Mothers' cord care practices in an academic hospital in Kenya

O'Brien M Kyololo¹, Maculater J Kipkoech²

1. School of Nursing & Midwifery, Moi University, Eldoret, Kenya.

2. Department of Health, Uasin Gishu County, Eldoret, Kenya.

Abstract

Background: Nearly 99% of neonatal deaths globally occur in low- and middle-income countries with about three-quarters of the neonatal deaths resulting from sepsis including those arising from cord infections. Thus, good cord care practices have the potential to reduce the neonatal deaths in low and middle-income countries such as Kenya.

Objective: Describe cord care practices of mothers in an academic hospital in Kenya.

Methods: A questionnaire was administered to 114 mothers attending child welfare clinic at 6 weeks in an academic hospital in Western Kenya. Descriptive statistics were computed for continuous variables while frequencies were computed for categorical variables. Parametric and non-parametric tests were used to check for association between maternal variables and cord care practices.

Results: Most mothers applied chlorhexidine (n =73, 64%) or practiced dry cord care (n = 17, 14.9%). Some mothers (12.9%) applied potentially harmful substances including saliva, ash and soil. Mothers who attended at least three antenatal clinic visits practiced the recommended cord care (χ^2 =16.02, p. = 0.03).

Conclusions: Although mothers predominantly practiced the recommended cord care, some potentially deleterious practices were reported. There is need to encourage attendance to antenatal clinic in order to optimize umbilical cord care practices. **Keywords:** Cord care; practices; neonates; mothers; Kenya.

DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.4314/ahs.v23i1.45

Cite as: Kyololo O'BM, Kipkoech MJ. Mothers' cord care practices in an academic hospital in Kenya. Afri Health Sci. 2023;23(1):429-37. https://dx.doi.org/10.4314/ahs.v23i1.45

Introduction

Approximately 4 million neonatal deaths occur globally each year with about 99% of the deaths occurring in low and middle income countries (LMIC) particularly in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA).^{1,2} About three-quarters of these neonatal deaths occur as a result of sepsis^{3,4} with umbilical cord infections (omphalitis) accounting for a significant proportion of the infections in SSA.⁵⁻⁷ Empirical evidence suggests that these preventable neonatal deaths can be significantly reduced with improved care around the time of birth and by observing optimal umbilical cord care practices during the first week of life^{8,9}

To minimize the neonatal mortality associated with poor umbilical cord care practices, the World Health Organization (WHO) recommends dry umbilical cord care that entails keeping the cord clean without application of any-

Corresponding author:

O'Brien M Kyololo, School of Nursing &Midwifery, Moi University P.O.BOX 4606, Eldoret, Kenya E-mail: obmunyao@gmail.com thing, exposing the cord to air or loosely covering it with a clean cloth, and only cleaning with sterile water when soiled.¹⁰ Use of topical antiseptics may, however, be used on the umbilical cord stump in settings with high infection rates and/or poor hygienic conditions.^{10,11} Despite these recommendations, diverse traditional cord care practices continue to be reported among mothers globally¹²⁻¹⁴ with some of the cord care practices such as the application of herbs, cow dung, ghee and saliva likely to cause infections.^{8,9} Sadly, these harmful cord care practices are largely reported in countries with some of the highest neonatal mortality rates globally.^{15,16}

The neonatal mortality in Kenya is estimated at 22 for every 1000 live births,¹⁷ with about 20% of these deaths being attributed to infections including umbilical cord infections.^{8,18} Thus, good cord care practices are fundamental to achieving a reduction in the unacceptably high neonatal death rate in Kenya.^{7,19} In recognition of umbilical infections as a major contributor to the neonatal deaths in the country, practice guidelines on cord care have been developed.²⁰ The overarching emphasis of the

Health Sciences

^{© 2023} Kyololo O'BM et al. Licensee African Health Sciences. This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative commons Attribution License (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/BY/4.0), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

guidelines is the use of 4% chlorhexidine on the umbilical stump which should be initiated at the health facility and continued by the mother for seven days or until the cord stump falls off.

In view of the contribution of cord infections to the neonatal mortality in Kenya and the critical role of mothers in ensuring optimal cord care and, consequently, a reduction in neonatal infections, this study was conducted to determine the cord care practices of mothers in an academic hospital in Kenya.

Methods

Design and Setting

We conducted a descriptive survey between November 2018 and January 2019 in a large academic hospital in Western Kenya. The hospital has a detached mother and baby unit where mothers are attended to during pregnancy and birth. An average of 14, 000 deliveries are conducted in the unit annually. It is in the same mother and baby unit where postnatal care and vaccination services for infants are provided.

Participants

Purposive convenience sampling was used to recruit postnatal mothers who attended child welfare clinic (CWC) at 6 weeks after birth. In Kenya, it is a government policy that mothers bring their babies to the CWC at the age of 6 weeks for growth monitoring and vaccination. It is this maternal population that was the target of our study. To identify potential study participants, the CWC register and clinic cards were scrutinized to identify babies being brought for follow up at the age of six weeks. Mothers attending the CWC during the study period, irrespective of whether they delivered in the hospital or not, were recruited. We excluded mothers who were sick and/or whose baby was sick and needed medical treatment.

Procedures

A questionnaire that was previously used in a similar study²¹ was adopted and modified for data collection. Additional items on who initiated cord care and whether information on cord care was given after the birth were included in the questionnaire. The final study tool was pilot-tested for reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.76. The second author (MK) administered the questionnaires. The CWC register and clinic cards were used to identify mothers who met the inclusion criteria. Those who met the criteria were given detailed information about the study. Mothers who verbalized willingness to participate in the study were requested to sign a consent form before being interviewed in an isolated corner in the waiting bay.

Analysis

Data were analysed descriptively into mean, standard deviation, median and interquartile range for continuous data. Chi-square test was used to check for association between categorical data and cord care. Independent sample t-test was used to compare means for continuous data while Fisher's exact test was used to identify factors associated with cord care. P-value < 0.05 was specified as statistically significant.

Results

The 114 mothers who completed the survey were aged 18 - 41 years (M = 27 ± 4.7 years). The median number of children the respondents had was 1 (IQR 0, 2; range: 0-4). On average, the mothers had made an average of 4.5 (SD = 0.9, range: 3-7) antenatal clinic visits during the pregnancy with most of the mothers making the first antenatal clinic visit during the 2nd trimester (52.6%, n = 60). All the mothers had delivered in a health facility; either in the study hospital (n = 102; 89.5%) or in a community health centre (Table 1).

| | n | (%) | Mean | SD | Median | IQR |
|----------------------------------|-----|------|------|------|--------|------|
| Age (yrs.) | | | 27 | 4.7 | | |
| No. of children | | | 0.98 | 1.07 | 1 | 0, 2 |
| ANC visits | | | 4.5 | 0.9 | | |
| Marital status | | | | | | |
| Married | 106 | 93.0 | | | | |
| Single | 8 | 7 | | | | |
| Level of Education | | | | | | |
| Primary | 22 | 19.3 | | | | |
| Secondary | 28 | 24.6 | | | | |
| Tertiary | 64 | 56.1 | | | | |
| Occupation | | | | | | |
| Employed | 42 | 36.8 | | | | |
| Unemployed | 44 | 38.6 | | | | |
| Housewife | 28 | 24.6 | | | | |
| 1 st ANC visit timing | | | | | | |
| 1 st trimester | 54 | 47.3 | | | | |
| 2 nd trimester | 60 | 52.6 | | | | |
| Birth attendant | | | | | | |
| Nurse | 64 | 56.1 | | | | |
| Doctor | 50 | 43.9 | | | | |

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Sample

Abbreviations: SD; Standard Deviation; IQR: Interquartile Range

Cord care practices

Most mothers used either chlorhexidine (n = 73; 64%) or surgical spirit (n = 9; 8%) on the cord with most mothers

preferring to apply the antiseptic agent twice daily. Four fifths of the mothers (n = 91) reported that they applied the diaper below the umbilicus and a similar proportion (78%; n = 89) wiped the baby during bath (Table 2).

| Table 2: | Cord Care Practice | s |
|----------|--------------------|---|
|----------|--------------------|---|

| | n | % |
|---------------------------------------|----|------|
| Taking care of the cord | | |
| Uncover | 83 | 73 |
| Cover | 20 | 18 |
| Clean with surgical spirit | 10 | 9 |
| Substance applied on cord stump | | |
| Chlorhexidine | 73 | 64 |
| Surgical spirit | 10 | 9 |
| Saliva | 6 | 5.2 |
| Breast milk | 4 | 3.5 |
| Others* | 4 | 3.5 |
| No substance applied | 17 | 14.9 |
| Frequency of application of substance | | |
| 1 | 17 | 17.5 |
| 2 | 64 | 66.0 |
| 3 | 16 | 16.5 |
| Application of diaper | | |
| Below umbilicus | 91 | 79.8 |
| Above umbilicus | 23 | 20.2 |
| Initiator of cord care | | |
| Self | 69 | 60.5 |
| Nurse | 14 | 12.3 |
| Others | 14 | 12.3 |
| Doctor | 2 | 1.8 |
| No response | 15 | 13.2 |
| Care of the cord during bath | | |
| Wiped | 89 | 78 |
| Immersed in water | 25 | 22 |

*Includes 2 for ash and one each for soil and shea butter

Factors associated with cord care practices

The number of antenatal clinic visits were associated

with cord care practices. Mothers who attended at least four ANC visits were more likely to practice the recommended cord care ($\chi 2 = 16.02$, p. = 0.03) (Table 3).

| | Appropriat | te cord care | <i>p</i> -value |
|---------------------------|--------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | No | Yes | 1 |
| Age (yrs.) | 27.5 (0.92) | 26.1 (0.49) | 0.14+ |
| Marital status | · · · · | () | 0.49 |
| Married | 28 (26.4) | 78 (73.4) | |
| Single | 3 (37.5) | · · · · | |
| Occupation | · · · · | ~ / | 0.89* |
| Employed | 11 (26.2) | 31 (73.8) | |
| Unemployed | 13 (29.5) | · · · · | |
| Housewife | 7 (25) | 21 (75) | |
| Number of children | | | 0.234\$ |
| 0 | 11 (22.9) | 37 (77.1) | |
| 1 | 7 (19.4) | 29 (80.6) | |
| 2 | 7 (43.8) | 9 (56.3) | |
| 3 | 5 (41.7) | 7 (58.3) | |
| 4 | 1 (50) | 1 (50) | |
| ANC visits | | | 0.03\$ |
| 3 | 7 (58.3) | 5 (42.7) | |
| 4 | 12 (23.1) | 40 (76.9) | |
| 5 | 4 (13.5) | 28 (87.5) | |
| 6 | 6 (37.5) | 10 (62.5) | |
| 7 | 2 (100) | 0 (0) | |
| Timing of 1. ANC visit | | | 0.89* |
| 1st trimester | 15 (27.8) | 39 (72.2) | |
| 2 nd trimester | 16 (26.7) | 44 (73.3) | |
| Birth Assistant | | . , | 0.86* |
| Nurse | 17 (26.6) | 47 (73.4) | |
| Doctor | 14 (28) | 36 (72) | |
| †t-test | § Fishers' exact t | est ‡Chi-square | |

Discussion

Infections including omphalitis continue to be a main cause of neonatal mortality globally and more so in resource-limited countries where the incidence is dishearteningly high.^{5,22} With optimal cord care practices these infections can, however, be significantly reduced. It is in recognition of the critical role of umbilical cord care that national^{20,23} and international organizations^{22,24} have developed divergent recommendations for cord care. The overarching emphasis of these recommendations is dry cord care for babies born in a hospital or in settings with low neonatal mortality and application of antiseptic solutions (mainly chlorhexidine solution or gel) for babies born at home or in settings with high neonatal mortality rates.^{22,23}

Mothers in our study mainly used chlorhexidine solution or surgical spirit for cord cleaning (73%) which mirrors what has been reported in other parts of the country¹⁹ as well as in Uganda,²⁵ Tanzania,²⁶ Ghana,²⁷ Nigeria,^{11,28} Benin²⁹ and Nepal.³⁰ We also noted a significant propor-

tion of mothers who reported to have practiced dry cord care (15%) which is consistent with the finding in earlier studies in the country.7,19 Studies in other low and middle-income countries have also reported dry cord care practice among mothers.^{11,31} For instance, 8% of Ghanaian mothers²⁷ and 27% of rural Indian mothers kept the cord stump dry without application of any substance.³² Although it is not clear why such a high proportion of the Indian mothers appeared to observe the recommended practice compared to other LMICs, it is noteworthy that mothers who were assisted by a skilled attendant at birth (70%) were two times more likely to practice dry cord care.³² Similar to the Indian study, all mothers in our study reported to have delivered in a health facility which could explain the high number of mothers who practiced the recommended cord care - use of chlorhexidine or dry cord care.^{10,22} It is at the hospital where health care providers are expected to initiate appropriate cord care and ensure that mothers continue with the same care after discharge.²⁴ Similarly, the reported use of breast milk on

the cord stump, albeit by a small proportion of mothers, is commendable considering the evidence that its application has the potential to reduce cord separation time and to minimize bacterial colonization on the cord.³⁴

Similar to earlier studies in the country^{7, 19} we observed a disheartening trend whereby mothers used potentially harmful substances including, saliva, ash and dust on the cord stump. The use of these and other potentially harmful substances is not limited to the country.^{15,33} Application of powder and lizard droppings on the cord has been a common practice in Uganda,³⁵ herbs, chicken faeces, brick ash and python oil have been used in Zambia,³⁶ petroleum jelly, butter and hair lotion have been used in Ethiopia^{31,37} while the use of mustard oil, herbs and chewed rice have been used variably in Nepal and Bangladesh.^{8,38} Although the harmful effects of these substances has not been comprehensively examined, ^{8,37} the risk for infections they pose to the neonates is well documented.³⁹ Empirical evidence shows that the application of unhygienic substances such as soil, saliva and cow dung on the umbilical cord stump poses the risk for tetanus on the neonates.40-43

Four fifths of mothers in our study applied the diaper below the umbilicus and practiced sponge bath until the cord detached reportedly to facilitate healing and prevent contamination of the umbilical stump. These are encouraging statistics considering that they are consistent with the recommendations of numerous cord care guidelines.^{10,23} Other studies in peri-urban settings in the country have, however, reported lower frequency of these practices with 55-65% of mothers sponge-bathing and applying the diaper below the umbilicus.¹⁹ Mothers in other LMICs including in Nigeria,11,44 Pakistan45 and Ghana¹⁴ have also reported sponge-bathing and keeping the cord uncovered albeit at a lower frequency than reported in our study. The fact that all mothers in our study had delivered in hospital could explain the higher frequency of their practice with respect to sponge bathing and application of the diaper since it is expected that health care providers would introduce, and demonstrate to, mothers to all aspects of recommended cord care following after birth.10

Our findings showed that the number of antenatal clinic visits were associated with cord care practices; mothers who attended four or more ANC visits were more likely to practice the recommended cord care. This positive relationship between antenatal follow-up and good cord care is not unique to the Kenyan setting.⁴⁶⁻⁴⁸ For instance, Ghanaian mothers who received adequate antenatal care were 4 times more likely to practice the recommended cord care.¹⁴ Although we did not explore why more antenatal care visits would result in better cord care practices, it is expected that the more expectant women interact with health care providers during the prenatal period the more they are provided with information and made aware of the recommended cord care.

Although our study has shed light on a critical component of newborn care in a region that has not been comprehensively studied, our findings may be limited from several fronts. The sample size was relatively small and the sampling technique may have left out mothers with divergent views from the recruited sample thus limit the generalizability of the result. Additionally, due to the study design, it is impossible to draw any causal associations from our findings. Furthermore, the use of a researcher-administered questionnaire poses the risk of social desirability bias.

Conclusion

Although, generally, mothers practiced the recommended cord care, instances of potentially harmful cord care practices were noted. Increasing the number of antenatal clinic visits has the potential to improve cord care practices and overall outcomes of neonates. The need for a comprehensive understanding of the cord care practices of mothers warrant large-scale multi-site observational studies in the country.

Acknowledgement

We indebted to Dr. Ann Mwangi for her assistance with data analysis and the mothers for their participation in the study.

References

1. Ganatra, H. A., Stoll, B. J., & Zaidi, A. K. (2010). International perspective on early onset neonatal sepsis. *Clinics in Perinatology*, 37(2), 501-523.

2. Lawn, J. E., Wilczynska-Ketende, K, & Cousens, S. N. (2006). Estimating the causes of 4 million neonatal deaths in the year 2000. *International Journal of Epidemiology*, 35(3), 706-718.

3. Kinney, M. V. Kerber, K. J., Blacks, R. E., Cohen, B.,

Nkrumah, F., Coovadia, H., ... & Lawn, J. E. (2010). Sub-Saharan Africa's mothers, newborns and children: Where and why do they die? *PLoS Medicine*, 7(6).

4. Liu, L. Jonson, H., Cousens, S., Perin, J., Scots, S., Lawn, J, E., ... & Matters, C. (2012). Global regional and national causes of child mortality: an updated systematic analysis for 2010 with time trends since 2000. *The Lancet*, 379 (9832), 2151-2161.

5. Andegiorgish, A. K., Andemariam, M., Temesghen, S., Ogbai, L., Ogbe, Z., & Zeng, L. (2020). Neonatal mortality and associated factors in the specialized neonatal care unit Asmara, Eritrea. *BMC Public Health*, 20:10 https:// doi.org/10.1186/s12889-019-8118-x.

6. Karumbi, J., Mulaku, M., Aluvaala, J., English, M., & Opiyo, N. (2013). Topical umbilical cord care for prevention of infection and neonatal mortality. *The Pediatric Infectious Disease Journal*, 32(1), 78.

7. Kinanu, L., Odhiambo, E., Mwaura, J., & Habtu, M. (2016). Cord Care Practices and Omphalitis among Neonates Aged 3-28 Days at Pumwani maternity Hospital, Kenya. *Journal of Bioscience and Medicine*, 4(01), 27-36.

8. Coffey, P. S., & Brown, S. C. (2017). Umbilical cord care practices in low-and middle-income countries: a systematic review. *BMC pregnancy and child birth*, 17(1), 68.

9. Gathwala, G., Sharma, D., & Bhakhri, P. K. (2013). Effects of tropical application of Chorhexidine for umbilical cord care in comparison with conventional dry cord care on the risk of neonatal sepsis: a randomized controlled trial. *Journal of tropical pediatrics*, 59(3), 209-213.

10. World Health Organization. (2013). WHO recommendation on postnatal care of the mother and newborn. World Health Organization. Available from: http://apps. who.int

11. Afolaranmi, T.O., Hassan, Z. I., Akinyemi, O. O., Sule, S. S., Malete, M. U., Choji, C. P., & Bello, D. A. (2018). Cord care practices a perspective of Contemporary African setting. *Frontiers in public health*, 6, 10.

12. Pati, S., Chauhan, A. S., Panda, M., Swain, S., & Hussain, M. A. (2014). Neonatal care practice in a tribal community of Oddisha, India: A cultural perspective. *Journal of tropical pediatrics*, 60(3), 238-244.

13. Paudel, D., Shrestha, I. B., Siebeck, M., & Rehfuess, E. A. (2013). Neonatal health in Nepal. Analysis of absolute and relative inequalities and impact of current efforts to reduce neonatal mortality. *BMC Public Health*, 13(1), 1239. 14. Saaka, M., Ali, F., & Vuu, F. (2018). Prevalence and determinants of essential newborn care practices in the

Lawra District of Ghana. BMC pediatrics, 18(1), 173.

15. Mrisho, M., Schellenberg, J.A., Mushi, A. K., Obrist, B., Mshinda, H., Tanner, M., & Schellenberg, D. (2008). Understanding home-based neonatal care practice in rural southern Tanzania. *Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, 102(7), 669-678.

16. Sinha, R, C., Lal, B. S., Regmi, B., & Pant, B. (2013). Newborn Care Practices among mothers in Rautahat District, Nepal. *Journal of Nepal Public Health Association*, *JNEPHA*, 5-1.

17. Jarabi, B. O., Imbwaga, A. A., & Anampiu, J. (2015). Infant and child mortality, *Kenya Demographic and Health Survey*, 2014.

18. Oza, S., Lawn, J. E., Hogan, D. R., Mathersb, C., & Cousens, S. N. (2015). Neonatal cause-of-death estimates for the early and late neonatal periods for 194 countries: 2000–2013. Bulletin of the World Health Organisation, 93:19–28. Doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.2471/BLT.14.139790

19. Moraa, P. K., Mweu, M. M., & Njoroge, P. K. (2019). Association between umbilical cord hygiene and neonatal sepsis among neonates presenting to a primary care facility in Nairobi County, Kenya: a case-control study. *F1000 Research*, 8, 920. Doi: 10.12688/f1000research.19544.2

20. Ministry of Health (MOH), Kenya (2016). A guideline for the use of Chlorhexidine for newborn umbilical cord care in Kenya. Available at: https://familyhealth.go.ke/ wp-content/uploads/2018/02/chlorhexidine-for-newborn-umbilical-cord-care-guidelines.pdf

21. Amolo, L., Irimu, G., & Njai, D. (2017). Knowledge of postnatal mothers on essential newborn care practices at the Kenyatta National Hospital: a cross sectional study. *Pan African Medical Journal*, 28(1), 159.

22. Stewart, D., Benitz, W., & Committee on Fetus and Newborn (2016). Umbilical Cord Care in the Newborn Infant. *Pediatrics*, 138 (3), e20162149. doi.org/10.1542/ peds.2016-2149.

23. Castellanos, J. L. L., Muñuzuri, A. P., Campillo, C. W. R., López, E. S., Fernández, I. B., Redondo, M. D. S., Gracia, S. R., & Luna, M. S. (2019). Recommendations for the care of the umbilical cord in the newborn. *Anales de Pediatría*, 90(6), 401.e1-401.e5

24. WHO's Chlorhexidine Working Group (2018). Implementing the World Health Organization Revised Recommendations on Cord Care. Available in: https://www. healthynewbornnetwork.org/hnn-content/uploads/ Final-for-translation_CWG-Country-Guidance_Jan-19-2018_EN.pdf 25. Kayom, V. O., Kakuru, A., & Kiguli, S. (2015). Newborn care practices among mother-infant dyads in urban Uganda. *International Journal of Pediatrics*, 815938 doi. org/10.1155/2015/815938.

26. Mullany, L. C., Faillace, S., Tielsch, J. M., Stolzfus, R. J., Nygaard, K. E., Kavle, J. A., Farag, T. H., Haji, H. J., Khalfan, S. S., Ali, N. S., Omar, R. S., Darmstadt, G. L. (2009). Incidence and risk factors for newborn umbilical cord infections on Pemba Island, Zanzibar, Tanzania. *Pediatric Infectious Diseases Journal*, 28(6), 503-509.

27. Hill, Z., Tawiah-Agyemang, C., Okeyere, E., Manu, A., Fenty, J., & Kirkwood, B. (2010). Improving hygiene in home deliveries in rural Ghana: how to build on current attitudes and practices. *Pediatric Infectious Diseases Journal*, 29(11), 1004-1008.

28. Abegunde, D., Orobaton, N., Beal, K. Bassi, A., Bamidele, M., Akomolafe, T., Ohanyido, F., Umar-Farouk, O., & Danladi, S. (2017). Trends in newborn umbilical cord care practices in Sokoto and Bauchi States of Nigeria: the where, who, how, what and the ubiquitous role of traditional birth attendants: a lot quality assurance sampling survey. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth*, 17(1), 368.

29. Abhulimhen-Iyoha, B. I., Ofili, A., & Ibadin, M. O. (2011). Cord care practices among mothers attending immunization clinic at the University of Benin Teaching Hospital, Benin City. *Nigerian Journal of Paediatrics*, 38(3), 104–8.

30. Karas, D. J., Mullany, L. C., Katz, J. Khatry, S. K., Le-Clerq, S. C., Darmstadt, G. L., & Tielsch, J. M. (2012). Home care practices for newborns in rural southern Nepal during the first 2 weeks of life. *Journal of Tropical Pediatrics*, 58(3), 200-207.

31. Amare, Y. (2014). Umbilical cord care in Ethiopia and implications for behavioural change: a qualitative study. *BMC International Health Human Rights*, 14:12.

32. Upadhyay, R. P., Rai, S. K., & Anand, K. (2012). Community neonatal practices and its association with skilled birth attendance in rural Haryana, India. *Acta Paediatrica*, 101(12), e535-e539.

33. Walsh, S., Norr, K., Sankar, G., & Sipsma, H. (2015). Newborn cord care practices in Haiti. *Global Public Health*, 10(9), 1107–1117.

34. Aghamohammadi, A., Zafari, M., & Moslemi, L. (2012). Comparing the effect of topical application of human milk and dry cord care on umbilical cord separation time in healthy newborn infants. *Iranian Journal of Pediatrics*, 22(2), 158-162.

35. Waiswa, P., Peterson, S., Tomson, G., Pariyo, G, W. (2010). Poor newborn care practices-a population-based survey in eastern Uganda. *BMC Pregnancy and Childbirth*, 10(1), 9.

36. Herlihy, J. M., Shaikh, A., Mazimba, A., Gagne, N., Gagne, N., Grogan, C., ... & Messersmith, L. (2013). Local perceptions, cultural beliefs and practices that shape umbilical cord care: a quantative study in southern province, Zambia. *PLoS One*, 8(11).

37. Efa, B. W., Berhanie, E., Desta, K. W., Hinkosa, L., Fetensa, G., Etafa, W., & Tsegaye, R. (2020). Essential new-born care practices and associated factors among postnatal mothers in Nekemte City, Western Ethiopia. *PLoS One*, doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0231354.

38. Mallick, L., Yourkavitch, J., & Allen, C. (2019). Trends, determinants, and newborn mortality related to thermal care and umbilical cord care practices in South Asia. *BMC Pediatrics*, 19(248). https://doi.org/10.1186/s12887-019-1616-2.

39. Thwaites, C. L., Beeching, N. J., & Newton, C. R. (2015). Maternal and neonatal tetanus. *Lancet*, 385(9965), 362-370.

40. Alhaji, M. A., Bello, M. A., Elechi, H. A., Akuhwa, R. T., Bukar, F. L., Ibrahim, H. A. (2013). A review of neonatal tetanus in University of Maiduguri Teaching Hospital, Northeastern Nigeria. *Nigerian Medical Journal*, 54(6), 398–401.

41. Alparslan, Ö., Demirel, Y. (2013). Traditional neonatal care practices in Turkey. Japanese Journal of Nursing Science, 10(1), 47–54.

42. Blencowe, H., Cousens, S., Mullany, L. C., Lee, A. C. C., Kerber, K., Wall, S., Darmstadt, G. L., & Lawn, J. E. (2011). Clean birth and postnatal care practices to reduce neonatal deaths from sepsis and tetanus: a systematic review and Delphi estimation of mortality effect. *Global Public Health*, 11(S3), S11. Doi: 10.1186/1471-2458-11-S3-S11.

43. Raza, S. A., Akhtar, S., Avan, B. I., Hamza, H., & Rahbar, M. H. (2004). A matched case–control study of risk factors for neonatal tetanus in Karachi, Pakistan. *Journal of Postgraduate Medicine*, 50(4), 247–51.

44. Osuchukwu, E. C., Ezeruigbo, C. S. F., Eko, J. E. (2017). Knowledge of standard umbilical cord management among mothers in Calabar south local government area, cross river state Nigeria. *International Journal of Nursing Science*, 7(3), 57-62.

45. Asim, M., Mahmood, B., & Sohail, M. M. (2015). In-

fant health care. *Professional Medical Journal*, 22(08), 978 – 988.

46. Baqui, A, H., Williams, E. K., Darmsdt, G, L., Kumar. V., Kumar, V., Kiran, T, U., Panwar, D., & Santosham, M. (2007). Newborn Care in Rural Uttar Pradesh, India. *The Indian Journal of pediatrics*, 74(3) 241-242.

47. Bwalya, B. B., Mulanga, M. C., & Mulanga J. N. (2017).

Factors associated with postnatal care for newborn in Zambia demographic and health surveys. *BMC pregnancy and childbirth*, 17(1), 418.

48. Owor, M, O., Matovu, J. K., Murokora, D., Wayenze, R. K., & Waiswa, P. (2016). Factors associated with adoption of beneficial newborn care practices in rural Eastern Uganda: a cross-sectional study. *BMC pregnancy and child birth*, 16(1), 83.