base.....	12
NPIs in the West African Context.....	15
Risk Communication in COVID-19 Response	16
Participants Reflections.....	19
Essential Health Services amid COVID-19 and Future Epidemics.....	20
Maintaining Essential Health Services amid COVID-19	20
Strengthening Health Systems in West Africa amid COVID-19: Investing for the Future	21
Monitoring Essential Health Services in a Public Health Emergency: The Place of Health Data.....	23
Recommendations and Key Discussion Comments	26
Technology for Healthcare During and Beyond COVID-19.....	28
Background and scope of telemedicine	28
Telemedicine in West Africa: Regulatory and Legal Frameworks.....	30
Increasing Access to Telemedicine	32
Recommendations and Key Discussion Comments	34

COVID-19: Toward a New Normal	35
Defining the New Normal	35
Recommendations and Key Discussion Comments	35
Appendix	36
Participants list (combined for all four webinars)	36
Project Steering Committee.....	46

List of Figures

	Page
Figure 1: Coronavirus disease dynamics in Nigeria	11
Figure 2: PHSM implementation in Nigeria	12
Figure 3: Effective risk communication during epidemics	17
Figure 4: Challenges of the West African health system	22
Figure 5: Number of out-patients per capita	25
Figure 6: Number of recorded deaths	25
Figure 7: Number of malaria admissions	26
Figure 8: Word cloud showing perception of mConsulting in Nigeria	28
Figure 9: Government roles towards achieving increased access to telemedicine	33

List of Acronyms

<i>COVID</i>	<i>Coronavirus disease</i>
<i>IPC</i>	<i>Infection Prevention and Control</i>
<i>NAS</i>	<i>The Nigerian Academy of Science</i>
<i>NPI</i>	<i>Non-Pharmaceutical Intervention</i>
<i>PHSMs</i>	<i>Public Health and Social Measures</i>
<i>RMNCAH</i>	<i>Reproductive, Maternal, New-born, Child, and Adolescent Health</i>
<i>RTSL</i>	<i>Resolve To Save Lives</i>
<i>WHO</i>	<i>World Health Organization</i>

About the Nigerian Academy of Science

The Nigerian Academy of Science (NAS) is the foremost independent scientific body in Nigeria which was established in 1977 and incorporated in 1986. NAS is uniquely positioned to bring scientific knowledge to bear on the policies/strategic direction of the country and is also dedicated to the development and advancement of science, technology, and innovation (STI) in Nigeria. The aims and objectives of the Academy are to promote the growth, acquisition, and dissemination of scientific knowledge, and to facilitate its use in solving problems of national interest. The Academy strives to do this by:

- Providing advice on specific problems of scientific or technological nature, presented to it by the government and its agencies, as well as private organizations
- Bringing to the attention of the government and its agencies problems of national interest that science and technology can help solve
- Establishing and maintaining the highest standards of scientific endeavours and achievements in Nigeria, through the publication of journals, organization of conferences, seminars, workshops, and symposia, recognition of outstanding contributions to science in Nigeria, and the development of a working relationship with other national and international scientific bodies and academies

As with national academies in other countries, NAS is a not-for-profit organization with a total membership (since inception) comprising 278 Fellows (who have distinguished themselves in their fields both locally and internationally), elected through a highly competitive process. Some of her members have served as vice-chancellors of universities, directors-general of government parastatals, and ministers in federal ministries. The Academy, given its clout, also has the ability to attract other experts from around the country and internationally when needed. NAS is Nigeria's national representative on such bodies as the International Science Council (ISC – the umbrella body for all science associations and unions) and the Inter-Academy Partnership (IAP – the umbrella body for all national science academies globally). The Academy is a member of the Executive Committees of IAP for Science, IAP for Policy, and IAP for Health and a founding member of the Network of African Science Academies (NASAC).

Introduction

Since the outbreak of the coronavirus disease (COVID-19) towards the end of 2019 in Wuhan, China, the disease has spread to virtually all countries of the world. The World Health Organization (WHO) declared the coronavirus outbreak as a Public Health Emergency of International Concern (PHEIC) on January 30, 2020, and later as a pandemic on March 11th, by which time it had spread to over 110 countries with over 118,000 cases¹

Given the severe public health and socioeconomic implications of the pandemic, there is need for research to provide effective ways to manage the disease in the short and long term. According to the WHO, experience with past epidemics has underscored the importance of research as an integral element of the response to any epidemic². Ultimately, outputs from such research endeavors need to be shared with relevant stakeholders in science, public health, and policymaking for societal application; and such outputs help to determine the most effective and efficient routes for delivering public health interventions.

The NAS, working with the Ghana Academy of Arts and Sciences (GAAS), Académie Nationale des Sciences et Techniques du Sénégal (ANSTS), Académie Nationale des Sciences, Arts et Lettres du Bénin (ANSALB), and Académie Nationale des Sciences du Burkina Faso, and with support from the the US National Academies of Science, Engineering, and Medicine (NASEM), undertook the 'Disseminating Evidence-Based Policy Briefs on COVID-19 in West Africa' project between July and October 2020. This project was aimed at disseminating the content of policy briefs/ reports on the COVID-19 pandemic. The policy briefs and reports are developed by Resolve To Save Lives (RTSL) consortium, as outputs of her research on the COVID-19 pandemic in Africa. The objective of this dissemination project was to engage stakeholders, through the West African national science academies, to discuss the key messages/policy recommendations contained in the RTSL policy briefs on COVID-19. This was carried out through four virtual dissemination events, with each event specifically aimed at discussing key messages from selected policy briefs.

During these events, experts (both from within the academies' memberships and beyond) discussed the implications of the key findings and recommendations from selected policy

¹ WHO Director-General's opening remarks at the media briefing on COVID-19 - 11 March 2020. Available at <https://www.who.int/dg/speeches/detail/who-director-general-s-opening-remarks-at-the-media-briefing-on-covid-19---11-march-2020>

² World Health Organization. An R&D Blueprint for Action to Prevent Epidemics. Plan of Action, May 2016. Available at https://www.who.int/blueprint/about/r_d_blueprint_plan_of_action.pdf

reports with relevant stakeholders. Topics discussed covered a range of relevant subjects including the history of NPIs usage in previous epidemics, risk communication in COVID-19 response, challenges in routine healthcare delivery during epidemics, applications of digital technologies in healthcare delivery, best practice measures, stakeholders' roles in addressing the current pandemic, and strengthening health systems in preparation for possible future epidemics.

Chapter 1 - Non-Pharmaceutical Interventions (NPIs) in COVID-19 Containment in Africa

Public Health and Social Measures in West Africa

Dr. Emmanuel Agogo – Country Representative (Nigeria), Resolve To Save Lives

Public health and social measures (PHSMs) for COVID-19 require adaptive behavioural changes on a massive scale, and over a long period of time. As a uniform approach to managing the pandemic would not suffice, governments have had to adapt control strategies to find the balance between political, social, economic, and health impacts. The Partnership for Evidence-based Response to COVID-19 (PERC) uses multidisciplinary analysis as a tool for decision-making. Data (social, economic, epidemiological, and population) from member states is used to help determine the acceptability, impact, and effectiveness of PHSMs for COVID-19. These data sources include country and regional briefs, reports, webinars, epidemiological and testing data, surveys, and ad-hoc government analyses. Decision-making is based on:

- Disease situation: Transmission and severity of COVID-19, taking into consideration testing capacity
- PHSM implementation and adherence: Access to the means to follow recommendations, as well as the motivation to do so; public perceptions of risk and personal agency
- Public health and health system capacity: Capacity to mobilize the public health system to conduct testing and contact tracing at the scale needed, protect healthcare workers from disease transmission, and increase the healthcare system's ability to meet the needs of infected patients
- Secondary burden of disease: Secondary impacts on the community, including livelihoods and economic burden, food security, access to essential health services, and social disruption.

Total Cases (Cumulative incidence per 100,000 population)	Total Deaths	Diagnostic Tests (Tests per confirmed case ratio)	Case-Fatality Rate
50,488 (25)	985	363,331 (7)	2.00%

Figure 1: Coronavirus disease dynamics in Nigeria

Source: <https://preventepidemics.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/09/09082020-nigeria.pdf>



Figure 2: PHSM implementation in Nigeria (March-August 2020)

Source: Africa CDC, Google Community Mobility Reports

The application of PHSMs helped slow the spread of COVID-19 in a number of West African countries. However, available data showed that adherence to restrictions on public gatherings was limited due to effects on economic activities. Governments can increase effectiveness of PHSMs by tailoring them to local conditions, and implementing relief measures to mitigate social and economic impacts.

Nationally aggregated datasets are unavailable for most health indicators. Data collection capacity should be improved as data is the key to implementing appropriate public health measures.

NPIs in COVID-19 Containment: The Evidence Base

Professor John Gyapong - Vice Chancellor, University of Health and Allied Sciences, Ghana

Overview of NPIs: NPIs are interventions used to reduce exposure of susceptible people to infection. As the name implies, they exclude the use of pharmaceuticals i.e. vaccines and drugs. The focus of NPIs is to:

- Reduce an individual person's risk for infection (by hand hygiene, wearing of face coverings)

- Reduce local spread by isolation of infected persons; monitoring and quarantine of exposed persons, and social distancing measures, such as cancellation of mass gatherings and closure of schools
- Limit international spread of the infection agent such as through travel restrictions, pre-travel test requirements, etc
- Communicate health risks to the public through public addresses and online information by the government and health organizations

History of NPIs: NPIs have traditionally been used for infection prevention and control. For instance, during the Spanish Flu of 1918, measures such as maritime and land quarantine, individual/family isolations in Australia, Madagascar, and Canada were used to prevent entry of the disease. Other measures such as the closure of schools, churches, and theatres in the United States proved to be effective. In the case of the Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) Epidemic of 2003, entry and departure screening of travellers using questionnaire and thermal scanning machines, enhanced contact tracing and social distancing measures, as well as infection prevention and control processes in health facilities were some of the control measures used. Also, the use of protective face masks reduced the odds of infection in Beijing and Hong Kong.

For the Avian Flu H1N1 pandemic of 2009, studies in Japan and the United States found that asking family members with influenza-like symptoms to stay home on paid leave was associated with a reduction in influenza infections. The avian flu pandemic disproportionately affected children. The 0-4-year-old age group had greater than twice the hospitalization rate (per 100,000) of other age groups, although deaths were highest among those aged 50-64 years. School re-opening had the potential to result in a surge of cases. School closure therefore could have been the reason for the substantial reduction in transmission in both Mexico and Canada (between 29% and 50% reduction).

During the Ebola crisis in 2014, contact screening, surveillance and testing, quarantine of contacts, travel restrictions, isolation of infected persons, lockdowns, border closures, closures of schools, markets and workplaces, curfews, as well as disinfection and improved sanitation were used to control the virus across the West African countries of Guinea, Liberia, Nigeria, and Sierra Leone³.

³ Vital Strategies: Implementation of Non-Pharmaceutical Interventions: Evidence Base and Application To The African Context CORONAVIRUS — APRIL 2020

NPIs used for COVID-19 in West Africa

- Hand-washing; though access to water, soap and receptacles, as well as compliance have presented a challenge
- Face masks: Accessibility was a great challenge at the beginning, but was addressed in part with the use of cloth masks. Compliance has also been a great challenge
- Periodic updates and risk communication from governments and health agencies
- Social distancing and movement restrictions: Lockdowns were imposed in several countries. The effect of lockdowns on the economy was great, and was arguably the most uncomfortable intervention for governments and individuals
- Travel restrictions: Border closures were also implemented as an intervention to reduce the importation of the virus. The challenges with this culminated in price hikes and shortages of goods although the borders were not closed to cargo.

Lessons learnt

- NPIs are important pandemic control strategies but shouldn't be a one-size-fit-all approach (context-specific NPIs is vital)
- NPIs are relatively cheaper and cost-effective pandemic response options particularly for resource poor countries
- Preparedness and early response to pandemics yield higher dividends at lower cost than "fire-fighting" and late responses
- Effective blend of multiple NPIs are more likely to yield better outcomes than piecemeal single interventions
- Concurrent community and health facility-based interventions deliver better results in pandemic prevention and control
- Effective communication and taking advantage of community resources promotes trust in health interventions

In conclusion, pandemics are unpredictable. Therefore, health systems preparedness is the surest way for containment. The use of NPIs in the absence of vaccines/therapeutics will reduce the disease impact. Historical lessons in respect of NPIs should guide Africa in future pandemics to mitigate the impacts on lives and livelihoods. NPIs are likely to produce better outcomes when guided by effective community/stakeholder engagement and risk communication.

NPIs in the West African Context

Professor Samuel Ayodele Jegede - Department of Sociology, University of Ibadan, Nigeria

In the absence of effective and safe vaccines to protect against the associated risks of COVID-19, non-pharmaceutical interventions became the most effective public/community response. Social norms are core determinants of human behavioural response to disease and health.

It has been found that social context, community norms, and the perceived probability of expected outcomes influence the adoption and practice of NPIs. Sociocultural issues to be considered include taboos and stigma associated with infectious diseases, which in turn influence the level of care and support given to an infected person. The table below shows some responses to the COVID pandemic, at individual, household, and community levels, a result of a survey conducted in the Ibadan Metropolis, Oyo State, Nigeria.

Table 1: Responses to the COVID-19 pandemic in Ibadan, Nigeria

	Actions	Description
INDIVIDUAL	Self-isolation	Voluntary self-isolation
	Religion	• Prayer • Faith • Rituals/sacrifices
	Compliance with control measures	• Facemask • Use of hand sanitizers • Regular hand washing
	Personal hygiene	• Regular washing of hands and face with alcohol • Regular bathing
HOUSEHOLD	Food	Fortify food intake with medicinal ingredients
	Home remedies	• Steaming • Consumption of preventive substances
COMMUNITY	Neighbourhood watch	• Monitor neighbourhood gates • Observe returnees/visitors condition • Enforce self-isolation and quarantine
	Social distancing	• Enforce compliance with social distancing measures • Remind people of their obligation to comply
	Ban on public gatherings	Closure of markets, worship places, and communal playgrounds

	Risk communication	Information sharing: • Person-to-person • Networks • Social media – WhatsApp, Facebook, etc
--	--------------------	---

In summary, no singular approach applies to everyone. The methods used in any given society are dependent on public perception, social norms and beliefs, and the governance/leadership structure.

Risk Communication in COVID-19 Response

Professor Papa Salif Sow - Infectious Diseases Physician, University of Dakar

Building trust in governments during epidemics: Communication plays a critical role in enhancing the adoption of NPIs. Risk communication, at each phase, should be tailored to ensure public understanding, as well as the acceptance of, and adherence to, the NPIs being implemented. It is also important to involve community leaders (religious and social), and people of all genders and age groups, from the early stages, for meaningful and sustained community engagement. It is the government's responsibility to provide adequate knowledge about the disease, address informational gaps, and motivate adherence. Communication should use clear language, be age-appropriate (also targeting children), and be available in multiple local languages, so as to include those with low or no literacy. Badly judged communication approaches can result in members of the community becoming complacent, panicky, or otherwise acting in unhelpful ways.

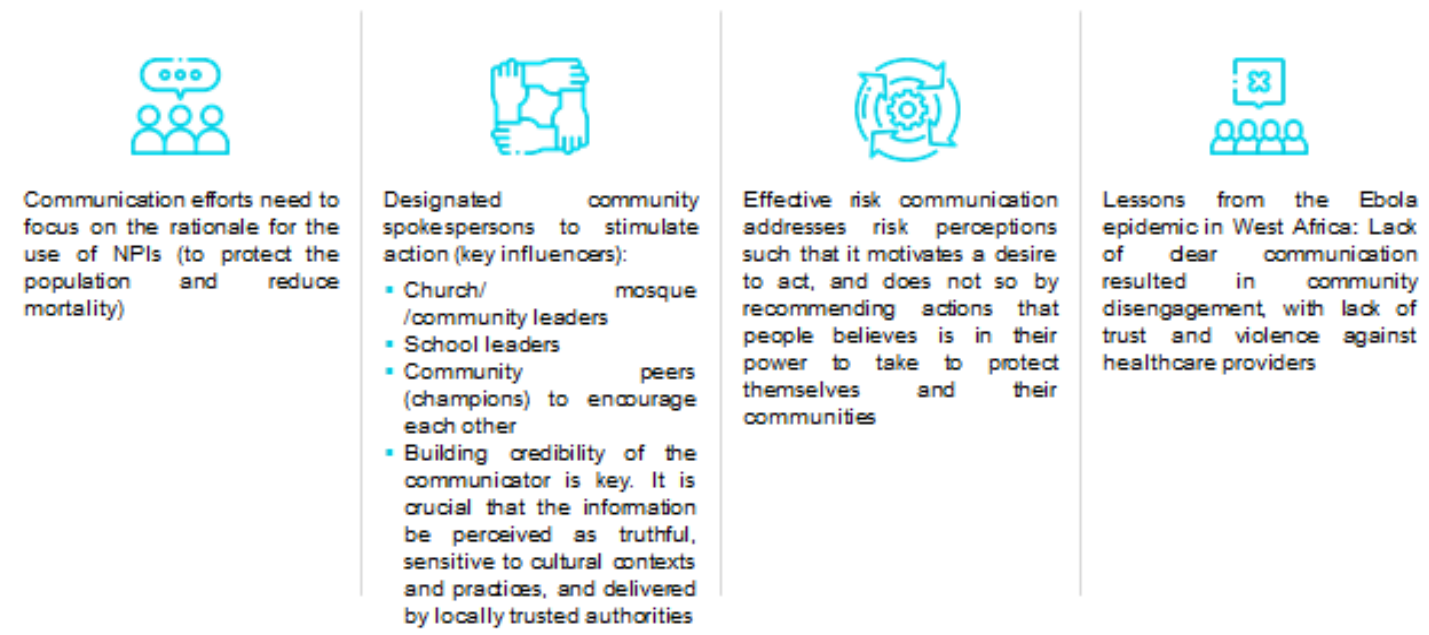


Figure 3: Effective risk communication during epidemics

Strict measures such as lockdowns, curfews, and border closures have negative socioeconomic impacts on people and communities. To mitigate these effects, it is important for governments to provide economic and social support, including the provision of basic and daily needs. These could be in the form of:

- Provision of rations of food by governments and international agencies, e.g. World Food Programme
- Funding for low paid workers, those who would not be paid if away from work, self-employed, casual employees, those who are unable to work from home
- Providing face masks, hand sanitizers, etc for those who cannot afford them
- Supporting vulnerable families for continuing education during school closures (such as by access to computers, free internet connection at home)

Controlling health misinformation: Social media platforms, unlike broadcast media (TV, radio) and print media (newspapers, magazines) remain largely unregulated. As such, they could be major disseminators of false information during pandemics. When used as an information source, social media may present a health risk for communities; for example, spreading conspiracy theories which distort the truth, and act to inhibit health-protective behaviours. In a joint statement by the WHO and other international agencies, governments were urged to take stronger actions to promote the timely dissemination of science-based

information and prevent the spread of false information, while respecting freedom of expression. According to the WHO, misinformation and disinformation put health and lives at risk, and undermine trust in science, in institutions, and in health systems⁴.

Ethical and legal considerations in implementing NPIs: Important questions have arisen about the ethics and legal authority to restrict individual rights in times of public health emergencies, especially as coercive measures are likely to be abused by governments and security bodies, and erode public trust in the government. Before an action is implemented, public health authorities should ascertain that:

- The intervention is likely to be effective
- The action is proportional to the threat of the disease
- The measure is provided for and carried out in accordance with law
- The intervention is necessary for effective control of the disease
- It is in the interest of a legitimate objective of general concern (public health safety)
- The intervention can be implemented with the least infringement on individual liberties

Using these principles, interventions should then be applied in a transparent and non-discriminatory manner, respecting the dignity, human rights, and fundamental freedoms of persons. Recommended measures should be based on scientific evidence and not drafted or imposed in an arbitrary or discriminatory manner. In addition, governments must work to meet basic needs including food, medical, and psychological support for communities during the implementation of NPIs, in order to cushion their socioeconomic impacts.

Additionally, there should be a monitoring and evaluation plan in place. This will help determine whether to tighten or relax restrictions depending on epidemiological trajectories.

⁴ <https://www.who.int/news/item/23-09-2020-covid-19-pandemic-countries-urged-to-take-stronger-action-to-stop-spread-of-harmful-information>

Participants Reflections

- Emergency preparedness by all governments is key, and an important aspect of this should be community engagement and enlightenment
- Provision of basic water and sanitation infrastructure would go a long way in ensuring compliance to NPI measures, controlling the spread of the coronavirus, as well as other communicable diseases
- For there to be any effective compliance to NPIs and other control measures in Africa, governments need to address the poverty pandemic, as small businesses have been found to be most impacted by the pandemic
- Continuous monitoring and analysis of the barriers to adherence to NPI measures should inform strategies to increase public adherence
- Re-opening society and lifting travel restrictions introduces a potential risk of resurgence. Therefore, new entry requirements such as mandatory testing and quarantine are to be put in place to mitigate risks. These will most likely prevent resurgence of new cases
- An effective blend of multiple NPIs is more likely to yield better outcomes than single interventions

Chapter 2 - Essential Health Services amid COVID-19 and Future Epidemics

Maintaining Essential Health Services amid COVID-19

Professor Akin Osibogun – Professor of Public Health, College of Medicine, University of Lagos

As the COVID-19 pandemic broke out, patients avoided visiting health facilities so as to limit the chances of exposure to the virus, and some health centres/workers also shut down routine services for fear of contracting the virus. Community lockdown measures also restricted people's movement and created public transportation challenges. Also, airport and border closures affected the supply of drugs and other health supplies. A lot of resources (human, facility, infrastructure, financial, etc) had to be shifted from regular health services to the COVID response. These factors affected service delivery and uptake of health services. The Lagos State government responded to this situation by providing extra-budgetary funds to all public health facilities to enable them provide free health services to vulnerable members of society.

Globally, the most frequently disrupted services⁵ included:

- Routine immunization services – outreach services (70%) and facility-based services (61%)
- Diagnosis and treatment of non-communicable diseases (69%)
- Family planning and contraception (68%)
- Treatment for mental health disorders (61%)
- Antenatal care (56%)
- Cancer diagnosis and treatment (55%)

Response strategies to disruptions in healthcare delivery include:

- Sorting of patients with referral of suspected cases of COVID-19 to dedicated centres
- Adoption of telemedicine and remote consulting
- Targeted subsidies to ensure access to health services by vulnerable population groups.

⁵ <https://www.who.int/news/item/31-08-2020-in-who-global-pulse-survey-90-of-countries-report-disruptions-to-essential-health-services-since-covid-19-pandemic>

With just 13% of the world's population, sub-Saharan Africa accounts for 24% of the global burden of disease (before COVID-19), 3% of global health workforce, and only 1% of global health expenditure⁶. The COVID-19 outbreak therefore compounded an already existing challenge of under-funding and under-staffing of sub-Saharan Africa's health sector. Fortunately, Africa experienced a relatively mild virulence of the COVID-19 virus and clinical presentation of the disease.

Health service delivery, especially for routine services and non-communicable diseases, need to be more resilient, or else Africa may suffer even higher mortalities from non-COVID diseases/health challenges.

Strengthening Health Systems in West Africa amid COVID-19: Investing for the Future

Dr. Blami Dao – Technical Director, West and Central Africa, JHPIEGO

Using the WHO health system building blocks⁷ as a benchmark, it is important to consider how the health systems in West Africa have impacted on the COVID-19 response. These blocks include *governance and leadership, service delivery, health workforce, health management information system, medical products, vaccines and technologies, and financing*.

⁶ The World Health Report (2006). Why the workforce is important. <https://www.who.int/whr/2006/overview/en/>

⁷ https://www.who.int/healthinfo/systems/WHO_MBHSS_2010_full_web.pdf

Governance and Leadership	Service Delivery	Health Workforce	Health Management Information System (HMIS)	Medical products, Vaccines and Technologies	Health Financing
• Limited country preparedness for disease outbreak • Challenges with a multi-sector approach at country level • Weak national modelling capacity to allow proper planning of interventions • Slow development and implementation of mitigation plans • Decisions are sometimes politically motivated rather than based on public health evidence • Difficult coordination of donors and partners at both country and regional levels	• Multiplicity of service delivery guidelines creating confusion among healthcare workers • Fear of providers and patients of getting infected • Decrease in access and utilization of essential health services particularly RMNCAH services	• Shortage of qualified healthcare workers (HCW) in many West African countries, which is exacerbated by quarantining of exposed HCW, as well as sick HCW • Insufficient training of health workforce in infection prevention and control • Non availability of skilled personnel for managing moderately to severe COVID 19 patients, i.e. lack of allied healthcare providers such as respiratory therapists • Lack of training of frontline health workers in pandemic management	• Development of various data collection tools leading to a parallel HMIS making it difficult to monitor impact on other service delivery indicators • In many settings paper based systems are the norm with the inability to provide real time data for responding to the changing epidemic in a prompt manner • Limited openness about COVID-19 data in some countries	• Shortage of COVID testing kits, personal protective equipment (PPE) and ventilators right from the beginning of the pandemic • Limited laboratory capacity (trained staff and equipment) for COVID-19 testing • Dependence on external sources for drugs, supplies and equipment • Lack of investment in local research institutes to support development of vaccines or drugs for COVID-19 • Reluctance and rumours vis-à-vis COVID-19 vaccines and vaccination	• Limited domestic funding for COVID-19 response. Majority of funding was from multilateral organizations and lending • Donor funding was often redirected from other programs

Figure 4: Challenges of the West African health system

In the light of these prevailing challenges, epidemiological modelling predicted a worst-case scenario for Africa's weak health systems. However, Africa seems to have escaped the 'doomsday' prediction. It is therefore imperative for West Africa to use the COVID-19 pandemic as an opportunity to build resilient health systems. Again, using the WHO building blocks, some recommendations for building a more efficient health system are highlighted below.

Leadership and governance: There should be high-level political commitment. Ministries of Health at all levels are to take responsibility for fighting global health threats through a better coordination of local, regional, and international partners. The government should also strengthen the capacity and leadership of emergency/pandemic response units through relevant trainings and adequate funding. Also, there should be a well-coordinated multi-sectoral approach to health.

Service delivery: Health service providers and other stakeholders should tap into the opportunity of digital platforms, as access to mobile technology expands in the sub-region.

The government should also expand the role of community health workers to reach rural and marginalized areas.

Health workforce: The West Africa Health Organization (WAHO) harmonized health professionals training curricula should allow for sharing human resources within the sub-region through the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) Emergencies Workforce Database. Governments should also integrate pandemic response and management into pre-service education for healthcare workers and intensify training on key aspects of epidemic management such as infection prevention and control, risk communication and community engagement, contact tracing, healthcare workers' protection and mental health, as well as case management.

Health Management Information System: West African governments should operationalize the ECOWAS Regional Centre for Surveillance and Disease Control, and ensure the capacity to have integrated databases for cross-border decision-making

Medical products, vaccines and technologies: West African countries should establish a mechanism of bulk purchasing for health commodities and equipment, develop quality local pharmaceutical capacity, while also ensuring sustained access to quality vaccines and essential medicines through international partners. Governments, industry and other stakeholders should also develop local production and distribution of PPEs, sanitizers, and other health supplies.

Health financing: The Abuja 2000 commitment for allocating 15% of national budget to the health sector should be implemented. The private sector should be involved in the funding and management of the health sector.

In conclusion, West African countries should collectively strengthen their health systems to address health priorities during and beyond pandemics. This encompasses actual implementation and regular evaluation of policies and programs put in place by ECOWAS through the WAHO in light of current realities.

Monitoring Essential Health Services in a Public Health Emergency: the Place of Health Data

Dr. Franklin Asiedu-Bekoe – Head, Disease Surveillance Unit, Ghana Health Service

Essential health services include the management of emergency health conditions that require time-sensitive interventions, maternal and new-born health, caring for young children and elderly people, management of non-communicable diseases like diabetes and hypertension, disease prevention services such as immunizations, auxiliary services (for

example basic diagnostic imaging, laboratory, and blood bank services) etc. Provision of these essential services has been severely impacted by the breakout of COVID-19. Health systems around the world are being challenged by an increasing demand for the care of people with COVID-19, limitations on movement that disrupt the delivery of health care for all conditions, limited human resources, closure of health facilities due to staff infection/isolation, and contamination of in-patient wards, resulting in fewer available health facilities. These challenges are worsened by fear and stigma associated with the disease, as well as misinformation.

Due to reduced access to essential health services and, in some cases, failure to access needed care for pre-existing conditions due to fear of COVID-19 infection, there have been acute exacerbations of chronic conditions, and increase in indirect mortality from preventable and treatable conditions. Some indicators for monitoring the continuity of essential health services during COVID-19 include:

- Total number of outpatient attendance
- Total number of hospital discharges, including deaths (related and unrelated to COVID-19)
- Number of facility births
- Number of maternal deaths
- Number of children younger than 1 year receiving their third dose of diphtheria-pertussis-tetanus (DPT3) or their first dose of measles vaccine
- Number of new and relapse tuberculosis cases
- Percentage of people living with Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) currently receiving antiretroviral therapy

These essential services indicators can be analysed using measurements, for instance, the number of clinic visits for specific conditions, or the number of new and relapsed cases of tuberculosis, or the incidence of a specific condition per 10,000 outpatient or clinic patients. Trends in health data can also be compared; for example, comparing current year rates of malaria cases to the previous three to five years or, where data is limited, to the previous year.

Figure 5 shows trends observed from routine data collected between 2016 and 2020 (January-June) by Ghana's health system. There was a sharp decrease in visits to the outpatient department in 2020, compared to previous years. An increase in the total number of

deaths is shown in Figure 6. A decrease in malaria admissions is seen in Figure 7, probably caused by patients' fear of visiting health facilities.

OPD Per Capita (2016-2020)

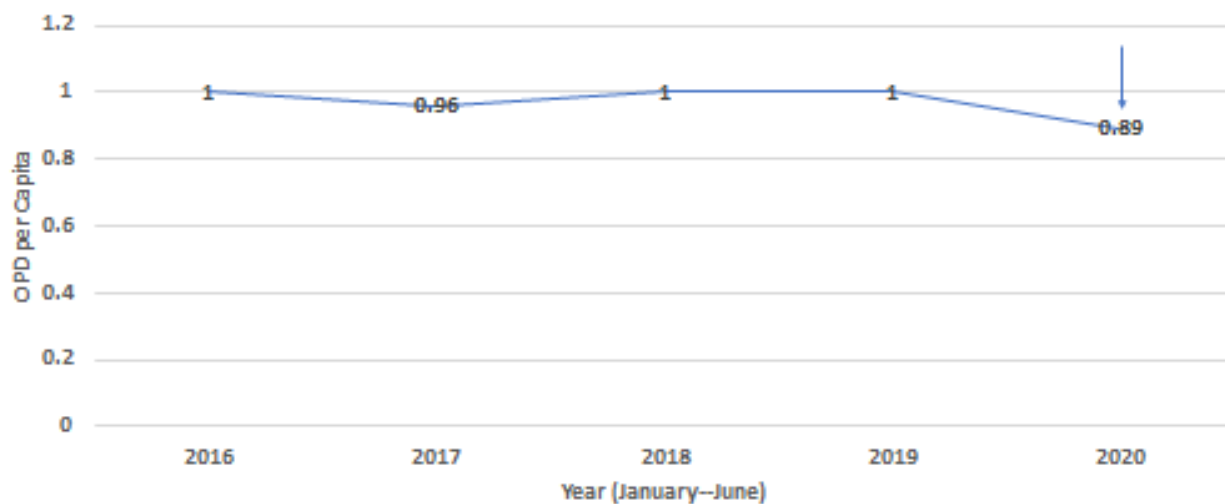


Figure 5: Number of out-patients per capita

Total Number of Deaths

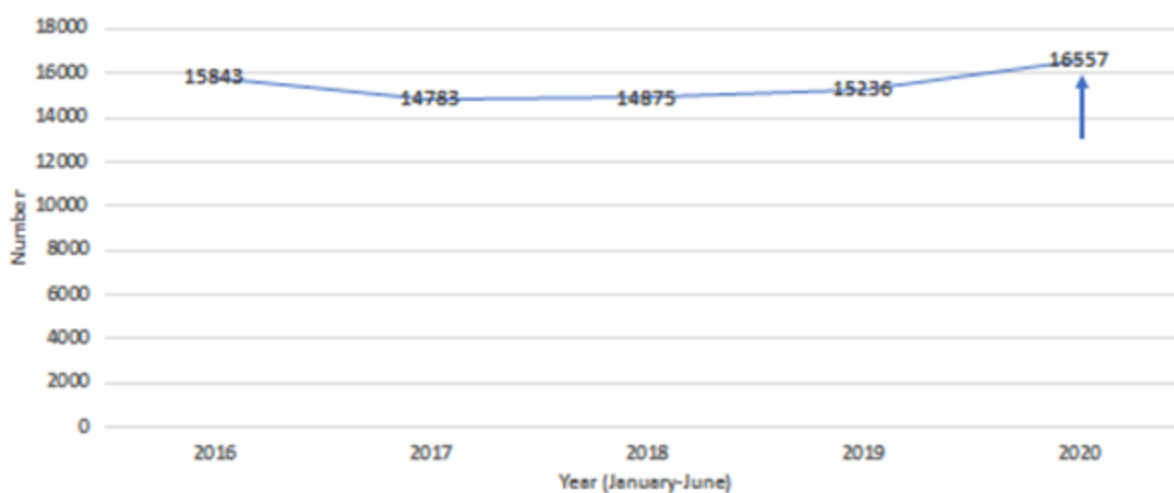


Figure 6: Number of recorded deaths

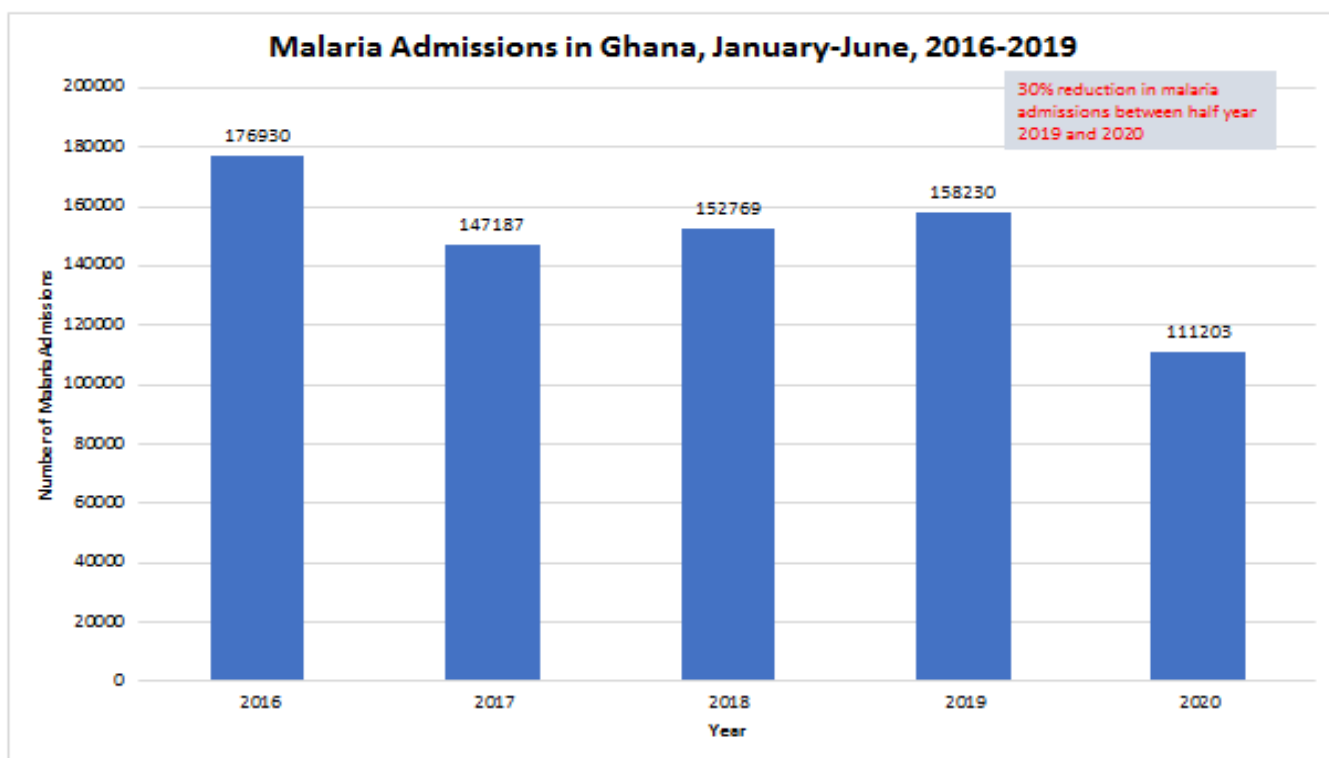


Figure 7: Number of malaria admissions

Source (Figures 5-7): Ghana Health Service

Recommendations and Key Discussion Comments

- Measures should be put in place to ensure that essential health services are maintained as much as feasible during epidemics. Provision of health services can be adjusted based on available resources.
- Capacity strengthening for frontline healthcare workers in pandemic management, as well as infection prevention and control, would be useful towards preparing for future pandemics, and in healthcare delivery in general
- Data collection systems are necessary to investigate the cause and level of disruptions to health services
- There should be clear communication to assure the public about the continuity of essential services and the measures put in place to ensure safety of patients in order to allay their fears

- It is important to focus on disease conditions where signs and symptoms overlap that of COVID-19, for early detection, to increase self-surveillance, and reduce the spread of the virus
- There should be continuous stakeholder engagement to address bottle necks, as well as resource mobilization to ensure that limited public and private sector resources provide the maximum benefit for populations
- Building resilient health systems requires a multi-sectoral approach that should cut across policymakers, health-workers, and governance roles
- A roadmap should be created for progressive reduction and restoration of services as pressure on the health system surges and recedes
- Government and health providers should anticipate restoring suspended services based on changing needs as public health measures are gradually eased and address any new barriers to access
- Government and healthcare providers should ensure the continuity of risk reduction and mitigation measures for COVID-19 transmission, and strengthen Infection Prevention and Control (IPC) measures in health service delivery

Chapter 3 - Technology for Healthcare during and Beyond COVID-19

Background and Scope of Telemedicine

Professor Akinyinka Omigbodun FAS – College of Medicine, University College Hospital, University of Ibadan

Telemedicine is the transmission of health information from a person at one location to another person at another location, using electronic communication channels. The earlier form of telemedicine involved a healthcare provider with a patient in one location, exchanging information with a more highly-skilled health worker at a different location, to improve the quality of care the patient receives. It could also take the form of a patient with a health problem communicating directly with a healthcare provider via an electronic medium (mConsulting) to receive care. Both telemedicine and mConsulting now form part of the general field of *Digital Health/eHealth*, one of the most rapidly developing branches of healthcare delivery. Acceptance and utilization of eHealth has been fast-tracked by the COVID-19 pandemic, and these new developments are likely to be further expanded to create a new normal.



Figure 8: Word cloud showing perception of mConsulting in Nigeria⁸

⁸ Omigbodun A, Owoaje E, Fayehun O, Ajisola M, Harris B, Bolaji S, Popoola O, and Griffiths F. Perception by Service Providers and Policy-Makers of the Impact of Mobile-Phone Consultations on Nigeria's Health System, 2020

Tools for telemedicine include mobile phones, smartphones, tablets, and computers. The modes of communication include voice conversations, text messaging, exchange of graphics/photos/teleradiology, remote monitoring of attached devices, two-way video conversations, and use of specialized apps. mConsulting systems can be used for drug prescriptions, patient record keeping, patient follow-up and referrals to specialists, and providing information on health facilities⁹.

Challenges to the practice of telemedicine include:

- Poor awareness of available services
- Abuse of health-seeking behaviour, quackery, and misdiagnosis on the part of healthcare providers
- Expensive technology for digital health platforms and high cost of data access
- Poor internet connectivity and erratic mobile telephone networks
- Unstable power supply
- Problem of acceptability in rural areas
- Patients' lack of skills in using digital health platforms
- Challenges in receiving/making payment for services received
- Poor integration of care
- Poor data and information sharing systems for effective continuity of care
- Protracted or rapidly advancing illnesses may be difficult to manage using digital platforms
- Privacy concerns

These challenges can be resolved by putting in place quality assurance systems for certifying physicians, physician-patient consultation review, patient-physician satisfaction ratings, facility inspection, requesting a second opinion from other physicians, and cyber-security measures.

⁹ Fayehun F, Omigbodun A, and Owoaje ET. Mobile technology can improve access to healthcare in Nigeria – if it's regulated (2020) <https://theconversation.com/mobile-technology-can-improve-access-to-healthcare-in-nigeria-if-its-regulated-137182>

In conclusion, telemedicine has gradually established itself as a major platform for health care delivery, a role whose importance has been accelerated by the COVID-19 pandemic. Major technological advances in ICT (information and communications technology) now make it cost-effective to do video consultations for a variety of ailments, a scenario that was unthinkable as recently as a decade ago. Consultations via mobile devices (mConsulting) is becoming more accessible, even to those in disadvantaged circumstances such as those dwelling in slums and remote rural settlements¹⁰. It will soon be a key element in health systems globally. When combined with access to complementary diagnostic tools (laboratories, imaging etc), a large proportion of healthcare needs can now be addressed without face-to-face interactions with primary healthcare providers. However, there is an urgent need to strengthen regulatory frameworks for the practice and delivery of health services, to ensure that quality of care is assured, and that the rights of both the care providers and the care receivers are better protected.

Telemedicine in West Africa: Regulatory and Legal Frameworks

Professor David Ofori-Adjei FGA – Professor of Medicine & Therapeutics; and Clinical Pharmacology, University of Ghana Medical School

All over the world, there are established standards and ethics by which healthcare providers are expected to operate. These standards should not change irrespective of the medium of communication with patients. The use of telemedicine creates new situations that still require the application of established professional principles of privacy, confidentiality, and security of patient information. Also, there should be appropriate record keeping, and patient follow-up.

Regulatory framework: Existing regulatory frameworks are in the form of professional health bodies e.g. Medical and Dental Council, Allied Health Professionals Council, Traditional Medicine Practice Council; health policies and legislations; ministries of health; health facilities regulatory agencies; licensing of healthcare professionals, and disciplinary measures for erring professionals.

¹⁰ Griffiths F, Watkins JA, Huxley C, Harris B, Cave J, Pemba S, Chipwaza B, Lilford R, Ajisola M, Arvanitis TN, Bakibinga P, Billah M, Choudhury N, Davies D, Fayehun O, Kabaria C, Iqbal R, Omigbodun A, Owoaje E, Rahman O, Sartori J, Sayani S, Tabani K, Yusuf R, Sturt J. Mobile consulting (mConsulting) and its potential for providing access to quality healthcare for populations living in low-resource settings of low- and middle-income countries. *Digital Health*, 2020, 6: doi.org/10.1177/2055207620919594

Legal framework: The National Constitution of Ghana for example provides that there should be ethical and legal justification for disclosure of personal information. It states in Section 18 (2):

No person shall be subjected to interference with the privacy of his home, property, correspondence or communication except in accordance with law and as may be necessary in a free and democratic society for public safety or the economic well-being of the country, for the protection of health or morals, for the prevention of disorder or crime or for the protection of the rights or freedoms of others.

Other countries also have similar frameworks that protect patients' medical information.

Best practice measures and considerations for telemedicine: A WHO survey reported that 69% of countries reported a disruption of health services during the COVID-19 pandemic. Telemedicine offers a solution to limited access to health services and some other health delivery inefficiencies. Some existing measures that facilitate telemedicine in Ghana include the use of drones for the delivery of health supplies, an electronic personal identification, which is linked to the National Health Insurance Service and electronic health records. Also, some internet service providers offer health insurance packages on their mobile money service. Best practice examples based on existing telemedicine implementation should be well-planned and deployed, taking local conditions into account. Some recommendations are as follows:

1. Existing laws, regulations, policies, strategies etc. require review to integrate telemedicine practice.
2. The government should create an implementation committee (which could be part of an already existing governance structure) that is multi-disciplinary with a charge to develop, implement, and regulate the use of telemedicine.
3. Definite time-bound goals should be set to improve patient care, increase access to specialists, ensure end-to-end privacy and security, and recommend appropriate telemedicine platforms for patients at all socioeconomic levels.
4. Financing arrangements, including public-private partnerships, grants, platforms for payment for services, and government investments, are required.
5. Public-private sector collaborations should be encouraged, as well as knowledge-sharing platforms. Integration of service platforms – clinical, laboratory, imaging – should also be encouraged.
6. Quality and safety concerns should be addressed by adhering to clinical policies, guidelines, and protocols.

7. Community support, and inclusion of both urban and rural dwellers in implementation plans are necessary.
8. Training is crucial and must cover technical and professional aspects, particularly good communication to clients.
9. Consultations and financial transactions should be documented, and patient confidentiality should be assured. Access to records and use of data should be clearly defined (assuring anonymity where necessary).
10. Regular facility inspections to determine physical layout, wireless capability, internet connectivity, security (physical and electronic), and availability of data backups/disaster recovery plan should be conducted.

Going forward, West African countries need to recognize their current limitations in terms of technology and data security concerns. Policies should address these limitations, towards a more efficient delivery of digital healthcare. Political commitment is also necessary for allocation of funds.

Increasing Access to Telemedicine

Dr. Olajide Adebola – Society for Telemedicine and E-health, Nigeria

Currently, infrastructural capability for telemedicine across West African countries remains weak. However, factors which may drive telemedicine adoption in West Africa include:

- Growth in mobile telephone usage: At the end of 2018, there were 185 million unique mobile subscribers in West Africa¹¹. According to the report, future growth will largely be driven by young consumers owning a mobile phone for the first time; as more than 40% of the sub-region's population are below 18 years old
- Increase in e-commerce and mobile banking
- Shortage of human resources for health
- COVID-19 Pandemic
- Teleconferencing and use of collaboration apps for virtual meetings

¹¹ GSMA (2018). The Mobile Economy of West Africa

Challenges to the use of telemedicine include self-limiting cultural beliefs, lack of well-implemented policies and legislations on telemedicine, health insurance limitations, and infrastructural deficits¹². To increase access to telemedicine, there is a need for appropriate legal and regulatory mechanisms, integration in national/private health insurance platforms, and continuous stakeholder engagement. Stakeholders include industry, government, consumers, healthcare providers, academic/research bodies, accreditation bodies and non-governmental organizations (NGOs).

Market	Description	Implications for planning
Fully regulated	Government drives the development and adoption of eHealth from a central mandate. eHealth is generally implemented through large-scale national or state programmes and projects.	• Government is responsible for developing the national eHealth vision. • Limited stakeholder consultation is conducted on the current eHealth environment and feedback on the national vision; the content of the plan is primarily driven by the government.
Guided market	Government provides central coordination of eHealth in areas of national significance. There is greater flexibility and reduced central control and regulation in areas where the health sector and market are best positioned to play a role in developing the eHealth environment.	• Government is responsible for leading and managing the development of the national eHealth vision. • Government works with stakeholders to develop the strategic context, vision and supporting recommendations. Stakeholders may provide subject matter expertise on the current and future eHealth environment. • Content of the plan is driven by both the government and important multi-sector stakeholders.
Free market	Government provides no central authority or governance over the development of the national eHealth environment. There is heavy reliance on external parties (such as customers, care providers, and suppliers) to cooperate and collaborate with each other to develop the national eHealth environment.	• Government facilitates the process by which stakeholders are brought together to develop the national eHealth vision. • Government does not provide significant input or content, but may play a facilitating and advisory role to assist in the development of a national eHealth vision, which different stakeholders will endorse.

Figure 9: Government roles towards achieving increased access to telemedicine¹³

A national enabling environment is a pre-requisite to tap into the potential technological advances that telemedicine brings to healthcare delivery.

¹² Okereafor K., Adebola O., Djehaiche R., Exploring The Potentials Of Telemedicine And Other Non-contact Electronic Health Technologies In Controlling The Spread Of The Novel Coronavirus Disease (Covid-19). International Journal in IT & Engineering (IJITE), Volume 8, ISSUE 4, April 2020, ISSN: 2321-1776. Available at <http://ijmr.net.in>

¹³ WHO /ITU National eHealth Strategy Toolkit

Recommendations and Key Discussion Comments

- As the practice of telemedicine begins to proliferate in the face of the COVID-19 pandemic, the government and other stakeholders, such as NAS, need to take responsibility for necessary infrastructure setup, as well as quality assurance and control measures
- The government also has to take steps to minimize challenges associated with the practice of telemedicine such as power supply, illiteracy, and access to rural dwellers
- Care continuity has been identified as one of the key challenges associated with telemedicine. This is due to limited or lack of access to medical records from a patient's primary care provider, to other health providers. Information sharing should therefore be encouraged across healthcare practitioners
- People would be more likely to embrace telemedicine if it is relatively cheaper than physical contact and when the health practitioner is accessible. Relevant stakeholders should therefore take steps to ensure that an enabling environment is created to make telemedicine attractive to potential users

Chapter 4 - COVID-19: Towards a New Normal

Defining the New Normal

Professor Richard Adegbola FAS – Consultant, Nigerian Institute for Medical Research

COVID-19 is a pandemic of uncertain duration. In the new normal, new habits of avoiding crowds, social and physical distancing, hand washing and the use of sanitizers, as well as the wearing of face masks need to be learned and practiced.

In preparing for the next pandemic, there are important realities to be considered:

- The whole world is looking to the science and medical fields for solutions to the pandemic
- As the years go by, disease outbreaks will be more frequent than ever, because humans are interacting with nature at an unprecedented and unhealthy rate. Checks have to be put in place for more responsible use of nature and its resources
- Humans need to embrace and explore symbiosis as a way forward for interacting with microbes and other organisms
- Research alone won't be enough to solve all science-oriented problems. Technology and other fields, more than ever, have major roles to play in keeping the world safe. A multidisciplinary approach to problem solving, and building partnerships in Africa is needed
- Contributions are needed from Africa in the fight against COVID-19. Africa needs to explore local ways to solving global problems instead of a 'cut and paste' approach

Recommendations and Key Discussion Comments

- African governments must ensure compliance to public health and social measures to prevent a second wave of the COVID pandemic
- Risk communication should be tailored to particular society contexts, to ensure understanding and adherence to control measures. The government also needs to control the spread of myths and misinformation about COVID-19, especially in the area of vaccinations

Appendix

Participants list (combined for all four webinars)

S/N	NAME	ORGANIZATION	COUNTRY
1	Abdulhameed Jimoh	Federal University of Agriculture, Makurdi	Nigeria
2	Abi Abraham	draabraham@yahoo.co.uk	Nigeria
3	Abidemi Akindele	University of Lagos	Nigeria
4	Abolaji Olagunju	University of Ibadan	Nigeria
5	Abubakar Sambo FAS	Nigerian Academy of Science	Nigeria
6	Adams Itodo	Federal University of Agriculture Makurdi	Nigeria
7	Adebayo Adeyemi FAS	Nigerian Academy of Science	Nigeria
8	Adebisi Balogun		Nigeria
9	Adedayo Oyebanji	Joseph Ayo Babalola University	Nigeria
10	Adegbegi Ademuyiwa	Rufus Giwa Polytechnic	Nigeria
11	Adegboyega Akintola	Lagos State Primary Health Care Board	Nigeria
12	Adeniyi Oyinloye	Osun State College of Technology	Nigeria
13	Adesoji Ogunsakin	Federal University Oye Ekiti	Nigeria
14	Adeyemi Adelabu	University College Hospital	Nigeria
15	Adeyinka Falusi FAS	Sickle Cell Hope Alive Foundation(SCHAF)	Nigeria
16	Ahmed Bawah	University of Health Sciences	Ghana
17	Akinyinka Omigbodun FAS	Nigerian Academy of Science	Nigeria
18	Alain Joseph Sissao	Académie Nationale des Arts et des Lettres (ANSAL-BF)	Burkina Faso
19	Albert Amoah	Ghana Academy of Arts and Sciences	Ghana
20	Alexis Bokossa	Ministry of Health	Benin
21	Alida Génia Oussou	Unité de Recherche en Microbiologie Appliqué et	Benin

		Pharmacologie des Substances Naturelles (URMAPHA)	
22	Amel Hamza-Chaffai	Université de Sfax/Académie Tunisienne des Sciences	Tunisia
23	Angie Olanipekun	The Nigerian Academy of Science	Nigeria
24	Anny Ingrid Afaton	URMAPHA	Benin
25	Aremu Adegoke	University of Ibadan	Nigeria
26	Arielle Imelda Kounou	URMAPHA	Benin
27	Arnaud Soha	URMAPHA/EPAC	Benin
28	Babajide Alo FAS	University of Lagos	Nigeria
29	Babatunde Ogunnowo	College of Medicine of the University of Lagos	Nigeria
30	Babs Oyeneyin FAS	I-Flow Holdings Ltd	United States of America
31	Bawa Boya	Laboratoire de Biologie et de Typage Moléculaire en Microbiologie	Benin
32	Bayo Onajole	Lagos University Teaching Hospital	Nigeria
33	Bertram Nwoke FAS	Imo State University	Nigeria
34	Bilqis Alatishe-Muhammad	University of Ibadan Teaching Hospital	Nigeria
35	Blami Dao	JHPIEGO	Burkina Faso
36	Blessing Onyema	Nigerian Academy of Science	Nigeria
37	Brenda Isikekpei	Lagos University Teaching Hospital	
38	Brice Sinsin	University of Abomey-Calavi	Benin
39	Bunmi Elusiyan	Academia	Nigeria
40	Caroline Mbochi	Academia	Nigeria
41	Cecilia Igwilo	University of Lagos	Nigeria
42	Chidunga Ohazurike	Lagos University Teaching Hospital	Nigeria
43	Chika Anna Idaguko	Edo University Iyamho	Nigeria
44	Chinedum Babalola FAS	Chrisland University	Nigeria

45	Chinwe Ochu	Nigeria Centre for Disease Control	Nigeria
46	Chinyere Ukaga	Imo State University	Nigeria
47	Christelle Loubegnon	Unité de Recherche en microbiologie appliquée et Pharmacologie des Substances Naturelles	Benin
48	Curiace Théodule Hinnilo		Benin
49	Dabota Buowari	University of Port Harcourt Teaching Hospital	Nigeria
50	Damilare Ebenezer	Notre Maison	Nigeria
51	Damilola Akinsulire	Lagos University Teaching Hospital	Nigeria
52	David Ofori-Adjei	Ghana Academy of Arts and Sciences	Ghana
53	David Oladele	Nigerian Institute of Medical Research	Nigeria
54	Deborah Ajakaiye FAS	Nigerian Academy of Science	Nigeria
55	Deborah Owolabi	Hugotech	Nigeria
56	Doctor Chandus	University of Port-harcourt Teaching Hospital	Nigeria
57	Dossou Banka	Consultant Juriste Pays Resolve To Save Lives	Togo
58	Doyin Ogunyemi	College of Medicine, UNILAG	Nigeria
59	Dozie Onunkwo	Michael Okpara University of Agriculture	Nigeria
60	Dwomoa Adu	Ghana Academy of Arts and Sciences	Ghana
61	Edith Offiong	News Agency of Nigeria	Nigeria
62	Edward Amporful	Ghana Cocoa Board	Ghana
63	Efunsola Sowemimo	NGO	Nigeria
64	Eka Braide FAS	Nigerian Academy of Science	Nigeria
65	Emmanuel Agogo	Resolve To Save Lives	Nigeria
66	Emmanuel Kwon-Ndung	Federal University Lafia	Nigeria
67	Enang Moma	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)	Nigeria
68	Enebi Opaluwa	Centre for Public Policy Alternatives	Nigeria
69	Ernestina Donkor	University of Health and Allied Sciences	Ghana

70	Farouk Jiya Muhammad	Federal University of Technology Minna	Nigeria
71	Fausat Sanni	Lagos State Primary Health Care Board	Nigeria
72	Fidelia Osuala	University of Lagos	Nigeria
73	Francis Eko	Morehouse School of Medicine	USA
74	Francis Prince Ankrah	Ghana Academy of Arts and Sciences	Ghana
75	Francisca Nwaokorie	University of Lagos	Nigeria
76	Franklin Asiedu-Bekoe	Ghana Health Service	Ghana
77	Frederick Igene	Ambrose Alli University	Nigeria
78	Friday Okonofua FAS	Women's Health and Action Research Centre	Nigeria
79	Funke Olowoselu	Lagos University Teaching Hospital	Nigeria
80	Gertrude Ogieguata	Nigerian Academy of Science	Nigeria
81	Gladys Amponsah	School of Anaesthesia and Critical Care, Ridge	Ghana
82	Gloria Lydie Comlan	URMAPHA	Benin
83	Gloria Obuzor	Chemical Society of Nigeria/ University of Port Harcourt	Nigeria
84	Grace Iyeghe-Erakpotobor	National Animal Production Research Institute	Nigeria
85	Grace Ofori-Sarpong	University of Mines and Technology, Tarkwa Ghana	Ghana
86	Grace Rimamnunra	Benue State University Teaching Hospital	Nigeria
87	Hannah Goodtree	NASEM	United States of America
88	Hosea Boakye	Lekma	Ghana
89	Ida Codjia	Unité de Recherche en Microbiologie Appliquée et Pharmacologie des substances naturelles	Benin
90	Ifeoluwa Edawole	NAS	Nigeria
91	Ifeoma Enweani	Nnamdi Azikiwe University	Nigeria
92	Ifeoma Okafor	University of Lagos	Nigeria
93	Igwilo Ugonnaya	LUTH	Nigeria
94	Ijeoma Chibuogwu	University of Abuja	Nigeria

95	Ikechukwu P. Ejidike	Anchor University, Lagos	Nigeria
96	Irene Esu	Federal Ministry of Health	Nigeria
97	Iruka Okeke	University of Ibadan	Nigeria
98	Isaac Akerele	Maitama District Hospital, Abuja	Nigeria
99	Isaac Asuzu		Nigeria
100	Isaac Butswat	National Open University of Nigeria	Nigeria
101	Ishmael Masesane	Botswana Academy of Science	Botswana
102	Isiaka Amoo	Science Association of Nigeria	Nigeria
103	Ivan Addae-Mensah	Ghana Academy of Arts and Sciences	Ghana
104	Jean Robert Klotoe	Académie des Jeunes Scientifique du Bénin	Benin
105	Jide Idris	FHS Medical Consulting Ltd.	Nigeria
106	John Gyapong	University of Health and Allied Sciences, Ho, Ghana	Ghana
107	Jonathan Annan-Asare	University of Health and Allied Sciences	Ghana
108	Jonathan Babalola	University of Ibadan	Nigeria
109	Joshua Chiroma Gandhi	University of Jos	Nigeria
110	Joy Cecilia Atawodi	Federal University Lokoja	Nigeria
111	Juliette Ango	University of Nigeria Teaching Hospital	Nigeria
112	Kafayath Fabiyi	URMAPHA	Benin
113	Kehinde Ladipo	Nigerian Academy of Science	Nigeria
114	Khadija Bashir	Lagos State University Teaching Hospital	Nigeria
115	Kikelomo Wright	Lagos State University Teaching Hospital	Nigeria
116	Laja Odunuga	GlaxoSmithKline	Nigeria
117	Latifat Ibrahim	Kwara State University	Nigeria
118	Lawrence Adedayo		Nigeria
119	Layeni Adeyemo	Lagos State Ministry of Health	Nigeria
120	Layi Agoro	Federal Ministry of Science and Technology	Nigeria
121	Lynda Okoro		Nigeria

122	Lysette Kinsou	Université d'Abomey-Calavi	Benin
123	M. Oladoyin Odubanjo	Nigerian Academy of Science	Nigeria
124	Mabur Yaks Mafuyai	University of Jos	Nigeria
125	Mahoussi Eskyl Togbe	URMAPHA	Benin
126	Mamadou Ndoeye	Académie Nationale des Sciences et Techniques du Sénégal (ANSTS)	Senegal
127	Margaret Gyapong	University of Health and Allied Sciences	Ghana
128	Martin Chobli	Service d'assistance Médicale d'urgence (SAMU)	Benin
129	Mary Agoriwo	University of Health and Allied sciences	Ghana
130	Mary Alexander Shanu	Shehu Idris College of Health Sciences and Technology	Nigeria
131	Maryam Suleiman	PSSN	Nigeria
132	Matthey Mbasu	US NASEM	USA
133	Mayowa Owolabi FAS	Nigerian Academy of Science	Nigeria
134	Merveille Ahokpossi	URMAPHA	Benin
135	Micah Osilike FAS	University of Nigeria, Nsukka (UNN)/Nigeria Academy of Science (NAS)	Nigeria
136	Micheal Onyekonwu FAS	Laser Engineering & Resources Consultants Ltd	Nigeria
137	Mobolaji Dasaolu	Nigerian Academy of Science	Nigeria
138	Mobolaji Obadeyi	Lagos State Primary Healthcare Board	Nigeria
139	Mobolanle Balogun	University of Lagos	Nigeria
140	Modesta Egwu-Ikechukwu	Alex-Ekwueme Federal University	Nigeria
141	Modinat Adekoya	Federal University, Oye-Ekiti	Nigeria
142	Modupe Akinyinka	LASUCOM	Nigeria
143	Modupe Ologunagba	University of Lagos	Nigeria
144	Morufu Oyedunsi Olayiwola	Osun State University	Nigeria
145	Moses Adegbola		Nigeria

146	Moses Mncwabe	Parliament of the Republic of South Africa	South Africa
147	Mosto Onuoha FAS	Nigerian Academy of Science	Nigeria
148	Motunrayo Fagbola	University College Hospital, Ibadan	Nigeria
149	Mubarak Ameen	University of Ilorin	Nigeria
150	Musbau Akanji	University of Ilorin	Nigeria
151	Nana Mireku-Gyimah	Ghana Health Service	Ghana
152	Negin Sobhani	National Academy of Science	United States of America
153	Nestor Bokossa	CIPMA-CHAIRE UNESCO (UAC-BENIN)	Benin
154	Nkechi Opene	Delta State Polytechnic	Nigeria
155	Nwaedozie Isaac	National Office for Technology Acquisition and Promotion, Nigeria	Nigeria
156	Obehi Okojie	University of Benin	Nigeria
157	Odeyemi Olusanmi	Federal College of Animal Health and Production Technology	Nigeria
158	Ogochukwu Olise	Anchor University	Nigeria
159	Ojonoma Okwute	University of Abuja	Nigeria
160	Olaitan Soyannwo FAS	NAS	Nigeria
161	Olajide Adebola	Society for Telemedicine and E-health	Nigeria
162	Olakunke Ogunlowo	Pfizer	Nigeria
163	Olatunde Farombi FAS	Nigerian Academy of Science	Nigeria
164	Olatunji Kolawole	University of Ilorin	Nigeria
165	Olayinka Taiwo Asekun	University of Lagos	Nigeria
166	Olubayode Bamidele	Bowen University	Nigeria
167	Oluchi Ibegbu	African University of Science and Technology	Nigeria
168	Olufemi Erinoso	Lagos State University Teaching Hospital	Nigeria
169	Olufunke Akin-Ajani	University of Ibadan	Nigeria
170	Olufunmilayo Ologe	University of Ilorin	Nigeria
171	Olugbenga Daramola	Ekiti State University Teaching Hospital	Nigeria

172	Olusegun Oke FAS	Nigerian Academy of Science	United States of America
173	Oluwadamilola Matti	Lagos University Teaching Hospital	Nigeria
174	Oluwafemi Taiwo	Obafemi Awolowo University	Nigeria
175	Oluwakemi Odeyemi	Joseph Ayo Babalola University	Nigeria
176	Oluwaseun Balogun	Nigerian Academy of Science	Nigeria
177	Oluwatosin Akande	Nigeria Center for Disease Control	Nigeria
178	Oluwatosin Kuti	T and K Consultancy	Nigeria
179	Oluwatoyin Odeku	University of Ibadan	Nigeria
180	Oluwole Familoni FAS	University of Lagos	Nigeria
181	Omobolanle Johnson	Lagos State Primary Health Care Board	Nigeria
182	Omolola Odubekun	Grant Attorneys	Nigeria
183	Omowunmi Bakare	Lagos State University College of Medicine	Nigeria
184	Oridota Olufela	LUTH	Nigeria
185	Orogun Siene	University of Port-harcourt Teaching Hospital	Nigeria
186	Oyeladun Okunromade	Nigeria Center for Disease Control	Nigeria
187	Papa Salif Sow	University of Dakar, Senegal	Senegal
188	Patricia Cuff	US National Academy of Sciences	United States of America
189	Percival Agordoh	University of Health and Allied Sciences	Ghana
190	Peter Akah	University of Nigeria	Nigeria
191	Peter Kwabla Agbezorlie	University of Health and Allied Sciences, Ho	Ghana
192	Pierre Guissou	Académie Nationale des Arts et des Lettres du Burkina Faso (ANSAL-BF)	Burkina Faso
193	Pulane Koosaletse-Mswela	Botswana Academy of Science	Botswana
194	Ramatu Bello	Federal Ministry of Health	Nigeria
195	Rémi Akotegnon	URMAPHA	Benin

196	Richard Adegbola FAS	Nigerian Institute of Medical Research	Nigeria
197	Robert Kaba	University Of Health And Allied Sciences, Ho Ghana	Ghana
198	Ruth Onyige	University of Calabar	Nigeria
199	Saheed Lawal	Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Nigeria	Nigeria
200	Saidat Okaga	Lagos State Ministry of Health	Nigeria
201	Saliou Latoundji	URMAPHA	Benin
202	Samson Aribido	Kogi State University	Nigeria
203	Samuel Akande	University of Ilorin	Nigeria
204	Samuel Ayodele Jegede	University of Ibadan	Nigeria
205	Samuel Nwite	Tekedia	Nigeria
206	Samuel Sefa-Dedeh	Ghana Academy of Arts and Sciences	Ghana
207	Samuel Shofuyi	NAS	Nigeria
208	Sarah Abraham	University College Hospital	Nigeria
209	Seun Jaho	Lagos University Teaching Hospital	Nigeria
210	Shaibu Bello	College Of Health Sciences, Usmanu Danfodiyo University	Nigeria
211	Sholakunmi Olusanya	Lagos University Teaching Hospital	Nigeria
212	Simidele Onabajo	National Agency For Food and Drugs Admin	Nigeria
213	Soga Sofola FAS	Nigerian Academy of Science	Nigeria
214	Soliu Atunwa	University of Ilorin	Nigeria
215	Sonny Kuku FAS	Nigerian Academy of Science	Nigeria
216	Sunday Udo	The Leprosy Mission Nigeria	Nigeria
217	Temitope Farombi	University College Hospital	Nigeria
218	Temitope Olomola	Nigerian Young Academy	Nigeria
219	Temitope Sogbanmu	University of Lagos	Nigeria
220	Terkaa Bitto	Benue State University Teaching Hospital Makurdi	Nigeria
221	Tinuola Odugbemi	College of Medicine University of Lagos	Nigeria
222	Titilope Charles-	Lagos University Teaching Hospital	Nigeria

	Eromosele		
223	Tolulope Olufunlayo	College of Medicine University of Lagos/LUTH	Nigeria
224	Tolulope Omolola Ajala	University of Ibadan, Ibadan	Nigeria
225	Tope Ogunniyan	Lagos State Health Service Commission	Nigeria
226	Tope Olubodun	Lagos University Teaching Hospital	Nigeria
227	Tunbosun Ogundare	Nigerian Tribune Newspaper	Nigeria
228	Ugochukwu Eze	Lagos University Teaching Hospital	Nigeria
229	Ulunma Mariere	Federal medical Center, Yenagoa	Nigeria
230	Valentine Adegoke	NIPRD	Nigeria
231	Victorien Dougnon	Benin Young Academy	Benin
232	Vincent Idemyor	University of Port Harcourt	Nigeria
233	Yaw Adu-Gyamfi	National Health Insurance Authority/ Ghana Academy of Arts and Sciences	Ghana
234	Yetunde Odusolu	Lagos University Teaching Hospital	Nigeria
235	Zainab Labbo	National Biotechnology Development Agency	Nigeria
236	Zainab Salisu	Lagos University Teaching Hospital	Nigeria

Project Steering Committee

- Dr. Sonny Kuku FAS – Chair, Steering Committee/Representative, the Nigerian Academy of Science (NAS)
- Dr. Dwomoa Adu – Representative, Ghana Academy of Arts and Sciences (GAAS)
- Professor Mamadou Ndoeye – Representative, Académie Nationale des Sciences et Techniques du Sénégal (ANSTS)
- Professor Hippolyte Agboton – Representative, Academie Nationale des Sciences, Arts et Lettres du Benin (ANSALB)
- Professor Pierre Innocent Guissou - Representative, Académie Nationale des Sciences, Arts et Lettres du Burkina Faso (ANSAL-BF)

Project Secretariat

- Dr. M. Oladoyin Odubanjo - Executive Secretary, NAS
- Ms. Anjola Olanipekun – Senior Program Officer, NAS
- Ms. Blessing Onyema – Program Officer, NAS



THE NIGERIAN ACADEMY OF SCIENCE

The Nigerian Academy of Science
Academy House
8a Ransome Kuti Road, University of Lagos
PMB 1004, University of Lagos Post Office, Akoka, Yaba
Lagos, Nigeria
Tel: +234 808 962 2442
Email: admin@nas.org.ng
Website: www.nas.org.ng