

Original Research Article

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Perceived Indigenous Perspectives of Maternal Health Care Services among Women of Marakwet, Kenya

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ABSTRACT

Background: Recognition of the vulnerabilities and differentials in maternal indicator is a pressing concern throughout safe motherhood literature. Uptake of skilled delivery by women in Marakwet remain 44%, compared to the national rate of 68%. Accountability for improving maternal indicators calls for interrogation of indigenous practices to amend complex social causes.

Methods: This was a qualitative study conducted in the thirteen patrilineal clans of Marakwet. Discussants were women of reproductive age while key informants included cultural anthropologist, traditionalist and gatekeepers. The data was analyzed manually through a process of data reduction, organization and emerging patterns interpretation then sub categories.

Results: Pregnancy and delivery are not just biomedical process but culturally biosocial practice. Discipline and socialization are critical elements. Adequate self, family and community care lead to noble pregnancy outcome. The community and midwife uses knowledge to jumpstart childbirth practices for expectant women for healthy prenatal period, delivery and postnatal running. Holiness and hygiene, controlled sex and sexual relationships, artefacts and dressing, food ways and diet, social interaction, livelihoods and lifestyle are key pregnancy and childbirth social aetiology.

Conclusion: cultural stimuli and remedies inform maternal health seeking behaviour and practices of women. Continued care, hygiene, geophagy, controlled food ways and social interaction as well as avoiding heavy duties and events that trigger emotions and pressure are sound indigenous ways of improving maternal and child health. However, norms such as visiting a midwife for pregnancy confirmation and massage as well as folk activities such as the use of charms and repertoires for protection and cleansing ceremonies provide false protection.

Recommendation: the results suggest the relative value for indigenous maternal health care services **in enhancing client centered delivery health services.** Review of policies and programs to integrate harmless indigenous practices into maternity care services may promote quality, satisfaction and uptake of facility based childbirth services.

Keywords: Indigenous Perspectives, maternal health Care, Marakwet

38 1. INTRODUCTION

39 Inequalities between the maternal health of minorities and marginalized populations
40 continue to be prevalent [1, 2]. Globally, vulnerable women experience significantly
41 worse maternal health outcome in pregnancy and childbirth more often than other
42 women [3]. Patterns of substantial differences across continents and countries are
43 documented [4, 5 &6]. The United States has the highest African American mothers'
44 maternal mortality rates among comparable developed countries [7]. American
45 women are dying from preventable pregnancy-related complications at three to four
46 times the rate of non-Hispanic white women [7]. The overall maternal mortality
47 ratio for high-income countries (12 per 100 000 live births) is 46 times lower than
48 the highest figure in sub-Saharan Africa (546 per 100 000) [8]. At national level, in
49 Mexico, North America maternal mortality among marginalized women was five
50 times higher than that of non-marginalized women [5]. In Australia, maternal death
51 rate for marginalized women was three times higher compared to non-marginalized
52 women between 2006-2010 [6]. African data has not been disaggregated into special
53 minorities and marginalized women groups such as Berber, Haratin and Sahawi of
54 North Africa, Batwa of Central Africa, Sengwer in Marakwet and IL Chamus of
55 East Africa [9]. This makes comparative studies from Africa hard to find.

56 Recognition of the vulnerabilities and differentials is a pressing concern [10] both
57 from a public health perspective as well as human rights eye [11]. Skilled birth
58 assistants, enabling environment and a functioning referral system are critical
59 components throughout safe motherhood literature [12]. Despite being essential to
60 saving lives and reducing maternal mortality, statistics from vulnerable
61 communities in Kenya, such as Sengwer of Marakwet, Ogiek and IL Chamus remain
62 wanting [9, 13]. Two out of five deliveries translating to 44% are undertaken under
63 skilled care compared to 68% nationally [11]. Additionally, the fraction of expectant
64 women who make the envisaged standards antenatal visits or postnatal service are
65 on the decline in contrast to the national [9]. Child spacing and exclusive breast-
66 feeding, and malnutrition remain challenging issues [11].

67 Planning and accountability for improving maternal health indicators require
68 initiatives amending complex social and structural causes [14, 15]. The burden is
69 however, how to generate new, or adjust existing approaches to actualize patient
70 centered discourses. Zimu-Biyela opines that studies to interrogate on valuable
71 indigenous knowledge and practices to understand local situations and inform
72 services provision are cognizant [1]. In the same tone, World Health Organization
73 calls for cultural dynamic, needs preference of the recipient to be understood,
74 recognized, anticipated and incorporated into maternity care services [16].
75 Lieberman adds that most health experts say there is no mystery surrounding what is
76 needed to tackle maternal deaths but understanding context needs offers a starter
77 template for continued progress [17]. In light of these, this paper highlights

78 perspectives; experience and expectation of giving birth among the women in
79 Marakwet.

80 **2. METHODS**

81 **Study Design and Setting**

82

83 This descriptive explorative qualitative study focused on indigenous cultural
84 practices as well as the interpretation of maternity service health seeking behaviour
85 among women of reproductive age living in Sambirir, Kapyego, Endo, and
86 Embobut/Embolot wards of Elgeyo-Marakwet County, Kenya. This study was part
87 of cluster randomized controlled trial (CRT) investigating the effect of training
88 health workers in cultural competence on satisfaction with maternity services among
89 women.

90

91 **Study site**

92

93 The study was conducted in Marakwet East Sub County, Kenya. The topography of
94 Marakwet East includes the northern part of the Kerio Valley, Elgeyo Escarpment
95 and Highlands. Marakwet East is subdivided into Sambirir, Kapyego, Endo, and
96 Embobut/Embolot wards. Sengwer are scattered pockets across Trans Nzoia, West
97 Pokot but majority live in Marakwet East, Elgeyo-Marakwet County. The Sengwer
98 in Marakwet East is one among five distinct territorial groups. The others are
99 Almoo, Endoow, Sombirir, and Markweta. The territorial groups are cascaded into
100 thirteen patrilineal clans, which further split into two or more exogamic sections
101 distinguished by totems. Socio-cultural values are unique and intertwined.
102 According to Kipchumba in a book titled aspects of indigenous religion among the
103 Marakwet of Kenya, various cultural themes are important in various pedigrees
104 across various sub tribes and clans among the Marakwet [18].The cultural themes
105 include Marriage, Pregnancy, Delivery, Weddings, Initiation, Abortion, Murder,
106 Death, Oath, Suicide, Aging, Diseases, and Hunger in the society. Healthcare
107 facilities are evenly distributed [19], however, the proportion of births in health
108 facilities is only 38% compared to the average county index of 65% [20]. Maternity-
109 care needs vary within and between communities therefore a research exploring why
110 women living in Marakwet East averse hospitals childbirth and perspective of giving
111 birth is a priority action [17, 21].

112 **Study population**

113 Discussants were local Marakwet women of reproductive ages (15-49 years) who
114 had not taken part in quantitative survey. The KII participants were community
115 experts (cultural anthologist, Elders, and traditional healers), gatekeepers (chiefs,
116 religious leaders, opinion leaders) and healthcare providers (nurses, midwives and
117 facility administrators).

118

119 **Sampling technique**

120 Qualitative survey was conducted in catchment areas of the 14 health facilities in the
121 three wards. These catchment community areas represented the thirteen patrilineal
122 clans. Focus Group Discussion (FGD) and Key Informant Interviews (KII) were

123 undertaken in each patrilineal clan. Participants in each FGD were selected
124 purposively with different demographic and sub cultural background. Key
125 considerations were age, number of children, and experience, and sub tribe, level of
126 education and income. The purposive sampling helped to select culturally grounded
127 participants, experienced and exposed on maternity services as well as set conducive
128 environment for peers to talk and express freely. Prior to the FGD session, the
129 participants were screened appropriately; ground rules were set, study objectives and
130 consent shared and discussant tagged for confidentiality. For optimum interaction, a
131 semi-circle sitting arrangement was set and participants requested to speak one at
132 time. The theme started with general questions to specific sub themes. The
133 participants were given opportunity for co-create and simulate situations,
134 phenomenon and needs where applicable. Co-creation approach provided a
135 structured role-play to gather insights on how best discussant felt about current
136 maternity services, important socio-cultural maternity dynamics and suggestive
137 ways of integration for optimum benefits as well as success uptake. Renowned
138 cultural experts from Marakwet open source teams moderated FGDs and took
139 session notes after training. FGD proceedings was audio recorded.

140 **Data Collection Tools**

141 Data was collected using semi structured FGD and KII guides in the months of July-
142 September 2018. The major themes in the tools included indigenous maternal care
143 practices relative to conventional maternity services; cultured maternity needs,
144 knowledge and beliefs, patients' behavioural patterns and expectations
145 contextualizing community maternal health care services and needs.

146 **Validity and Reliability**

147 Content and concurrent validity were tested. The research material were crossed
148 checked by cultural experts for consistency with study objectives. The study adopted
149 equivalence approach to assess tool reliability, which according to Polit & Hungler,
150 (1999), as quoted by Nandjila, is where two, or more observers (raters) use an
151 instrument to measure the same phenomena then compare the results [22]. In this
152 study, two independent persons who were not part of the study but experts in the
153 area of cultural competence reviewed the tools. The experts and the scholar
154 reviewed feedback and compared whether the experts interpreted the questions on
155 the same scope and values in panel discussion.

156 **Data Collection Procedures**

157 Prior to the FGD session, the participants were screened appropriately. Studies were
158 undertaken in private setting. Participant were tagged for confidentiality. Prior to the
159 session, participant were informed of ground rules and study objectives. For
160 optimum interaction, the semicircle sitting arrangement was set and participants
161 requested to speak one at time. The theme started with general questions to specific
162 sub theme. The participant were given opportunity to simulate situations,
163 phenomenon and needs where applicable. The FGDs duration was 55 minutes to 97
164 minutes. Rapid analysis informed incorporation of emerging issues in the
165 subsequent interviews. Moderation and data notes were taken interchangeably by
166 the team. The tenet of human subjects were followed. The purpose, risks, benefits
167 and results use, were explained. Study participation was voluntary and respondents
168 were informed of their right to consent, decline to participate and to withdraw from
169 the interview at any point.

170 **Data Analysis**

171 The qualitative data was analyzed manually in two steps. Rapid analysis was
 172 undertaken upon completion of an FGD in order to note emerging issues for
 173 subsequent sessions and take care of data saturation. After completion of qualitative
 174 survey, Audios were transcribed and data analyzed manually through a process of
 175 data reduction (identification of key themes), organization and interpretation
 176 (establishing the emerging patterns) then sub categories for presentation.

177 **3. RESULTS**

178 **Principle of midwifing**

179 Most of the discussants recognized that rich norms, values, taboos, and traditions are
 180 the fabric of pregnancy and childbirth processes among Marakwet, Sengwer
 181 included. Additionally, majority of the study participants alluded that pregnancy and
 182 delivery as not just a child gateway process but culturally domiciled IK activity.

183 A discussant captioned '*selection of a midwife is socially and cultural ascribed*
 184 *function grounded on the reverence of the select midwife by the pregnant women*
 185 *and her family*'.

186 The community IK practices are anchored on a three-tier interaction; community,
 187 midwife (*Kokopo kaw*) and pregnant woman. Just as the principle of levers, the
 188 community and midwife use a bar (knowledge) to transfer an effort (pregnancy and
 189 childbirth practices) through a fulcrum (expectant women) for healthy prenatal
 190 period, delivery and postnatal running. A number of discussant agreed in the
 191 Marakwet community, a pregnant woman is 'married' to a midwife (*Kokopo kaw*)
 192 for pregnancy and childbirth support and services. One discussant explained 'a
 193 *primigravida (woman), suspecting of successful conception liaises with the mother-*
 194 *in-law or senior women in the society for guidance and support on selection of*
 195 *midwife. The team will consult widely and zero down on one or two midwives from*
 196 *whom the pregnant woman will choose from*'. The discussant across the study
 197 settings unanimously agreed that the selected midwife becomes the mother mentor
 198 and supports the woman during her present and subsequent pregnancies and
 199 childbirth.

200 **Midwife attributes**

201 The results revealed that age and age set, gender specifications, initiation, good
 202 moral standings and birthing experience make general qualities of a midwife among
 203 the Marakwet. A discussant explained that '*pregnancy and childbirth support is the*
 204 *preserve of experienced, circumcised and mature women; rarely does young women*
 205 *support and mentor old woman. Likewise, it is a taboo for a mother-in-law to*
 206 *support her daughter-in-law. Another discussant added, 'it is a distasteful to be*
 207 *supported or assisted by a male of the same age set ("husband") to a woman*
 208 *spouse*'. The interplay of these attributes inform the choice of birthing sites and
 209 birthing assistants.

210 **Roles of a midwife**

211 The first role of the midwife is confirmation of the pregnancy and review of the
 212 client's history. Diagnosis is through palpation of the abdomen usually at second
 213 trimester (commonly the fourth month). Thereafter, she initiates indigenous
 214 antenatal care. This entails inculcating pregnancy and childbirth norms, values,
 215 taboos and practices. The scribes are envisioned to shape the woman's social and
 216 nutritional etiquette and habit as well as pregnancy copying strategies. Principally,
 217 the pregnant woman behaviour and way of life is a customized. A discussant
 218 abstracted *'pregnant women are guided by values and norms. The values and norms*
 219 *are aimed at deterring disaster during pregnancy and childbirth'*.

220 Companion's support during emergencies and assist in placenta management,
 221 naming and giving feedback to the family outcome as verbalized. *'Naming is*
 222 *crucial activity and it's usually a preserve for senior women who understand the*
 223 *doctrine of naming among the Marakwet. For your information, labour and the*
 224 *baby's exit style and position during delivery informs naming. Delivery time, season*
 225 *and trending community activities are also key. These values are hardly in the prism*
 226 *of healthscapes'*. Community companionship and participation is the epitome of
 227 labour and Childbirth. A discussant abridged *'ordinarily, a baby is a blessing to a*
 228 *society, therefore an opportunity to usher a child to the world is treasured by all*
 229 *particularly grand's mothers. In this regards, a pregnancy and childbirth care are*
 230 *societal task'*. This phenomenon is threatened by civilization and medicalization of
 231 delivery process *"We are obsessed with westernizing at expenses of our heritage,*
 232 *why do health workers expel companions from delivery rooms? Why?*

233 **Lifestyle during Pregnancy, and Childbirth**

234

235 Discipline during pregnancy is a critical element that emerged in this study.
 236 Socialization is prescribed and limited during pregnancy, childbirth and postpartum.
 237 It is conceived that adequate self, family and community care lead to noble
 238 pregnancy and pregnancy outcome. Holiness and hygiene, sex and sexual
 239 relationships, artefacts and dressing, food ways and diet, social interaction,
 240 livelihoods and lifestyle are key pregnancy and childbirth social aetiology and
 241 discipline. The couple are forbidden from engaging in sexual activity and viewing
 242 dead bodies. Outlawing of sex is to shun 'white dirt' but primarily to avoid
 243 infections. Viewing of dead body is to avoid external pressure. Additionally, the
 244 pregnant woman forbidden from attending funerals while the spouse is forbidden
 245 from digging grave, engaging in fights, raids and wars are renounced. A discussant
 246 said, *'our fore fathers foresaw the effect of psychological distress, during pregnant.*
 247 *Therefore, they set rules prohibiting spouses from engaging in pressure trigger*
 248 *activities such as war, fights, trench building and carrying of corpses'*. It is believed
 249 that some behaviours are contagious and transferable therefore, this custom shields
 250 the couple and newborn from unworthy conducts of the function or that of the
 251 deceased.

252 One of the emboldened way of life is eating and drinking. Good pregnancy and
 253 health outcome are attributed to health diet and exercise. A discussant said *'a*
 254 *pregnant woman is gutted on drinking, eating, greeting and interacting with*
 255 *strangers'*. *It presupposed that people have extraordinary power or mystical powers*
 256 *to harm others through meals, drinks and fluid contacts.* A discussant alluded
 257 *'eating and drinking during pregnancy is personalized to avoid calamities from*
 258 *people with extraordinary powers. For this reason, the principle of regulated and*

259 *controlled eating and drinking is applied.* Limited are foods synonymous with
 260 excessive body. It is believed that these foods will culminate to strong, big and
 261 weighty child jeopardizing pushing during delivery. In contrast, food thought to add
 262 micronutrients for health child are encouraged but in piecemeal. There are
 263 therefore, special diet, recipe and herbs tailored made to enhance women and child
 264 immunity and nutrition. For geophagy (soil craving), she is directed to appropriate
 265 source. A discussant emboldened this narrative '*Health and immunity of pregnant*
 266 *woman is of primary importance. The adjuvant midwife prescribes special food and*
 267 *herbs to the pregnant woman*'.

268 Presentation and dressing are important attributes. A pregnant woman wears special
 269 necklace, laced with charms for protection. A discussant sounded '*in this society,*
 270 *there is a special necklace for pregnant women. It is laced with charms to protect*
 271 *the women and the unborn from sorceries, witchcraft and evil eyes which may lead*
 272 *to miscarriage. However, its use is diminishing*'. A cleansing ceremony
 273 (*Barbarisho*) is an alternative way of neutralizing sorceries, witchcraft and evil
 274 eyes. Furthermore, adverse pregnancy and pregnancy outcome are thought to be
 275 caused by supernatural causes such as spirits and ancestors. In the spirits and
 276 ancestors aetiology, bad omens are punishments for couples or extended family
 277 wayward behaviour. Therefore, the cleansing ceremony is to mitigate family and
 278 communal social misfortunes such as inter and intra conflicts. It is also a platform to
 279 appease unhappy ancestors, more importantly psyche, and prime the pregnant for
 280 delivery as captioned by a discussant. '*The woman is psyched into positive mindset;*
 281 *for example, she is dissed that labour is less painful compared to circumcision and*
 282 *that delivery is a normal process devoid of medication*'. Chores of the pregnant
 283 women are well defined. She is limited from heavy duties such as digging, fencing,
 284 grinding, fetching water and splitting firewood ostensibly to avoid miscarriage,
 285 bleeding, and preterm delivery and back pain. A discussant said, '*a pregnant woman*
 286 *is a delicate object, the community prescribe light duties for her to keep shape and*
 287 *health but forbids heavy duties for fear of miscarriage, bleeding, and preterm*
 288 *delivery. Another added 'other than walking, cooking and nurturing young children,*
 289 *pregnant women are discouraged from undertaking any other duties*'.

290 **Labour and delivery position**

291 Labour and laboring process are undefined in Marakwet community. A key
 292 informant summed '*women labour in any style provided it is respectable*'.
 293 Prolonged labour is preconceived to be bad omen from bad social interaction or
 294 Gods punishment. For this reason, the woman or her husband are primed to
 295 behaviour holier during pregnancy. When prolonged labour occurs, cleansing and
 296 reconciliation efforts are undertaken to unearth smooth delivery. It is believed that
 297 spirits will foretell the offended party to an old man who will then advice on the
 298 appropriate recourse. Continuity of care by the nominated midwife is critical during
 299 labour and delivery. A caption envisioned thus: '*in the last stages of pregnancy,*
 300 *mostly the nominated midwife, and women neighbors, accompany or monitor the*
 301 *pregnant women just in case*'. The tradition is support, monitor and mitigate
 302 challenges during labour and delivery.

303 The study revealed preference of delivery position varied. However, the community
 304 credence that child position informs appropriate delivery position. A discussant
 305 capped '*my understanding is that child position informs appropriate delivery style.*

306 *For example, after examination, Kokopo kaw/ Kogo's explains the best and easy*
 307 *method for delivery. This is however not the case in Hospitals'. The lack of*
 308 *birthing positions other than supine negated hospitals deliveries. This is because*
 309 *birthing position, birthing site, place and circumstance inform the naming of a child.*
 310 *Women yearned for options such as squatting position. One discussant opined 'for*
 311 *women, with squatting experience, like me, the method is easy due to gravity support*
 312 *yet health workers are fixated with the use hospital delivery bed. A participant who*
 313 *provided similar narrative complimented thus: 'At home, we delivery comfortably on*
 314 *the floor while others squat. I suggest for introduction of other birthing position*
 315 *(squatting position and delivering on the floor) in the facilities (positive whispers).*

316 **Pregnancy and childbirth repertoire**

317 A belt (leketio), a traditional strap made of animal skin and cowrie shells is an
 318 important indigenous Marakwet repertoire. Leketio is synonymous with women
 319 fertility and motherhood. *Leketio* is vital for the woman to strap up after delivery to
 320 protect and involute the uterus. The belt is sourced and handled reverently only by
 321 close and trusted relatives. A revered family member or friend makes the belt with
 322 cowrie's shell and goat's skin. Leketio is rarely shared and the companion carries to
 323 the delivery sites.

324 **Communication after delivery and Placenta Management**

325 Traditionally, delivery takes place in midwives' (*kokopo kaw*) house. The midwife
 326 delivers the baby and manages the placenta appropriately. For every successful
 327 delivery, midwives ululate in special "*sashei ooh!*" to communicate the delivery
 328 outcome. The pitch denotes the sex. High pitch (*alto*) signifies a girl whereas lower
 329 tone (*bass*) connotes a boy. Limited celebration in facilities deters hospital
 330 deliveries. Placenta is an important organ among the Marakwet. The placenta
 331 informs the number of children, sexuality, sequence of sexuality and miscarriages if
 332 any. Placenta interpretation is typical '*small dark blood clots on the left side of a*
 333 *spread-out placenta represent the total number of girls and bigger clots on the right*
 334 *side represent total number of potential boys to the woman respectively'. It*
 335 *promotes health, stability and blessing of the family. It is a taboo to observe,*
 336 *examine and interpret self-placenta. Principally, it is the prerogative of the midwife*
 337 *(kokopo kaw) to examine and interpret the placenta. A discussant exemplified 'other*
 338 *than the physical delivery, the midwife also interprets the placenta'. Disposal of*
 339 *the placenta is orderly, systematic and shrouded with ethos. Disposal is secretive*
 340 *and in case of otherwise, cleansing is mandatory. A discussant put 'the disposal of*
 341 *the placenta is guided by Marakwet rites; a male child placenta is inclined to the*
 342 *right hand and a girls one to left of the delivery structure.*

343 **Privacy and confidentiality in delivery sites**

344 Privacy is key in delivery. This is contrast to hospital setting '*delivery rooms are*
 345 *open like wash rooms, people particularly male staff walk in and out yet your*
 346 *private parts are exposed. Nonuse, misuse and over use of gloves. This crowned*
 347 *thus 'locally, only Mama Chumba is known to have gloves (she uses, washes, dries*
 348 *and reuses) while the rest do without (concerned murmurs). With the spreading of*
 349 *HIV/AIDS one cannot just risk'. A discussant said, 'health providers know our HIV*
 350 *status and when a woman is positive health workers are hesitant to assist her during*
 351 *delivery or wear several gloves in front of the lady intimidating her'.*

352 **Massage, lithotomy and family planning method**

353 Delivery is normal childbirth process and introduction of lithotomy, episiotomy,
 354 caesarian section (CS) and particularly the prescription of family planning method
 355 negates the principle of motherhood. Another echoed '*patience and massage are*
 356 *central keys to unlocking labour. However, nurses tend to subject people to*
 357 *episiotomy and caesarian section (CS) or referral. For example, my friend was*
 358 *referred to Kapsowar hospital recently only to deliver one kilometer after leaving*
 359 *the hospital*'. One discussant criticized '*Other than frequent checks which not all*
 360 *may be necessary during labour, nurses have a trend of subjecting people to*
 361 *lithotomy yet a little effort will allow the birthing well*'. A clinician justified the need
 362 for frequent checks particularly for primigravida and weakly women. He said '*Many*
 363 *pregnant women enter labour with compromised energy levels or low hemoglobin*
 364 *levels. Evaluation informs labour inducement or referrals. Also, remember this is a*
 365 *security risk area compounded by poor roads therefore; we need to make informed*
 366 *decision quickly*.

367 **Mother-child welfare services**

368 Mother-child welfare services such as emotional care, supply of merchandise and
 369 food (porridge) provision are IK practices. A discussant quote appreciated the
 370 importance of mother-child welfare services. '*Women opt for friendly places where*
 371 *their welfare are taken care*. This resonates with the hypothesis that social ties link
 372 people with diffuse social networks that facilitate use of wide range of resources.
 373 Herbs medicine for infant is common IK practice. This may explain the high home
 374 deliveries. Shopping for the new baby is also a taboo. A discussant as captioned
 375 '*just as the saying- do not count your eggs before they hatch, the Marakwet norms*
 376 *and regulation do not advance any grocery shopping for the expected child*'.

377 **4. DISCUSSION**

378 **Pregnancy and childbearing principles**

379 The study revealed that pregnancy and childbearing are gateway process shaped by
 380 cultural norms, values, and experiences. The finding resonates with Birch, Ruttan,
 381 Muth, & Baydala, who reports that giving birth is a major life event for indigenous
 382 women and their families [23]. The difference of the methodologies
 383 notwithstanding, the two study findings implies a position of cultural relativism
 384 among indigenous communities in the world. Secondly, the study finding reveal that
 385 Marakwet people are endowed with indigenous prenatal and postpartum care
 386 practices. At the heart of these practices, is a mother mentor program suggesting that
 387 the concepts of continuum and continuous care are enshrined in Marakwet culture.
 388 Rono et al reported similar results and writes that the Marakwet have taboos, which
 389 guide the behaviour of pregnant woman until she gives birth [19]. Mogawane *et al.*,
 390 concurs and reports that pregnancy and childbearing in Africa are epitomized with
 391 indigenous practices (IPs) expressed in songs, dances, beliefs, rituals, cultural
 392 values, myths, and use herbs [24]. Hickey et al enlists similar culturally competent
 393 maternity care practice and services [25].

394 **Indigenous knowledge functions and responsibility**

395 Pregnancy and childbearing are collective community functions and responsibilities
 396 overseen by one nominated midwife. Her primary is to guide and advices the

397 pregnant women on expected norms, values, practices and taboos including
398 pregnancy-copying strategies. Howard et al., and Birch et al., documents similar
399 roles [23, 26]. Birch et al., in a review in Australia reports that indigenous midwifery
400 workforce aims at increasing culturally competent maternity care by developing
401 dedicated and supporting programs for birthing [22]. Howard-Grabman et al
402 preposition the concept of collective responsibility in metanalysis of factors
403 affecting effective community participation in maternal and newborn health
404 programme planning, implementation and quality of care interventions [26].
405 Howard-Grabman and co alludes that collective responsibility helps communities to
406 plan and work together to towards a common good. The scholars' inference
407 reinforces the current study findings that some cultural norms are intergral aspect of
408 better maternal and newborn outcome. The phenomenon of one midwife per woman
409 show that the ancient people were abreast of the concept of continuity care. The
410 pregnancy, labour, childbirth and post childcare norms and values transcend all
411 primary care approaches of care; promotive, preventive, curative and rehabilitative.
412 Westernization and urbanization has however threatened this model. This finding
413 compare positively with Hickey et al who reported that continuity of care is as an
414 important characteristic of culturally safe motherhood care for women [25].

415
416 Another key component of the Marakwet cultural precepts is indigenous antenatal
417 care underpinned by cultural safety and awareness. Its primary goal is to achieve
418 smooth pregnancy and positive delivery outcome. Diagnosis and confirmation of
419 pregnancy is the first critical step in pregnancy and childbearing. Diagnosis is by
420 palpation usually at four months indicating that communities are aware of the
421 importance and value of early antenatal care. This finding resonates with the results
422 of Rono, and company that reports that when a woman is four months pregnant in
423 Marakwet community, she is expected to visit a TBA for diagnosis [19]. Mogawane
424 et al also described similar IPs used by pregnant women in Dilokong hospital in
425 Limpopo province, South Africa [24]. However, the early visit to TBAs for
426 indigenous antenatal practices may be a contributing factor to the late Anti Natal
427 Care (ANC) visit among the Marakwet women. Emotional, psychosocial and
428 nutritional support are other important indigenous antenatal care practices.
429 According to the purveyors of Marakwet, indigenous antenatal care practices,
430 management of stress, emotions and pain are important precepts during pregnancy
431 and childbirth. Similarly, an increasing number of evidence has demonstrated that
432 prenatal emotion management improves obstetric outcomes [27]. Huang et al notes
433 that prenatal emotional management inform birthing choices and position reducing
434 the cesarean section [27].

435 **Attributes of childbirth Assistant**

436 Initiation (circumcised women), age (older), and experience (previous deliveries) are
437 critical attributes for birthing assistant. Rono et al supports this finding, and adds
438 that only women who have delivery experience and are initiated can provide support
439 that may be needed during delivery [19]. It is notable that cultural constructs and
440 values exposed in this study inform women belief, systems and practices. Health
441 belief model may explain this finding. The health belief model anticipates that a
442 decision-making process governed by individuals and/or household behavior,
443 community norms, and expectations as well as provider-related characteristics and
444 behavior precedes health-seeking behavior [28]. Meanwhile, Marakwet culture
445 negates delivery assists by male and 'mother-in-law'. Traditionally, a woman

446 assisted by uninitiated person was cleansed. Nonetheless, the practice is on its sunset
 447 period. It documented that Marakwet women may shun hospital delivery due to
 448 social and culturally values [19].The reasoned action theory might explain this
 449 phenomenon. Reasoned action theory states that attitudes and subjective norms
 450 result in the formation of behavioral intention, thereby influencing behaviors.
 451 Behavioral intention is a necessary step in the behavior implementation process [29].

452 **Customized behaviour during pregnancy and childbirth**

453 The study reported of a customized eating and drinking habit for women during
 454 pregnancy and birthing. This infers that the community perceive wrong diet as cause
 455 of complications in pregnancy. From the finding, special herbs and special diet are
 456 aspect of nutrition supplement in pregnancy and childbirth features and may inform
 457 the biosocial framework of delivery of Marakwet. The importance of diet and
 458 nutrition in pregnancy are well documented [19, 30]. The study's findings are
 459 supported by Rono et al who reports that herbs and special diet among the
 460 Marakwet as critical and add that Marakwet norms deters pregnant women from
 461 eating meat from a dead animal [10]. The special diet is to enhance mothers
 462 immunity and in case of geophagy (soil craving), she is directed on appropriate
 463 source. Riang'a and company however alleges that over consumption of meat makes
 464 the baby big and brings misfortune to mother or baby during delivery [30].
 465 Additionally, communities abstract food such as eggs make the baby big; causes
 466 high blood pressure and colic pain in the baby therefore are prohibited [30]. From
 467 the finding, the biosocial food attributes appears to promote good eating habits.
 468 Secondly, understanding food beliefs and practices is critical to the development of
 469 dietary recommendations, nutritional programmes, and educational messages for
 470 vulnerable women. This finding aligns with a conclusion by Riang'a et al that
 471 pregnancy nutritional behaviour and practices of the Kalenjin women act as an
 472 adaptive response to the perceived pregnancy [30]. In this context, could the
 473 introduction of food education strategies in community health strategies spur uptake
 474 of food with supplements needed in areas where deterioration in the nutritional
 475 status of individuals is apparent whilst demystifying eating taboos?

476 **Social interaction during pregnancy and childbirth**

477 The study found that there are principle guidelines for socialization for a couple
 478 during pregnancy to childbirth. Stress trigger function/activities such as funerals,
 479 fights, raids and wars are outlawed. Similar cultural adaptive mechanisms that
 480 promote safe pregnancy and delivery and control the transmission of disease such as
 481 are well-documented [31]. Rianga et al in qualitative reports that restriction of diet
 482 and social mobility are key cultural maternal care and remedies adopted for health
 483 and safe pregnancy [31]. Social interaction with strangers as well as sex is also
 484 limited. Social interaction is to avoid dangerous people or circumstance. Riang'a
 485 and others, who had reported similar finding, add that pregnant women are confined
 486 to the homestead to avoid coming into contact with "evil people" and are
 487 encouraged to carry charms to counter evil [31]. Meanwhile, the primary reason for
 488 limited sex is to avoid infection and/or any physical damage. Similar results was
 489 reported by Rono et al who wrote that Marakwet have taboos, which serve as norms
 490 to guide the behaviour of the woman and her spouse during pregnancy period. For
 491 instance, the pregnant women is prohibited from viewing the body of a dead person
 492 [19]. In addition, Riang'a and company writes that abstinence from sexual

493 intercourse during pregnancy in African societies is a common phenomenon and it is
 494 aimed at protecting the unborn baby as well as fragile mother [31]. This infers that
 495 prevention and promotive care were synonymous with Marakwet norms and values.
 496 Further, research and application of harmless indigenous prevention approaches may
 497 unearth mechanism of mitigating diseases and conditions prevalent in the Marakwet
 498 environs.

499 The study revealed that dressing during pregnancy is structured and customized
 500 among the Marakwet. A pregnant woman wears special necklace, laced with charms
 501 for protection. It is alleged that pregnancy complication are contagious compounded
 502 by “evil eye”. Rono et al., writes that Marakwet charms confer protection to both the
 503 mother and the unborn baby. The scholars alludes that the necklace is removed to
 504 allow the woman to give birth when the woman experiences labour pains [19]. This
 505 finding concurs with [31, 32]. Hlatywayo, et al in a qualitative research among the
 506 Ndau People of Zimbabwe who report that even with the emergency of modern care,
 507 women wear beads as headbands and anklets for protection [32]. Riang’a et al., adds
 508 that evil eyes unless countered are believed to cause a miscarriage in most African
 509 communities [31]. Further afield in Dilokong hospital in Limpopo province, South
 510 Africa, herbal charms is the most common therapeutic method used by the African
 511 traditional healers for protecting mothers from possible afflictions [24]. Fern also
 512 advance proper and designed clothing in Aborigin study [33].

513 **Cleansing during pregnancy, labour and delivery position**

514 Cleansing (*barbarisho*) prior to delivery is a very important indigenous care element
 515 of Marakwet. The pregnant women is cleansed in the last trimester, to appease the
 516 ancestors and more importantly psyche the woman for delivery. The finding concurs
 517 with Rono *et al.*, who adds that, the newly delivered woman also goes through a
 518 cleansing ritual before interacting with other members of the community [19]. The
 519 finding is confirmed by Riang’a et al., who writes that cleansing rituals are
 520 performed to clear off the spirits of the bad blood, which may accrued during
 521 pregnancy [31]. The back and forth cleansing infers that health is community
 522 concept premised on perceived norms such as wellbeing and spirituality. Crivelli *et*
 523 *al.*, explained this phenomenon clearly with a hypothesis that indigenous person’s
 524 concepts of health differ from western biomedical models [34].

525
 526 The study found that philosophy of labour and childbirth differ among Marakwet
 527 subsets. Whereas as there are no prescribed labour ways or positions, delivery
 528 position is attributed to child position. Supine, squatting, kneeling positions and
 529 delivery on the floor were preference methods of delivery. Women advanced that
 530 these methods hardly exposes the private parts of during labour and delivery. There
 531 is concurrence with this finding in published literature [35]. Researchers in a cross
 532 sectional study in Busia district of Uganda write that women believe that the
 533 alternative delivery positions make labour and delivery private, easy and Karanja et
 534 al., study in a rural Maasai Community in Magadi sub-County, Kenya report the
 535 subjection to unfamiliar birthing position, such as lying on the back compared to
 536 squatting deter facilities deliveries [36]. Okawa et al., adds that the location where
 537 women deliver is influenced by placenta disposal, and delivery position [37]. Goer
 538 concludes and writes that the denial of the right to informed choice or
 539 misinformation about delivery options is a human abuse [38].
 540

541 The finding alludes that limited delivery options hinder uptake of hospitals
 542 deliveries and the preposition of deciding birthing position may changes this
 543 dynamics. Additionally, delivery environment was another key finding. Women are
 544 highly concerned of privacy and confidentiality during labour and childbirth. The
 545 practice of undressing and spreading legs before strangers is ant social behaviour in
 546 this study. Furthermore, control of human traffic in and out of the labour and
 547 delivery room was acknowledged. The evidence suggest that theft of privacy affect
 548 the mental and psychological state of women, which may in turn delay delivery or
 549 affect delivery outcome. Similar phenomena have been highlighted [39]. Tukur et al
 550 in a qualitative in Northwest Nigeria points out that the absences of privacy and
 551 exposure to strange women and men drive women away from facility delivery [39].

552 **Companionship and support during pregnancy and post delivery**

553 In this study, companion's support is critical element during pregnancy and delivery.
 554 Therefore, exclusion of companions from delivery rooms is hindrance to maternity
 555 service uptake. The evidence shows that the current model of exclusion fails to take
 556 into account the human need for companionship, support and social interaction. For
 557 Marakwet, companion's assist in placenta management, naming, delivery of belt
 558 (*leketio*) and giving feedback to the family on delivery process/outcome. The
 559 special belt (*leketio*) is a belt of life, a belt that protects children [40]. For this
 560 reason, it is imperative for Marakwet women to wear the *leketio* tightly after
 561 delivery or in special functions. According to Rono *et al.*, *leketio* is tied to the
 562 abdomen to aid involution of the uterus and to guard the child from harm [19].
 563 Several scholars have documented similar roles of companion [19, 36]. Karanja et
 564 al., writes that women companions to the health facility, assist in comforting women
 565 during labor, and help reduce the language barrier between the health workers [36].
 566 More important, companions with birthing experience can provide psychological
 567 support that may be needed during delivery [19]. The study also revealed that
 568 successful delivery is a key milestone marked with customized celebration in
 569 Marakwet. The celebration are to welcome the baby and tie new generation to the
 570 old. Limited celebration in facilities deters hospital deliveries. The finding show
 571 that the social features of birth including celebration have an important impact on
 572 birth practice.

573 The finding concurs with Behruzi and other in a review titled Understanding
 574 childbirth practices as an organizational cultural phenomenon: a conceptual
 575 framework who demonstrates that women's social needs are not being adequately
 576 met in many birth units in hospitals [41]. Rituals and ceremonies that mark a child's
 577 birth are common worldwide. The gold standard are baptisms and circumcision.
 578 Laroia & Sharma reports that Hinduism is steeped in history, with ritual
 579 celebrations and ceremonies for marriage, birth, and lactation [42]. The scholar ass
 580 that birth of a baby is a celebration for family and society [42]. For example, Indians
 581 bless the mom, new born and pray for the wellbeing of the mother and the baby.

582

583 **Placenta Management**

584 The study found that placenta is an important organ among the Marakwet. The
 585 examination and interpretation of placenta is elaborate and systematic and involves
 586 taboos, ritual and practices. For example, it is a taboo to observe, examine and

587 interpret self-placenta. More important, the placenta informs the number of children,
 588 sexuality and sequence of sexuality. The finding mimics, Rono et al., who describes
 589 that placenta is disposed systematical and spiritual [19]. In the scholars own words: ‘a
 590 placenta is taken to the bush, then held by the cut umbilical cord and laid as millet is
 591 spread on the ground. They add that for a male child it is taken to the right hand
 592 direction from the house of delivery and for a girl it is taken to the left hand
 593 direction’[19].In Samoa, the placenta is disposed by burying or throwing into the
 594 sea. Just like the current study, it is believed that the newborn or the mother is at risk
 595 if anything happens to the placenta [43].

596 From the evidence, placenta (the wool of the soul) is part of the family tree as well
 597 as community and individual wellbeing and health. Anyait et al who writes that in
 598 Uganda placenta is the “second child” report similar attachment to the placenta
 599 [35]. It emerged that the lack of opportunity to examine and dispose culturally the
 600 placenta deters women from hospital delivery. This finding concurs with Okawa et
 601 al who writes that placenta management including examination, interpretation and
 602 disposal hinder birthing choices [36]. Likewise, Tukur et al in qualitative study in
 603 northwest Nigeria reported similar results [39]. On the other side, it is important to
 604 note that the inadequacy of home environment to deal with retained placenta steers
 605 women to hospitals.

606 **Tocophobia, lithophobia and family planning method**

607 The study revealed that lithotomy; episiotomy, caesarian section (CS) and
 608 prescription of family planning method without consent are anti-social behaviours
 609 and keep women away from facility delivery. Similar phenomena is reported in
 610 America [38, 44]. Goer in a paper titled Cruelty in Maternity Wards: Fifty Years
 611 Later writes that elective primary cesarean initiated by the physician is the second
 612 common abuse in America [38]. Ishola et al in a systematic review of published
 613 quantitative and qualitative literature in Nigeria reports of non-dignified care in form
 614 of negative, poor and unfriendly provider attitude most abuse [44].Furthermore,
 615 frequent unexplained vaginal examination (VE), during labour and childbirth is
 616 another concern. Mishandling of women subjects is documented and is attributed to
 617 factors inherent to hospitals social culture [38].Goer reports that denial of the right
 618 to refuse invasive medical procedures such unexplained vaginal examination (VE) is
 619 the third category of abuse in America [38]. In spite of enormous differences in labor
 620 and delivery management as well physical distance, women in American, Nigeria
 621 and Kenya share the phenomena of abuse and insensitivity to the rights during
 622 labour and delivery.

623 **Mother-child welfare services**

624 The study it is a taboo to undertake preparation such as shopping for the newborn.
 625 The study found that mother-child welfare services such as massage, supply of
 626 merchandise (leketio) and food (porridge) provision check the perception of
 627 maternity services. Karanja *et al.*, support this outcome. Karanja *et al.*, inscribes that
 628 availability of birth notification, drugs and other commodities given to women after
 629 delivering, such as diapers, towels, basins and mosquito nets, motivate women to
 630 deliver in a health facility [36]. The Maslow’s principle of motivation that
 631 unsatisfied need can influence behavior may explain the commodity occurrences
 632 [45]. Goodie, bag concept is ongoing in certain facilities in Elgeyo Marakwet

633 County. Exploring the potential of free distribution of goodie bag in health facilities
634 in increasing satisfaction and uptake is paramount. The study also revealed that lack
635 of herbal medicine for the newborn in some hospital deter skilled deliveries.
636 Pregnant women take the traditional herbs to ensure their health and that of their
637 babies. The finding concurs with Rono *et al* who narrates that these herbs are
638 composed of traditional roots, which are boiled and the women drink on a daily
639 basis [19]. The use of herbs also documented in South Africa [24] and Asia [34].

640 **5. CONCLUSION**

641 Pregnancy and delivery are just not biomedical process but cultural domiciled
642 biosocial function shaped by an interplay of individual, communal and supernatural
643 functions. Continued care, known support, placenta management, geophagy,
644 controlled food ways and regulated social interaction are sound maternal indigenous
645 practices. However, folk activities such as the use of charms and repertoires for
646 protection and cleansing ceremonies provide false hope.

647 **6. RECOMMENDATIONS**

648 There is need to filter, embrace and integrate harmless indigenous practices into
649 maternity care services and course to enhance client centered maternal health
650 services. Additionally, this paper suggest ANC health education and promotion
651 include demystification of detrimental social remedies.

652 **Ethical Approval And Consent**

653
654 The study was approved Kenyatta University Ethical and Research Committee
655 KU/ERC/APPROVAL/VOL.1 (164), Kenya-National Commission of Science,
656 Technology and Innovation NACOSTI/P/18/41197/21776) and Elgeyo Marakwet
657 County government EMC/CDMS/GC/2018 (39). Participant consent has been collected
658 and preserved by the authors.

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661 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

662 Authors have declared that no competing interests exist

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