**Knowledge, Attitudes and Behaviors of Traditional Health Practices Among Cambodian Women (15-35 Years) Living In Massachusetts**

**ABSTRACT**

Cambodian immigrants have become a large population group in the United States since late 1970s. Traditional heath practices and alcohol consumption during pregnancy and lactation have both been associated with risks of maternal and child health in previous research. However, these associations have never been investigated in the Cambodian immigrant population. The mechanism for the potential interaction is that the traditional health practice, the use of *sraa t’nam*, which is an alcohol concoction usually consumed during postpartum period, may increase risks for both mothers and children. *Sraa t’nam* is the traditional alcohol and drinking alcohol during pregnancy and whilelactation is not recommended. This study examined the knowledge, attitudes and behaviors of traditional health practices among Cambodian women aged between 15-35 years old living in Massachusetts. Health insurance, acculturation and food security scores were not independently associated with the dependent variable. The odds of ‘ever used *sraa t’nam*’ were higher (OR 1.67, CI 1.10, 2.51, p<0.05) with every one unit or one person increase in household size, after adjusting for covariates. Similarly, women with at least one child had a 4.54 odds (CI 1.24, 16.5) of reporting that they ‘ever used *sraa* *t’nam*’ compared to women with no children (p<0.05). U.S.-born women (OR 0.12, CI 0.02, 0.83, p<0.05) and those with more than a high school education (OR 0.13, CI 0.02, 0.71, p<0.05) had lower odds of having ‘ever used *sraa t’nam*’. Age was independently associated with having ‘ever used *sraa t’nam*’ (OR 1.32, CI 1.01, 1.74, p<0.05); for every year older, the odds of ever using *sraa t’nam* increased by 0.32 units. In summary, women who lived in larger households, had at least one child, were foreign-born, had less education, or were older in age had higher odds of reporting that they had ‘ever used *sraa t’nam*’. Univariate analyses tested for associations between intention to breastfeed, age,smoking status, and intention to use *sraa t’nam*. Age was positively associated with the intention to breastfeed (OR=1.26, p<0.05), and smoking was also positively associated with the intention to breastfeed (OR=4.81, p<0.05).

**TABLE OF CONTENTS**

ABSTRACT……………………………………………………………………………..III

LIST OF TABLES……………………………………………………………………....VII

LIST OF FIGURES……………………………………………………………………

VIII

CHAPTER

1. INTRODUCTION ……………………………………………………………………1
2. LITERATURE REVIEW…………………………………………………………...... 6 2.1 Physical and Mental Health Status of Cambodians in the U.S…………………... 6 2.1.1 Physical Health Status……………………………………………………. 6

2.1.2 Mental Health Status……………………………………………………... 7

2.1.3 Access to Health Care……………………………………………………. 8

2.2 Maternal and Child Health……………………………………………………...... 9

2.2.1 Risk Factors…………………………………………………………….... 9

2.2.2 Food Insecurity among Mothers and Children…………………………..10

2.2.3 Alcohol Use during Pregnancy and while Breastfeeding………………. 12 2.3 Acculturation and Traditional Health Practices……………………………….... 14 2.3.1 Definition and Measurement of Acculturation…………………………. 14

2.3.2 Acculturation Stress……………………………………………………...14

2.3.3 Traditional Health Practices…………………………………………….. 15

2.4 The Tradition of *Sraa T’nam* Use………………………………………………. 15

2.5 Intention to breastfeeding………………………………………………………. 17

2.6 Theoretical framework…………………………………………………………. 17

2.7 Conceptual framework…………………………………………………………. 45

1. PURPOSE OF STUDY…………………………………………………………….. 47
2. METHODS…………………………………………………………………………. 49 4.1 Community-Based Participatory Research……………………………………... 49

4.2 Recruitment……………………………………………………………………... 49

4.3 Sample…………………………………………………………………………... 50

4.4 Training and Data Collection…………………………………………………… 50

4.5 Data Analysis…………………………………………………………………… 52

1. RESULTS…………………………………………………………………………… 54

V

1. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION………………………………………………. 61 BIBLIOGRAPHY………………………………………………………………………. 66

VI

**LIST OF TABLES**

Table Page

2.1: Studies that examine factors associated with the use of traditional health

practices 19

2.2: Studies examining factors associated with women’s intention to breastfeed………39

5.1: Sample characteristics of Pregnant and Non-Pregnant Cambodian Women (15-35 y)

living in Massachusetts (n=162)…………………………………………………………55

5.2: Odds ratios for associations between ever used *sraa t’nam* and socio-demographic,

psychometric, food security variables among Cambodian (15-35 y) in Massachusetts

(n=162)…………………………………………………………………………………58

5.3: Logistic regression associations between intention to breastfeed and intention to use

*sraa t’nam* after pregnancy among pregnant Cambodian women (15 -35 y) in

Massachusetts (n=56)…………………………………………………………………...60

VII

**LIST OF FIGURES**

Figure Page

1. Conceptual framework for describing the associations between knowledge, attitudes and behaviors related to *sraa t’nam* and sociodemographic factors among Cambodian women ages 15-35 years living in Massachusetts…………………………………… 46

VIII

**CHAPTER 1**

**INTRODUCTION**

Immigrants have become the fastest growing population in the U.S (1). In 2015, the population of foreign-born individuals living in the U.S. was over 43 million, making up

13.4% of the nation’s population (2). Refugees comprised approximately 3 million of the migrant population that has resettled in the U.S. since 1980 (3). Compared to other racial groups, Asians experienced the fastest growth rate in the U.S., estimated at 72% from 2000-2015 and resulting in a population of 20.4 million (2). Based on the 2010 U.S. Census, 28.6% of all foreign-born residents were from Asia and among these, more than 270,000 were of Cambodian decent (2).

Cambodian refugees in the U.S. were resettled primarily from refugee camps in

Southeast Asia to the U.S. in the late 1970’s to early 1990’s (4). From 1975-1979,

Cambodia went through an intense civil war, genocide, and internal displacement under

the Khmer Rouge regime (5). Since the early 1980s, over 150,000 Cambodians have

immigrated to the U.S. as refugees (4). Approximately 10% of all Cambodians in the U.S.

reside in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts (9). The City of Lowell, MA, is home to

the second largest population of Cambodians in the U.S. (9), claiming an estimated 23.5%

of all foreign born residents (9). Most Cambodians live in the historically impoverished

sections of Lowell, the Acre and Lower Highlands (9). Upon entry to the U.S.,

Cambodian refugees mostly had low-level agricultural skills, poor literacy in Khmer,

limited or no English language proficiency, low educational attainment, poor health status,

and had experienced significant trauma (6, 7, 8), many of which are risk factors for

1

long-term poor health outcomes (27).

The conditions facing women living in Cambodia are directly related to the health situation of Cambodian women living in the U.S. given the high number of foreign-born Asians in the U.S., and more specifically the exposures to poor health conditions in Cambodia that may impact the health outcomes of the large number of foreign-born Cambodian women in our study. Improving maternal and child health is a global priority (10), as well as a national priority in Cambodia (10). Each year, approximately 2,900 Cambodian women and girls die from pregnancy-related complications (11), a leading cause of death in the country (12), and around 58,000 to 87,000 women and girls suffer from pregnancy-related disabilities in Cambodia (11). Maternal mortality ratio is defined as the number of maternal deaths per 100,000 births during a specified time. In 2006, the maternal mortality ratio was 540 deaths per 100,000 births, compared to 11 deaths per 100,000 births in the United States in the same year (11). Although the efforts have been made to increase the availability of medical services, a majority of women in Cambodia still do not have access to high-quality and long-term reproductive health care (11). Barriers preventing Cambodian women from accessing health care include high medical costs, lack of transportation, limited availability of skilled health professionals and resources, discrimination, language barriers, and traditional beliefs (11). From the Cambodian Demographic and Health Survey, risk factors that negatively impact maternal and child health include young age at first birth, short birth intervals, high fertility rates, high levels of malnutrition, high rates of anemia, and high levels of malaria (13).

Prenatal care and post-partum care are critical periods to optimizing maternal and child health (10, 14, 15). Prenatal care, including iron-folate supplementations,

2

assessment of weight gain, and maternal and fetal care through monthly check-ups has been shown to improve maternal health (16), birth outcomes (17), and infant health (16, 17). Post-partum practices, such as breastfeeding, are protective of infant health and have long-term implications for child health (18). Breastfeeding is recommended as the optimal infant option by the Word Health Organization (WHO) and the American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) (19). However, the breastfeeding initiation rates among Cambodians in the U.S. have averaged 28% over the past 10 years (41) and there is a 4% decrease in breastfeeding rates for every year of residence in the U.S. among immigrants (41).

Passed down from one generation to the next, traditional medicinal practices seek to promote optimal health and achieve balance (22). Traditional health practices are defined as the sum of knowledge; skills and practices based on different cultural beliefs, and are used in maintaining and improving physical, mental and physical health (22). Within Cambodian culture several traditional health practices are encouraged for the protection of maternal and child health (20, 21). *Sraa t’nam* (translation: wine medicine) is a traditional medicinal botanical and alcohol-based elixir that is prepared during pregnancy and consumed after childbirth within the Cambodian community (20). Consumption of *sraa t’nam* is believed to promote milk production, warm the mother’s body, and help“clean” the reproductive system (20, 23). However, depending on frequency of consumption and alcohol concentration, consuming *sraa t’nam*, an alcohol-based elixir, during the antenatal and postnatal period has the potential to adversely affect maternal and infant health due to the concentration of alcohol in the elixir (42).

Sraa t’nam as the traditional alcohol concoction is usually consumed during

3

postpartum period (20). Consumption of alcohol during pregnancy is public health concern given that it is the leading cause of fetal alcohol syndrome disorders (FASD) and other adverse health outcomes (24, 25, 26), including spontaneous abortions (27), decreased birth weight (28), and increased risk of growth retardation in newborns (29). Alcohol intake was significantly related to infant IQ decrement and child hyperactivity or inattention at 81 months of age (30). Furthermore, 30% of newborns of heavy drinkers demonstrated microcephaly and multiple congenital anomalies compared to 9% among abstinent or moderate drinkers (31). Compared to the well-documented harmful effects of excessive alcohol consumption during pregnancy (32), the consequences of alcohol intake among breastfeeding mothers have been far less examined (33, 34). Some evidence points to concerns related to psychomotor delays in infants (35) and suppression of breastmilk production and inhibition of the milk ejection reflex (36, 37). Given increasing global rates of alcohol consumption and associated negative health impacts, the World Health Assembly endorsed an international strategy to address harmful alcohol use (38). This global strategy emphasizes the need for policies and interventions to reduce harmful alcohol use among women of childbearing age, as well as those who are pregnant and/or lactating (39).

Traditional health practices such as *sraa t’nam* use are not typically considered in health screenings by obstretic/gyneocology practitioners and other medical providers in the U.S (40). Greater reliance on this and other traditional health practices may result from low acculturation rates and poor access to, utilization of, and/or negative experiences in the U.S. health system (30, 40). There is a fundamental gap in understanding the potential health risks and benefits of consuming *sraa t’nam* during

4

pregnancy and while breastfeeding among Cambodian women in the U.S. To our knowledge, *sraa t’nam* as a maternal health practice and its associations with socio-demographic factors, acculturation, and poverty indicators has not been previously examined in the literature. The purpose of this study was to explore the associations between socio-demographic factors and knowledge, attitudes and maternal health practices related to *sraa t’nam*, a traditional alcohol-based elixir, among Cambodian women in the U.S.

5

**CHAPTER 2**

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

**2.1 Physical and Mental Health Status of Cambodians in the U.S**

**2.1.1 Physical Health Status**

Refugees flee homeland environments due to political, economic, religious or environmental circumstances. Most refugees experience internal displacement and leave with limited supplies. Their health status is compromised by exposure to infectious diseases, unsanitary environments, malnutrition, and poor conditions for shelter (41, 42). Refugees often arrive in their host countries with higher rates of infectious and parasitic diseases such as tuberculosis (43, 44), malaria (45), hepatitis (46), and other diseases (47). Over time, refugees also experience higher rates of chronic diseases including cancer (48), diabetes (49, 50), and cardiovascular diseases (50, 51).

Chronic diseases are major health concerns in the U.S. Cambodian community (52). A study conducted in 2008 with 459 Cambodian, Vietnamese, Somali and Bosnian refugees revealed higher prevalence rates of hypertension (42% vs. 25.8%) and diabetes (15.5% vs. 8%) in these refugee populations compared to the general U.S. population 18 years of age or older (53, 54, 55). In Long Beach, California, home of the largest Cambodian community in the U.S., a significantly higher prevalence of diabetes, hypertension and hyperlipidemia was observed among Cambodians compared to the U.S. population (56). Marshall et al. (2016) reported that Cambodians diagnosed with hypertension or hyperlipidemia were less likely to have their blood pressure and total

6

cholesterol under control compared to other ethnic groups in the U.S (56). These findings were consistent with a study by Koch-Weser et al. (2006) on self-reported health among Cambodians living in Lowell, Massachusetts, which comprises the 2nd largest Cambodian population in the U.S (57).

**2.1.2 Mental Health Status**

Cambodian refugees experienced significant and prolonged trauma due to adverse experiences during their civil war, including torture, witnessing genocide, separation from family, and significant loss of family members in Cambodia from1970 to 1991(58). Chan et al. (2004) reported that Cambodian refugees displayed the highest rates of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and depression with symptoms persisting for a longer periods of time compared to all other Southeast Asian refugee populations (58). PTSD is an established mental disorder that develops after experiencing trauma (59). The long-term effects of trauma are an important cause of the high prevalence of depression and other mental disorders observed among refugees and immigrants, which in turn raises serious public health concerns (58, 60).

Depression is a common but serious mental health disorder leading to symptoms that affect how people feel, think and function on a daily basis (59). It can occur at any life stage and affects around 5% of the global population (59); the rate is higher (6.9%) in the U.S., with an estimated 15.7 million American adults over age 18 experiencing depression (61). Women suffer from depression at higher rates than men (59). Major depression was reported by 51% and PTSD by 63% of Cambodian refugees resettled in the U.S. prior to 1993 (60). A more recent assessment by the Lowell Community Health

7

Center Reach 2010 project and the Cambodian Mutual Assistance Association (CMAA), found that 43% of Cambodian women, aged 30 to 65 years, self-reported indicators of depression (62).

Immigration (particularly for refugee families, or migrants from war torn countries) is a stressful process for most affected individuals (63, 64, 65). Compared to U.S.-born individuals, first-generation immigrants are at higher risk of mental health disorders (66). Among immigrants, the combination of self-imposed pressure from settling into a new country and the lack of communication skills increases risk for depression (67). The stressors resulting from racism and/or discrimination are also significant risk factors for depression in subsequent generations within immigrant families (68). These findings are supported by the immigrant paradox, which contends that subsequent generations of children born to immigrants experience poorer health, educational, and developmental outcomes (69). Portes et al. (2008) argues that the cultural context in which an individual’s socialization takes place is a determinant of successful adaption to a new environment (70).

**2.1.3 Access to Health Care**

Turcotte and Vidrine (2013) reported that maternal health indicators, such as low birth weight and late prenatal care, are higher in the Lowell Cambodian population, compared to the state average, furthermore an upward trend in infant mortality rates were observed in the same population, from 2006-2011 (71). Health disparities exist in different racial and ethnic groups in the U.S., influenced in part by poor access to quality health care services and structural racism (72). In 2012, the US Department of Health and

8

Human Services reported that immigrants had limited access to health care and health service programs due to several factors including literacy, cultural barriers, climates of mistrust, transportation and other logistical challenges (73). Data from the Center of Disease Control-funded Racial and Ethnic Approaches to Community Health (REACH) survey conducted in Lowell, MA, found that less than half of the Cambodian population aged 25 years or older ever reported having their blood cholesterol checked, while nearly 20% of Cambodians surveyed reported having high blood pressure (74). Another study reported that Cambodian women in Lowell, MA, had the lowest rate of adequate prenatal care of all Massachusetts women (75), indicating the potential for risks to maternal and child health.

**2.2 Maternal and Child Health**

**2.2.1 Risk Factors**

Maternal and child health (MCH) is a strong indicator of the overall population health of a country or region. It is also a top public health concern, consequently the U.S. Healthy People 2020 listed maternal, infant, and child health as one of the high-priority topics to be addressed in the U.S (76). Considering the range of factors influencing health outcomes within families, efforts to improve MCH in the U.S. requires a comprehensive understanding of social and cultural determinants of health (77).

A body of literature has shown that refugee women were one of the most vulnerable groups for poor MCH outcomes, with the perinatal period placing new mothers and their infants at even greater risk. Johnson et al. (2005) reported that Somali refugees in

9

Washington State suffered poorer maternal and infant health status compared to both Black and White populations in the U.S. (78). A recent review confirmed a series of cultural, socioeconomic and individual factors that relate to, and create barriers for immigrant women during the postpartum period in Canada (79). A 2010 study with twelve Sudanese women in Canada found that, due to difficulty in access to and utilization of maternity care services, traditional beliefs strongly impacted women’s behaviors and perceptions during the perinatal period (80). The differences in social support between home- and host country may also play a role in health outcomes. Quintanilha et al. (2016) found that northeastern African women in Canada had limited access to emotional and instrumental support from the family and the community during pregnancy and postpartum (81). Food insecurity, which affects a high percentage of refugee and immigrant women (82), is also a risk factor for poor maternal and child health outcomes (83).

Alcohol use during pregnancy and while breastfeeding can have adverse health effects on maternal and infant health. Lee et al. (2008) found that 63% of Laotian and Cambodian women, aged 15-87 years and living in the San Francisco Bay Area, reported alcohol consumption compared to 65% among males in the study, a national rate of 54.5% and a rate of 37.4% for all Asians in the U.S. (135). All these factors need to be considered in MCH programming for refugee and immigrant populations.

**2.2.2 Food Insecurity among Mothers and Children**

Food insecurity, which affects a high percentage of refugee and immigrant women (84), is also a risk factor for poor MCH outcomes (85, 86, 87). Food insecurity is

10

defined as limited or uncertain access to sufficient nutritious and safe food or limited ability to access the foods (88). Based on NHANES data from 2005-2010, people who were food insecure were more likely to be younger, females, Hispanics, non-Hispanic black, unmarried, less educated and to live in households with children (84). A multi-state nutritional assessment program in the U.S. among over 2,000 low-income households with young children found that infants and toddlers from food-insecure families were more likely to be at developmental risk compared to those from food secure households (88).

Breastfeeding is a significant and important indicator of MCH outcomes (90). In a Canadian study, household food insecurity was found to be a determinant of breastfeeding initiation, however, severe food insecurity compromised maternal food intake and breastfeeding success (91). Food insecurity was also associated with poor health among children, and poorer developmental outcomes in their later lives (92, 93). Earlier studies have found statistically significant associations between low household food security and poor physical and mental health outcomes (94). Therefore, understanding health risks faced by women experiencing low household food security is critical to developing sound programs and policies to improve MCH outcomes.

Refugees and immigrants are particularly vulnerable to food insecurity given their poor socioeconomic status and limited social support than other higher income U.S.-born residents (95). Peterman et al. (2013) found that 16.7% percentage of Cambodian women aged 35-60 living in Lowell, MA, reported that their households were food insecure (96). This rate was 50% higher than the national rate and more than twice the rate of household food insecurity in Massachusetts for a comparable timeframe (97).

11

**2.2.3 Alcohol Use During Pregnancy and While Breastfeeding**

Alcohol consumption during pregnancy and lactation is both a national and global public health concern (98). Alcohol use during pregnancy and while breastfeeding can have detrimental health effects on MCH, particularly among immigrants where prenatal care may be suboptimal (98). Consumption of alcohol during pregnancy is the leading cause of fetal alcohol syndrome disorders (FASD) and other adverse health outcomes (24, 25, 26). Fetal alcohol syndrome (FAS) is characterized by craniofacial malformations, neurological and motor deficits, intrauterine growth retardation, learning disabilities, and behavioral and social deficits (24). Alcohol consumption in pregnancy has been associated with spontaneous abortions (27), decreased birth weight (28). and increased risk of growth-retardation in newborns (29). Alcohol intake was significantly related to infant IQ decrement (30), child hyperactivity or inattention at 81 months of age (30), and 30% of newborns of heavy drinkers demonstrated microcephaly and multiple congenital anomalies compared to 9% of the abstinent or moderate drinkers (31).

From 1990 to 2011, 8 studies in 4 different countries (U.S., Norway, Australia, and New Zealand) reported that 36% to 83% of women that breastfed their infants had consumed alcohol (99). Compared to the well-documented harmful effects of excessive alcohol consumption during pregnancy (32), the consequences of alcohol intake among breastfeeding mothers have been far less examined (33, 34). Although the effects of alcohol use during lactation are not well established, some evidence points to concerns related to psychomotor delays in infants (35), suppression of breastmilk production and inhibition of the milk ejection reflex (36, 37).

12

An estimated 14.8% of pregnant (100) and 36% of breastfeeding (101) women in the U.S. reported drinking alcohol. In comparison, 23% of Cambodian women in the U.S. reported alcohol consumption during pregnancy (102), with an unknown prevalence of alcohol use among breastfeeding women in this community. Although refugee populations are found to have an increased risk for alcohol and substance use following trauma (103), Marshall et al. (2005) found no association between alcohol use disorder and trauma, depression, and PTSD among Cambodian refugees in the U.S (104). A five-year longitudinal study in Washington State among 147 Cambodian women and 155 Vietnamese women found the rate of alcohol use was low (26.8%) among this sample (105). Supporting these findings, D’Amico et al. (2007) found a very low percentage (2%) of Cambodian refugees in the U.S reported heavy drinking in the past 30 days (106). In contrast, Lee et al. (2008) found that the prevalence of alcohol consumption was 68% among Laotians and Cambodians in the San Francisco Bay Area, a rate that exceeds national rates for Asians (37.4%) and the general U.S. population (54.5%) (135). Lee et al. (2008) also found that alcohol consumption was normative and that respondents reported on the use and alcohol potency of herbal infusions typically used for medicinal purposes (135). Based on qualitative data, some underage drinkers of Southeast Asian heritage living in the San Francisco Bay area reported consuming ‘herbs’ or traditional alcohol-based herbal infusions if they wanted to get drunk (135). Further research is needed to investigate use of alcohol in refugee and immigrant populations, particularly among pregnant and lactating women. Furthermore, understanding the context for alcohol use is critical to prevention of alcohol use during this vulnerable period of the life course. Collins and McNair (2002) found that “women’s drinking patterns are influenced by the

13

cultural norms and practices of the ethnic groups to which they belong, in addition to other environmental and biological factors” (136).

Given increasing global rates of alcohol consumption and associated negative health impacts, the World Health Assembly endorsed an international strategy to address harmful alcohol use (107). This global strategy emphasizes the need for policies and interventions to reduce harmful alcohol use among women of childbearing age, as well as those who are pregnant and/or lactating (107).

**2.3 Acculturation and Traditional Health Practices**

**2.3.1 Definition and Measurement of Acculturation**

Acculturation is defined as a multi-dimensional construct that describes the process by which immigrants adapt to a host country’s norms, values, and lifestyles, as well as maintain affiliation to their home country’s cultural practices (108). A number of indicators are used to measure acculturation, such as English language proficiency, nativity, length of time lived in the U.S., language preference, adherence to home country culture, and several acculturation scales measures for cultural behaviors and interactions (109). However, there is currently no standardized measure of acculturation.

**2.3.2 Acculturative Stress**

The role of acculturation on immigrant physical and mental health is critical to understand. Low levels of acculturation may lead to isolation from the mainstream population, as well as increased stress and barriers to communicating with native-born residents. The “immigrant paradox” has been reported by several studies where

14

acculturated immigrants are more likely to interact with the larger society, and thus more likely to experience discrimination and have increased level of stress (110, 111). Immigrants with higher acculturation scores have been found to experience poorer health than their less acculturated peers (111). However, less acculturated immigrants could also be at greater risk of physical and mental health problems due to limited economic and social support or opportunities (112, 113, 114).

**2.3.3 Traditional Health Practices**

Acculturation influences traditional health practices (115), which are used to maintain and improve physical and mental health (116). Traditional health practices typically rely on practical experiences and observations passed from one generation to the next generation (117). The U.S. National Health Survey (2017) revealed that 38.3% of adults and 11.8% of children aged 17 years and under, reported use of herbal and other botanical traditional practices (118). A descriptive study of Cambodian women in the U.S. found that even though the participants had lived in the U.S for many years, 90% knew and practiced some traditional dietary habits including consumption of soup, *sraa t'nam*, black pepper, and ginger (119). Table 1 presents studies that examine factors associated with the use of traditional health practices.

**2.4 The Tradition of *Sraa T’nam* Use**

*Sraa t’nam* (translation: wine medicine) is a traditional medicinal botanical and alcohol-based elixir that is often prepared during pregnancy and consumed after childbirth (120). Passed down from one generation to the next, traditional Cambodian

15

postpartum care practices, such as *sraa t’nam use,* seek to promote optimal health (121). In Cambodia, women are encouraged to practice postpartum care to optimize their health after childbirth (122). These practices include no expression of strong emotions or “thinking too much” (123), “roasting” on a bamboo bed (123), wearing warm clothes or being wrapped in blankets (124), restricted diet with “hot” foods served during this period (123), consumption of herbal infusions and *sraa t’nam* (123, 125), and other practices (126). It is believed that women who do not follow these postpartum practices may experience negative health consequences such as joint pain, headaches, premature aging, or infertility (125). These traditional practices are often performed over a set period of time (123). For example, women in Cambodia are encouraged to lie next to a hot fire or start “roasting” immediately after giving birth and continue doing this for at least one week (123). ‘Roasting’ is believed to keep the mother’s body warm, help her body regain balance, and to prevent blood clotting and hypertension (124). Similarly, hot foods and alcohol-based elixirs such as *sraa t’nam* are consumed to promote milk production, warm the mother’s body, and help ‘clean’ the reproductive system (123-126).

However, consuming *sraa t’nam* during the antenatal and postnatal period may also have adverse effects on maternal and infant health due to the alcohol content of the elixir. While *sraa t’nam* in Cambodia utilizes home-brewed rice wine as an extraction agent (135), vodka is typically used in *sraa t’nam* preparations in the U.S. (40, 135). Local service providers in the U.S. indicated that traditional preparation of herbal tonics in the Southeast Asian community typically involved home-brewed rice wine which is a ‘white” alcohol (135). Since traditional rice wine is not readily available in the U.S., Southeast Asian refugees substituted vodka, gin or other ‘white’ liquors in their herbal infusions

16

(135). Traditional health practices, such as *sraa t’nam* use, are not typically considered in health screenings by medical providers in the U.S (127, 128). And greater reliance on *sraa t’nam* and other traditional health practices may result from poor access, utilization,and/or negative experiences in the U.S. healthcare system (127, 128).

**2.5 Intention to Breastfeeding**

Breastfeeding is recommended to optimize maternal and child health by both WHO and the American Association of Pediatrics (137). The results from a cross-sectional analysis of the Cambodian Demographic Health Surveys from 2000, 2005 and 2010 revealed that the rates of exclusive breastfeeding and early initiation of breastfeeding has increased since 2000. Evidence indicates that intention to breastfeed is positively associated extended breastfeeding (129). Predictors of intention to breastfeed include previous breastfeeding experience, self-efficacy, breastfeeding knowledge and perceived social support (Table 2). Additional significant predictors of breastfeeding practice are maternal education level (129), number of household members (130), parity (131), maternal age (132), smoking (133), and maternal current work (134).

**2.6 Theoretical Frameworks**

*Knowledge, Attitudes, and Behavior Model (KABM)*

The knowledge-attitude-behavior model (KABM), also known as knowledge-attitudes-skills behavior model, is a well-established theoretical model used in public health (138). The model proposes that knowledge accumulation and a change in attitudescan lead to behavior change (138). The model can be used to enhance the

17

knowledge and attitudes in order to facilitate behavior change (138).

*Social Ecological Model(SEM)*

The social ecological model is a multi-level approach to assessing the influence of independent variables on an outcome of interest (139). The model includes five components and they are individual, interpersonal, organization, community, and policy. The model is used to examine the person-environmental interactions and is well-established in public health and nutrition research (139).

18

**Table 2.1**. Studies that examine factors associated with the use of traditional health practices.

**Author/Year/Title** **Predictors/Determinants** **Findings**

Rashrash M et al. (2017) Prevalence and Predictors of Herbal Medicine Use among Adults in the United States

* Educational attainment
* Medicine use
* Chronic diseases
* Age

“Factors associated with herbal supplement use include age older than 70, having a higher than a high school education, using prescription medications or over-the-counter (OTC) medications, and using a mail-order pharmacy. All disease states were associated significantly with herbal use. The most frequent conditions

19

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  |  | associated with |
|  |  |  |  | herbal supplement |
|  |  |  |  | use were a stroke |
|  |  |  |  | (48.7%), cancer |
|  |  |  |  | (43.1%), and |
|  |  |  |  | arthritis (43.0%). |
|  |  |  |  | Among herbal |
|  |  |  |  | product users, |
|  |  |  |  | factors that |
|  |  |  |  | predicted use |
|  |  |  |  | included having |
|  |  |  |  | higher than school |
|  |  |  |  | education, using |
|  |  |  |  | OTC medications, |
|  |  |  |  | using mail-order |
|  |  |  |  | pharmacy, stroke, |
|  |  |  |  | obesity, arthritis, |
|  |  |  |  | and breathing |
|  |  |  |  | problems.” |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Duru CB et al. (2017) | • | Educational attainment | “Results revealed |
|  | Health Care Seeking Behavior | • | Household income | that, while just |
|  | and Predictors of Cambined | • Knowledge of health care | | more than half of |
|  | Orthodox and Traditional | • Attitudes towards seeking health care | | the respondents |
|  |  |  |  |  |

20

Health Care Utilization among

Households in Communities in

Owerri, Imo State, Nigeria

* Female
* Traders
* Polygamous families

(56.4%) had a

moderate to good

level of overall

knowledge of

health care, almost

all of the

respondents

(96.2%) also had a

moderate to good

level of overall

positive attitude

towards seeking

health care; with

less than one third

(29.4%) using

combined orthodox

and traditional

health care

treatments.

Respondents who

were female, traders

and from

households of

21

polygamous

families were

significantly more

likely to use

combined orthodox

and traditional

health care

treatments (p<0.05)

while those with a

tertiary level of

education, from

households with a

professional as

head, having private

water closet toilets

and earning a

monthly income of

more than 50,000

Naira ($140) were

significantly less

likely to use

combined orthodox

and traditional

22

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  |  | health care |
|  |  |  |  | treatments.” |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Banda Y et al. (2007) | • | Alcohol drinking | No demographic |
|  | Use of Traditional Medicine | • | Sex partners | differences noted |
|  | among Pregnant Women in | • | Oral contraceptive use | between users and |
|  | Lusaka, Zambia |  |  | non-users. “Women |
|  |  |  |  | who reported use of |
|  |  |  |  | traditional medicine |
|  |  |  |  | were more likely to |
|  |  |  |  | drink alcohol |
|  |  |  |  | during pregnancy, |
|  |  |  |  | have ≥2 sex |
|  |  |  |  | partners, engage in |
|  |  |  |  | “dry sex,” initiate |
|  |  |  |  | sex with their |
|  |  |  |  | partner, report a |
|  |  |  |  | previously treated |
|  |  |  |  | sexually transmitted |
|  |  |  |  | disease, and use |
|  |  |  |  | contraception.” |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  | NCCIH/NIH (2007) | • | Female | In the United States, |
|  | The Use of Complementary and | • | Higher education levels | approximately 38 |
|  | Alternative Medicine in the | • | Higher incomes | percent of adults |
|  |  |  |  |  |

23

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | U.S. |  | (about 4 in 10) and |
|  |  |  | approximately 12 |
|  |  |  | percent of children |
|  |  |  | (about 1 in 9) are |
|  |  |  | using some form of |
|  |  |  | Complementary or |
|  |  |  | Alternative |
|  |  |  | Medicine. |
|  |  |  |  |
|  | Health Care-Seeking among | • Barriers to health care | Access barriers, |
|  | Latino Immigrants: Blocked | • Concerns about immigration status. | speaking of long |
|  | Access, Use of Traditional |  | waits, rudeness, |
|  | Medicine, and the Role of |  | being hurried |
|  | Religion |  | through the system |
|  |  |  | without medical |
|  |  |  | explanations, and |
|  |  |  | expense problems. |
|  |  |  | “By far, the most |
|  |  |  | frequently |
|  |  |  | expressed |
|  |  |  | complaint (65%) |
|  |  |  | concerned long |
|  |  |  | waits; some |
|  |  |  | complained that |
|  |  |  |  |

24

they had to wait

between six and 12

hours for service.

Rudeness once

served and being

hurried through

without information

was mentioned by

35%, language and

communication

problems by 41%,

and expense

problems by 51%.

“Cultural

alternatives as

preferred treatment

and coping

strategies: In

response to barriers

to health access, we

found that Latino

immigrants work

out alternative

25

strategies. Some

begin with home

remedies and other

traditional

medications, a

course of action that

is familiar and

involves little risk.

Others first seek

mainstream care

with doctors and

clinics, but if

unsuccessful in

“cracking the

system” turn to the

alternative package

of health care

behaviors. We

found that the

alternatives

mentioned most

were herbal and

home remedies

26

purchased in

*botánicas* and

markets, use of folk

healers, the use of

doctors and/or

medicines from

Mexico, and the use

of spiritual

elements such as

personal prayer.”

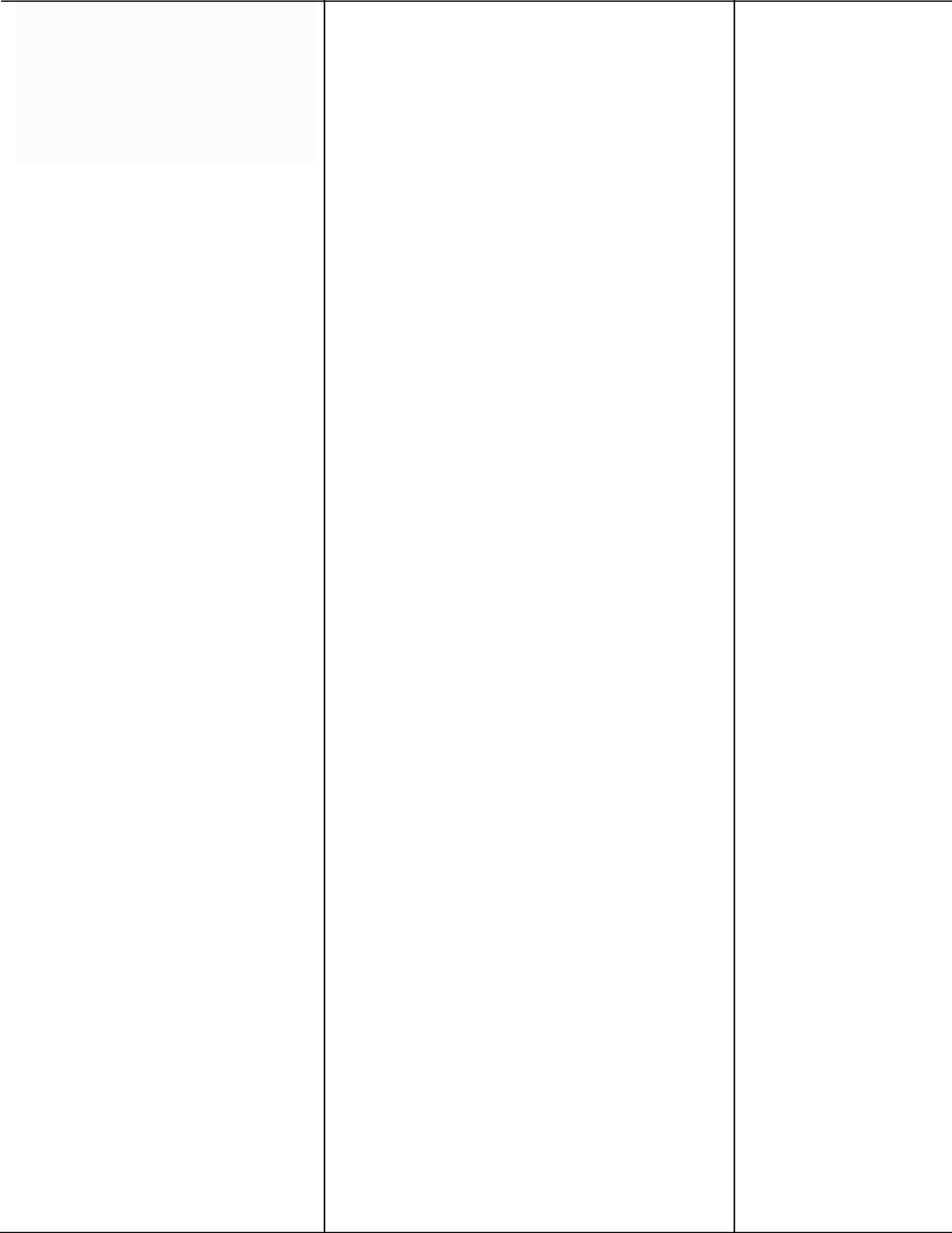
27

The Use of Traditional and

Western Medicine Among

Korean American Elderly

* Public health insurance
* Lower rate of having a regular doctor
* Lower rates of health care service



“The traditional medicine only group was more dependent on public health insurance than were the others, and none of those using only traditional medicine had private health insurance. Regarding the source of care, those using only traditional medicine had a lower rate (75%) of having a regular doctor than did the other two user groups (94% each). Therefore, the rate of having a regular medical

28

checkup in the

traditional only and

non-user groups

was far below those

reported in the other

two user groups

(13% and 12%,

respectively, as

compared to 61%

and 66% of those

using only Western

medicine or both

types of medicine).

Those in the

traditional medicine

only (37.5%) and

the non-user groups

(18.2%) received a

significantly lower

rate of health care

service, as

compared to those

using only Western

29

medicine (72.7%)

or both types of

medicine (77.8%).”

30

The use of Traditional

Medicine by Ghanaians in

Canada

* Acculturation
* Religion

“Research into

health and

health-care seeking

behaviour amongst

immigrant

populations

suggests that

culturally-based

behaviours change

over time towards

those prevalent in

the host culture.

Such acculturation

of immigrant

groups occurs as

part of the

interaction of

immigrants with

mainstream culture.

73% of the

Ghanaian

immigrants in

Canada have a

31

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  |  | positive attitude |  |
|  |  |  |  | toward Ghanaian |  |
|  |  |  |  | TRM. There is the |  |
|  |  |  |  | need for health care |  |
|  |  |  |  | providers and other |  |
|  |  |  |  | stakeholders to be |  |
|  |  |  |  | aware of the |  |
|  |  |  |  | influence of |  |
|  |  |  |  | religion on African |  |
|  |  |  |  | immigrants during |  |
|  |  |  |  | their acculturation |  |
|  |  |  |  | process. |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Buchwald D, Beals J, and | • | Male | “Seventy percent of |  |
|  | Manson S. (2000) | • | Education | urban AI/AN |  |
|  | Use of Traditional Health | • | Visiting friends/relatives on a | patients in primary |  |
|  | Practices Among Native |  | reservation | care often used |  |
|  | Americans in a Primary | • | Living the Native way of life and not | traditional health |  |
|  | Care Setting |  | the White way (acculturation) | practices; use was |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | • | Experiencing back pain | strongly associated |  |
|  |  | • | Having a physical injury inflicted by | with cultural |  |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | a family member | affiliation. In |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | bivariate analyses, |  |
|  |  |  |  | use was |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |

32

significantly

associated with

male gender,

cultural affiliation,

poor functional

status, alcohol

abuse, and trauma

and, except for

musculoskeletal

pain, not with

specific medical

problems. The

multiple logistic

regression model

for any use versus

no use was

significant

(*P* ≤0.001). Being

of male gender

(*P*≤0.001), having

more than a high

school education

(*P* ≤0.05), visiting

33

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  | friends/relatives on |
|  |  |  | a reservation |
|  |  |  | (*P* ≤0.01), living the |
|  |  |  | Native way of life |
|  |  |  | (*P* ≤0.001) and not |
|  |  |  | the white way |
|  |  |  | (*P* ≤0.05), |
|  |  |  | experiencing back |
|  |  |  | pain (*P* ≤0.01), and |
|  |  |  | having a physical |
|  |  |  | injury inflicted by a |
|  |  |  | family member |
|  |  |  | (*P* ≤0.001) were |
|  |  |  | predictive of use.” |
|  |  |  |  |
|  | Traditional beliefs and | • Cultural beliefs | “The Hispanic folk |
|  | practices among Mexican |  | illness |
|  | American immigrants with |  | belief *susto* refers to |
|  | type II diabetes: A case study |  | an episode of severe |
|  |  |  | fright, and Mexican |
|  |  |  | American |
|  |  |  | immigrants hold |
|  |  |  | varying views on its |
|  |  |  | relation to diabetes. |
|  |  |  |  |

34

Culturally and in

the

research, *susto* has

also been linked

with

depression. *Sabila* (

aloe vera)

and *nopal* (prickly

pear cactus) are

herbal remedies that

have had

widespread,

longstanding use in

Mexican culture

and while this is not

the gold standard of

research, it does

provide ample

evidence and a

strong cultural

belief that these

therapies work.

There is some

35

evidence in the

literature to support

their efficacy as

glucose‐lowering

agents, but lack of

Food and Drug

Administration

(FDA) regulation,

potential side

effects, and a dearth

of rigorous clinical

trials preclude aloe

vera and *nopal* from

being recommended

therapy.”

36

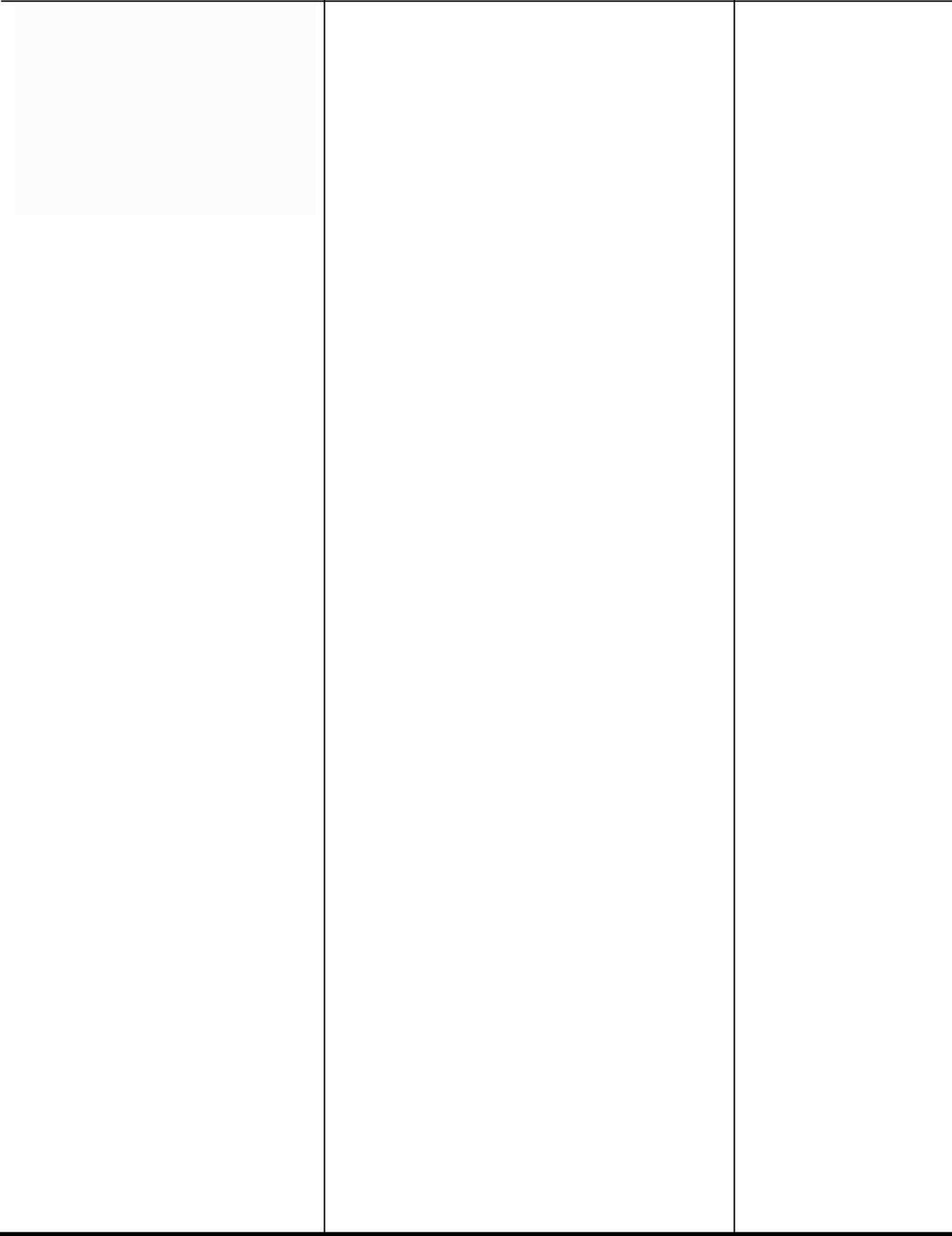
Between Two Worlds: The

Use of Traditional and

Western Health Services by

Chinese Immigrants

* Self-medication
* Low or medium rates of utilization of western and traditional health services
* Travel to country of origin for care



“Results revealed several patterns of health-seeking and service utilization behaviors among the Chinese of Houston and Los Angeles. These included high rates of self-treatment and home remedies (balanced diets and other alternative medicines); medium rates of utilization of integrated Western and traditional health services, including travel to country of origin for care; and low rates of exclusive

37

utilization of

Western or

traditional Chinese

treatments.”

38

**Table 2.2.** Studies examining factors associated with women’s intention to breastfeed.

**Author/Year/Title** **Predictors/Determinants** **Findings**

Amal K. et al. (2004)

Predictors of Breastfeeding

Intention Among Low-Income

Women

* Race/ethnicity
* Educational attainment
* Income level
* Family size
* Parity
* Previous breastfeeding experiences
* Breastfeeding knowledge
* Self-efficacy
* Perceived social support

Bivariate

analyses

showed that

“women who

intended to

breastfeed were

more often

White and had

at least some

college

education,

higher income,

a smaller family

size, fewer

children, and

previous

breastfeeding

experience than

women who did

not intend to

39

breastfeed.

Intenders had

higher levels of

breastfeeding

knowledge and

self-efficacy

and reported

fewer barriers to

breastfeeding

than

non-intenders.

In multivariate

logistic

regression,

fewer children,

past

breastfeeding

experience,

breastfeeding

knowledge,

self-efficacy,

and perceived

social support

40

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  |  | were |
|  |  |  |  | independent |
|  |  |  |  | predictors of |
|  |  |  |  | breastfeeding |
|  |  |  |  | intention.” |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Mclnnes RJ (2001) | • | Previous breastfeeding | “All the factors |
|  | Independent Predictors of |  | experience | were |
|  | Breastfeeding Intention in a | • | Living with a partner | independently |
|  | Disadvantaged Population of | • | Smoking | predictive of |
|  | Pregnant Women | • | Parity | breastfeeding |
|  |  | • | Maternal age | intention. These |
|  |  |  |  | variables could |
|  |  |  |  | be useful in |
|  |  |  |  | identifying |
|  |  |  |  | women at |
|  |  |  |  | greatest risk of |
|  |  |  |  | choosing not to |
|  |  |  |  | breastfeed.” |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Sasaki et al. (2009) | • | Lack of a maternal | Logistic |
|  | Predictors of Exclusive |  | antenatal EBF plan | regression |
|  | Breast-Feeding in Early | • | Working mothers | analysis |
|  | Infancy: A Survey Report from | • | Lack of paternal attendance | indicated “that |
|  | Phnom Penh, Cambodia |  | at breast-feeding classes | the lack of a |
|  |  |  |  |  |

41

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  |  | maternal |
|  |  |  |  | antenatal EBF |
|  |  |  |  | plan, working |
|  |  |  |  | mothers, and |
|  |  |  |  | lack of paternal |
|  |  |  |  | attendance at |
|  |  |  |  | breast-feeding |
|  |  |  |  | classes have |
|  |  |  |  | independently |
|  |  |  |  | positive |
|  |  |  |  | associations with |
|  |  |  |  | cessation of EBF |
|  |  |  |  | during the first 6 |
|  |  |  |  | months of infant |
|  |  |  |  | life.” |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Straub B (2008) | • | Practice traditional | “All participants |
|  | A Descriptive Study of |  | Cambodian diet, or | practiced either |
|  | Cambodian Refugee Infant |  | traditional Cambodian | traditional |
|  | Feeding Practices in the United |  | rituals, or both | Cambodian diet |
|  | States | • | Lived in the U.S. for many | (pregnancy and |
|  |  |  | years | postpartum diet |
|  |  | • | Milk supply | including, *tnam* |
|  |  | • | Return to work | *sraa*, herbs |
|  |  |  |  |  |

42

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  |  | mixed with |
|  |  |  |  | either wine or |
|  |  |  |  | tea), traditional |
|  |  |  |  | Cambodian |
|  |  |  |  | rituals (like |
|  |  |  |  | *spung*, amodified |
|  |  |  |  | sauna) or both, |
|  |  |  |  | despite having |
|  |  |  |  | lived in the U.S. |
|  |  |  |  | for many years. |
|  |  |  |  | Perceived low |
|  |  |  |  | milk supply and |
|  |  |  |  | returning to |
|  |  |  |  | work were the |
|  |  |  |  | main reasons |
|  |  |  |  | cited for partial |
|  |  |  |  | breastfeeding |
|  |  |  |  | and early |
|  |  |  |  | cessation of |
|  |  |  |  | breastfeeding.” |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Senarath U (2010) | • | First-born infants (parity) | “Factors |
|  | Factors Associated with | • | Working mothers | associated with |
|  | Nonexclusive breastfeeding in 5 | • | Maternal age | non-EBF |
|  |  |  |  |  |

43

east and southeast Asian

countries: A multilevel analysis

* Maternal education

included

first-born

infants, working

mothers, and

higher maternal

age.

Communities

with a higher

proportion of

wealthier

households in

Indonesia,

trained delivery

assistance in the

Philippines, and

poor maternal

education in

Vietnam/Cambo

dia were at

greater risk for

non-EBF.”

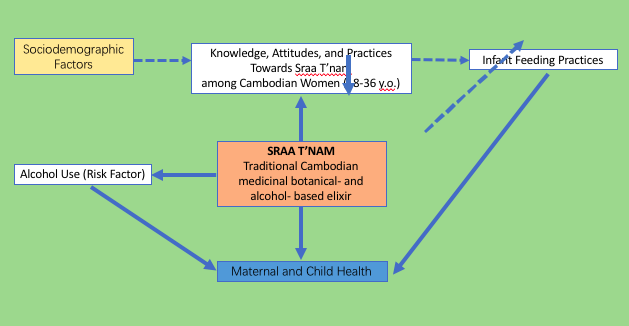
44

**2.7 Conceptual Framework**

The conceptual framework for this study incorporates the Social Ecological Model (SEM) and the Knowledge, Attitudes, and Behaviors Model (KABM). Knowledge and attitudes inform health behaviors, therefore understanding community perspectives in the context of cultural beliefs can advance health disparities research and guide practice in bridging these disparities. Sociodemographic factors can affect knowledge, attitudes and practices toward *sraa t’nam* among Cambodian women in the U.S. For example, women with lower education levels might be more likely to drink *sraa t’nam* due to cultural influences, exhibit greater adherence to traditional practices and/or lack knowledge of conventional health options. The knowledge, attitudes and practices related to traditional health behaviors might in turn influence infant feeding practices, an important indicator of MCH. *Sraa t’nam*, as a medicinal alcohol elixir, may be associated with greater alcohol use during pregnancy and while breastfeeding, thus posing a risk to maternal and child health. Conversely, consumption of *Sraa t’nam* may result in avoidance of breastfeeding or shorter duration due to concern over alcohol intake, particularly in elixirs that use high levels of vodka. Hence, there is a fundamental gap in understanding the potential health risks and benefits of consuming *sraa t’nam* during pregnancy and while breastfeeding among Cambodian women in the U.S. Furthermore, no studies have examined the association between the intention to consume *sraa t’nam* after birth and breastfeeding intention. Traditional health practices, like consumption of *sraa t’nam*, could pose barriers to breastfeeding in this population (140). To the best of our knowledge, determinants of knowledge, attitudes and practices related to *sraa t’nam* among women of Cambodian heritage living in the U.S. have not been investigated.

45

**Figure 1.** Conceptual framework for describing the associations between knowledge, attitudes and behaviors related to *sraa t’nam* and sociodemographic factors among Cambodian women ages 15-35 years living in Massachusetts.



46

**CHAPTER 3**

**PURPOSE OF STUDY**

This community-based participatory (CBPR) study investigated knowledge, attitudes, and practices related to the consumption of *sraa t’nam*, an alcohol-based elixir, among Cambodian women aged 15-35 years living in Massachusetts. Consumption of *sraa t’nam,* a traditional Cambodian elixir, is a maternal health practice that is not typicallyconsidered in antenatal and postnatal care. CBPR is an intrinsic approach that is effective in eliciting community perspectives within the context of their cultural experiences, particularly in hard-to-reach refugees/immigrant populations (141).

There is a fundamental gap in understanding the potential health risks and benefits of consuming *sraa t’nam* during pregnancy and while breastfeeding among Cambodian women in the U.S. Knowledge and attitudes inform health behaviors, therefore understanding these community perspectives can greatly improve research and guidance practice aimed at addressing health disparities. A CBPR study conducted by Pung (2003) found that 60% of Cambodian participants (n=35) in Rhode Island reported consuming *sraa t’nam* in the third trimester of their pregnancies and 89% reported doing so afterchildbirth. However, the associations between socio-demographic factors and knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors related to *sraa t’nam* were not examined in this small study. To the best of our knowledge, the awareness, attitudes and preferred applications of traditional health practices, including *sraa t’nam* consumption, has not been examined among women of Cambodian heritage.

The overall objective of the study is to investigate associations between

47

socio-demographic variables and knowledge, attitudes, and practices of *sraa t’nam* among Cambodian women at reproductive age. Derived from literature, the central hypothesis for this study postulates that women are more likely to consume *sraa t’nam* if they have lived in the U.S. for less than 10 years, have low food security status, are uninsured or underinsured, experience language barriers, are less educated and/or have lower acculturation scores. This hypothesis is based on previous research indicating an association between traditional health practices and socio-demographic factors (135). We proposed three primary research questions for this study:

Research question 1: Is knowledge of *sraa t’nam* associated with socio-demographic characteristics, acculturation, or food security status among Cambodian women ages 15-35 years living in Massachusetts??

Research question 2: Are attitudes toward *sraa t’nam* associated with socio-demographic characteristics, acculturation, or food security status among Cambodian women ages 15-35 years living in Massachusetts?

Research question 3: Among the subsample of pregnant women in this study (n=56), is the intention to breastfeed associated with knowledge of *sraa t’nam*, attitudes regarding *sraa t’nam*, and/or the intention to consume *sraa t’nam* after childbirth?

48

**CHAPTER 4**

**METHODS**

**4.1 Community-Based Participatory Research (CBPR)**

This study used a CBPR approach to work in an equitable partnership with the Cambodian communities of Lowell and Lynn, Massachusetts. This collaborative approach emphasizes participation from stakeholders in all phases of the research process and recognizes the unique strengths that each brings to research (141). In partnership with the Cambodian Mutual Assistance Association (CMAA) of Greater Lowell, Inc., the research team investigated the associations between sociodemographic factors and knowledge, attitudes, and practices related to *sraa t’nam* among Cambodian women ages 15-35 years in Massachusetts. The study was approved by the Human Subjects Review Board at the University of Massachusetts Amherst in Amherst, Massachusetts.

**4.2 Recruitment**

Recruitment efforts included announcements on the local Cambodian television programs in Lowell, Lynn, and Revere; distribution of fliers at restaurants, grocery stores, beauty salons, community agencies, community centers, and local social service agencies; announcements of the study at English as a Second Language (ESOL) and GED classrooms; emails to service providers and community members; as well as face-to-face and word-of-mouth recruitment. Women who participated in the research team’s previous studies were also invited to participate in this study.

49

**4.3 Sample**

Using a purposeful convenience sample, women of Cambodian heritage living in Massachusetts were recruited into the study. We employed a cross-sectional study design with a target sample of 200 Cambodian women ages 18-35 years. Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling technique where subjects are selected because of their accessibility and proximity to the community agency which partners with the researcher (142). This sampling method is one of the most common tools used in community-based studies due to ease of recruitment (56). The participants (n=162) recruited into this study were between 15 and 35 years of age living in Lowell and Lynn, Massachusetts.

**4.4 Training and Data Collection**

The data collection team was trained on research methods, data collection procedures, Cambodian traditional medicine, cultural sensitivity, and CBPR methodology. Survey instruments were developed and tested in an earlier study. The research team, inclusive of trained community interviewers, administered surveys in English, Khmer, or bilingually. The survey was administered once to all women; each survey took between 1-1.5 hours to complete. *Qualitative data* consisted of one focus group conducted in 2011 with four Cambodian women in Lowell, MA. *Quantitative data* on demographics, dietary consumption, anthropometry, knowledge, attitudes, and practices, breastfeeding intention, alcohol and tobacco use, food security status, self-perceived health status, antenatal and postnatal care, acculturation, household size, composition of family members, and healthcare experiences were collected through surveys. Data was checked for completeness, as well as inconsistencies, and was double-entered on MS Access.

50

Key Variables used in analysis

*Dependent variables*: knowledge of sraa t’nam, ever used sraa t’nam, intention to drink sraa t’nam after current pregnancy

*Independent variables*: age, household food security score, body mass index, acculturation, depression score, language, health insurance, marital status, educational attainment, country of birth, parity, and employment status.

**Socio-demographic variables**:

**Marital status** was categorized into never married/single, married, separated, divorced

and widowed.

**Educational attainment** was self-reported and coded into four groups: less than high school, high school or GED, some college or higher, and other. Educational attainment was dichotomized into the group with ≤ high school/GED/less or ≥ some college.

**Country of birth** was dichotomous variable grouped as born in the U.S. (coded 1) and born outside the U.S. (coded 0).

**Length of stay** in the U.S. for women who were born outside the U.S. was self-reported and categorized as <10 years (coded 0) and ≥ 10 years (coded 1).

**Food security status** was a continuous variable based on the cumulative number of responses to the six-item survey U.S. Food Security Module (62). This variable was further categorized into levels of high food security, low food security and very low food security status.

**Anthropometric variables:**

**Height** was measured in centimeters, with two measurements per women using a stadiometer. **Weight** was measured in kilograms, with two measurements per woman

51

using a standard scale. **Body mass index** was calculated using the formula weight (kg)/height (m2) and was analyzed as a continuous and categorical variable.

**Psychometric Variables:**

**Depression** was measured using the validated 14-item Harvard Program in Refugee Trauma’s depression scale (97). The responses range from 1 to 4, with 1 representing not at all depressed, and 4 representing extremely depressed.

**Acculturation** was measured using a 10-question Psychological Acculturation Scale (PAS) was used with permission to measure acculturation in this Cambodian population (143). The responses range from 1 to 5, and were summed and divided by 10 for a final PAS score of 1 to 5. A score of 1 represented ‘identifying entirely with Cambodian culture’ and a score of 5 represented ‘identifying entirely with American culture’. For subjects who answered 6-8 questions, the average of the non-missing items was used to calculate PAS. Subjects with fewer than 6 questions answered were omitted from analyses. PAS scores were divided into low (a score of 1 through 2.111) and high categories (≥ 2.125).

**4.5 Data Analysis**

Data analysis was conducted using Stata, version 14.0, and SPSS version 25. General characteristics of the participants in the data is presented as means +/- standard deviation for continuous variables (BMI, age, food security raw score, depression, acculturation).

Frequencies and percentages were calculated for categorical variables (marital status, educational attainment, health insurance status, length of residence in the U.S., food security status).

52

For descriptive statistics, Student’s independent t-test was applied to continuous variables and Pearson’s chi-square-square test was applied to categorical variables, with each of dependent variables: *sraa t’nam* knowledge, attitudes toward *sraa t’nam*, and intention to consume *sraa t’nam*. The level of significance was set at a p-value < 0.05. Univariate analysis was applied to each variable to determine associations between the dependent variable and each of the independent variables. Independent variables with statistically significant and p-trend values were selected for inclusion in multivariate analyses. Given the small sample size, independent variables with a univariate association at approximately the p=0.1 level of significance (*trending*) were selected for inclusion in multivariate analyses.

Bivariate analyses tested the associations between each of the dependent variables and socio-demographic, health and psychometric factors*.* In the subsample of pregnant women, we also examined the association between women’s intention to breastfeed and their intention to consume *sraa t’nam* after childbirth. Multivariate analyses examined the associations between each of the dependent variables and psychometric factors, controlling for sociodemographic factors.

53

**CHAPTER 5**

**RESULTS**

Individual summary characteristics are presented in Table 1. This study analyzed results from 161 Cambodian women, 15 to 35 years, living in Massachusetts. Thirty-four percent 34.2%, (n=56) of the sample was pregnant; 65.8% (n=106) was not pregnant at the time of data collection for the study. Significant differences were found between pregnant and non-pregnant status in language preferred for survey administration (35.71% pregnant vs. 11.32% non-pregnant women preferred to answer questions in Khmer, p<0.01); 38.18% pregnant vs. 10.38% non-pregnant were married (p<0.01); 37.5% pregnant vs. 68.9% non-pregnant were born in the U.S. (p<0.01); 51.8% pregnant vs. 23.6% non-pregnant women had at least one child (p<0.01); and 87.0% pregnant vs. 58.5% non-pregnant women that reported on work status were employed at the time of the survey(p<0.01). The mean acculturation score for sample (n=154) was 2.6 (SD=0.63, range 1-4.2), with a significant mean difference observed across pregnancy status (2.4, SD=0.66 pregnant vs. 2.7, SD=0.57 non-pregnant, p<0.01). No significant mean differences were observed between pregnancy status and depression scores, or pregnancy status and food security scores. In summary, although pregnant and non-pregnant women were similar in age, 24.5 years vs. 21.2 years, respectively, pregnant women were significantly more likely to prefer answering the survey questions in Khmer, be married, be foreign-born, have at least one child, and were less likely to be employed. Pregnant women were also more likely to have lower acculturation and depression scores, and less likely to be food insecure compared to the non-pregnant peers.

54

**Table 5.1.** Sample characteristics of Pregnant and Non-Pregnant Cambodian Women

(15-35 y) living in Massachusetts (n=162)

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Characteristics** |  |  |  |  |  |  | |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | |
|  | ***n*1** | **% of Total** | **Pregnant** | **Non-Pregna** | ***P*2** | |
|  |  | ***%*** | ***%*** | ***%*** |  |  | |
| Overall | 16 | 100 | 34.16 | 65.84 |  |  | |
| Language |  |  |  |  | <0.0 |  | |
| Khmer | 32 | 19.75 | 35.71 | 11.32 |  |  | |
| English | 12 | 73.46 | 55.36 | 83.02 |  |  | |
| Both/Mix | 9 | 5.56 | 5.26 | 5.66 |  |  | |
| Health Insurance |  |  |  |  |  |  | |
| Yes | 14 | 90.57 | 92.59 | 89.52 |  |  | |
| No | 15 | 9.43 | 7.41 | 10.48 |  |  | |
| Marital Status |  |  |  |  | <0.0 |  | |
| Married | 33 | 19.88 | 38.18 | 10.38 |  |  | |
| Not married | 12 | 80.12 | 61.82 | 89.62 |  |  | |
| Educational Attainment |  |  |  |  |  |  | |
| Less than High School/GED | 10 | 62.35 | 71.43 | 57.55 |  |  | |
| Some College or Higher/Other | 61 | 37.65 | 28.57 | 42.45 |  |  | |
| Born In US |  |  |  |  | <0.0 |  | |
| Yes | 94 | 58.02 | 37.5 | 68.87 |  |  | |
| No | 68 | 41.98 | 62.5 | 31.13 |  |  | |
| Food Security |  |  |  |  |  |  | |
| Food Secure | 87 | 58.78 | 66.67 | 55.66 |  |  | |
| Food Insecure | 61 | 41.22 | 33.33 | 44.34 |  |  | |
| Parity |  |  |  |  | <0.0 |  | |
| Yes | 54 | 66.67 | 51.79 | 100 |  |  | |
| No | 27 | 33.33 | 48.21 | 0 |  |  | |
| Currently Employed |  |  |  |  | <0.0 |  | |
| Yes | 82 | 63.57 | 86.96 | 58.49 |  |  | |
| No | 47 | 36.43 | 13.04 | 41.51 |  |  | |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | |
|  | **n** | **Mean (SD)** | **Pregnant** | **Non-pregna** | ***P3*** | |
|  |  |  | **Mean (SD)** | |  |  | |
| Age | 16 | 22.3 (4.6) | 24.50 (3.9) | 21.20 |  |  | |
| Food security raw score | 16 | 1.02 | 1.15 | 0.95 |  |  | |
| BMI | 16 | 24.5 (5.1) | 24.50 | 24.60 |  |  | |
| Acculturation | 15 | 2.61 | 2.37 | 2.73 | <0.0 |  | |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | |
|  |  | 55 |  |  |  |  | |

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Depression | 15 | 1.66 | 1.61 | 1.68 |

1. Totals may differ due to missing data on some variables: language, parity, currently employed.
2. Categorical variables, tests of statistical significance are based on two-tailed Pearson χ2, *p* <0.05, *p* <0.01.
3. Continuous variables, tests of statistical significance are based on student t test, *p* <0.05, *p* <0.01.
4. Parity defined as having delivered birth of 1 or more kids

Multivariate logistic regression was used to test the associations between ‘ever used *sraa t’nam*’ and socio-demographic, psychometric, and food security variables (Table 2).After adjusting for age, educational attainment, acculturation, and food security raw score, the following variables were significantly associated with ‘ever used *sraa t’nam*’: number of household members, parity and birthplace. The first four models had R square values ranging from 0.08-0.15 suggesting that the models fit only a low variance of the data. However, the R square value in the full model was 0.26 demonstrating that the model explained 26% of the variability of the response data.

In Model 1, the variables included were having health insurance, age, educational attainment, acculturation and food security raw score. Having health insurance was not independently associated with ever using *sraa t’nam*, after controlling for age, educational attainment, acculturation, and food security score (OR 0.62, CI 0.17, 2.23, p=0.46). Model 2 tested to see if ‘ever used *sraa t’nam*’ was associated with number of household members, all else equal. Women with more household members had 1.25 odds (CI 1.01, 1.55) of ever using *sraa t’nam* (p<0.05). Model 3 tested to see if ‘ever used *sraa t’nam*’ was associated with parity, all else equal. Parity was significantly associatedwith ever using *sraa t’nam* and those who had at least one child had 3.85 odds (CI 1.20, 12.37) of ever using *sraa t’nam* (p<0.05). Model 4 tested to see if country of birth was

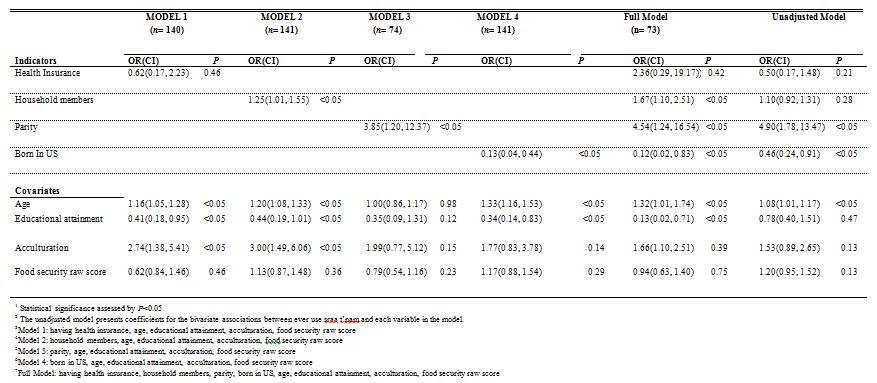
56

associated with ever using *sraa t’nam*, all else equal. Women who were born in the U.S. had 0.13 (CI 0.04, 0.44) odds of ever using *sraa t’nam*, compared with those who were born outside of the U.S (p<0.05). Across all four models, the covariates age, educational attainment, and acculturation were independent predictors of ever using *sraa t’nam* (p<0.05), while food security score was not significantly associated with ever using *sraa t’nam*.

The full model for multivariate logistic regression predicting the odds of a woman reporting that she ‘*ever used sraa t’nam*’ (dependent variable) included eight independent variables. Health insurance, acculturation and food security scores were not independently associated with the dependent variable. The odds of ‘ever used *sraa t’nam*’ were higher (OR 1.67, CI 1.10, 2.51, p<0.05) with every one unit or one person increase in household size, after adjusting for covariates. Similarly, women with at least one child had a 4.54 odds (CI 1.24, 16.5) of reporting that they ‘ever used *sraa t’nam*’ compared to women with no children (p<0.05). U.S.-born women (OR 0.12, CI 0.02, 0.83, p<0.05) and those with more than a high school education (OR 0.13, CI 0.02, 0.71, p<0.05) had lower odds of having ‘ever used *sraa t’nam*’. Age was independently associated with having ‘ever used *sraa t’nam*’ (OR 1.32, CI 1.01, 1.74, p<0.05); for every year older, the odds of ever using *sraa t’nam* increased by 0.32 units. In summary, women who lived in larger households, had at least one child, were foreign-born, had less education, or were older in age had higher odds of reporting that they had ‘ever used *sraa t’nam*’.

57

**Table 5.2.** Odds ratios for associations between ever used *sraa t’nam* and socio-demographic, psychometric, food security variables among Cambodian (15-35 y) in Massachusetts (n=162)1,2



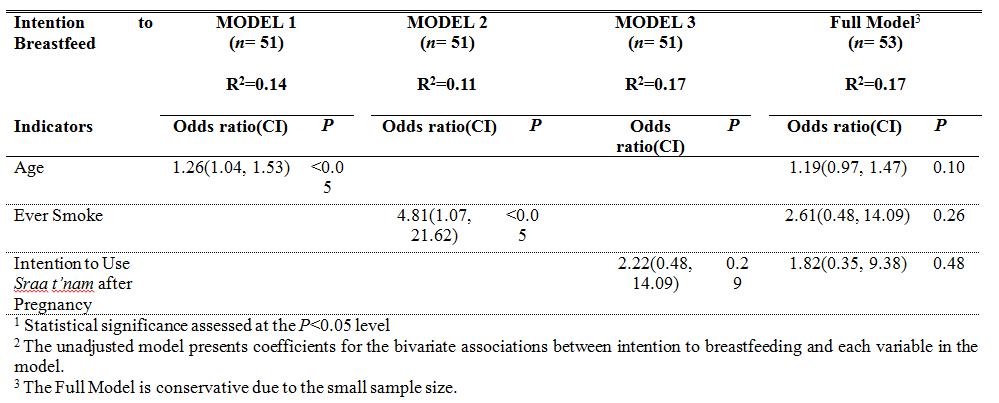
58

Univariate analyses tested for associations between intention to breastfeed, age, smoking status, and intention to use *sraa t’nam*. Age was positively associated with the intention to breastfeed (OR=1.26, p<0.05), and smoking was also positively associated with the intention to breastfeed (OR=4.81, p<0.05) (Table 3). In Model 1, age was independently associated with a woman’s intention to breastfeed (OR 1.26, CI 1.04, 1.53, p<0.05); for every year older, the odds of reporting an intention to breastfeed increased by 0.26 units (r2=0.14). In Model 2, ‘ever smoked’ was a significant predictor of breastfeeding intention; the odds of reporting an intention to breastfeed was higher for women who reported ever smoking compared to non-smokers (OR 4.81, CI 1.07, 21.6, p<0.05, r2=0.11). The relationship between intention to breastfeed and intention to use *sraa t’nam* after pregnancy is shown in Table 3. After adjusting for age and smokingstatus, there was no statistically association observed between intention to breastfeed and intention to use *sraa t’nam* after current pregnancy (OR=1.82, CI 0.48, 14.09, p=0.48;

r2=0.17).

59

**Table 5.3.** Logistic regression associations between intention to breastfeed and intention to use *sraa t’nam* after pregnancy among pregnant Cambodian women (15-35 y) in Massachusetts (n=56)



60

**CHAPTER 6**

**DISCUSSION**

The purpose of our study was to determine the association between the traditional maternal health practice of *sraa t’nam* use and socio-demographic, psychometric, and food security variables in a sample of Cambodian women aged 15-35 years living in Massachusetts, and to examine the association between women's intention to use *sraa t’nam* and their intention to breastfeed. Our results suggested that Cambodian womenwho reported having at least one child, ≤ high school education, being born outside the U.S., larger households, and/or who were older in age had higher odds of ever using *sraa t'nam*. Consistent with our findings, previous research on the prevalence and predictors ofherbal medicinal use among adults in the United States revealed that age was positively associated with use of traditional herbal practices (144).

In a Canadian study, longer length of time in Canada was associated with a decline in overall health status among immigrants (145). Observed health disparities between immigrant and non-immigrant populations were predicted by age, income, gender, and home ownership status (145). Concerns of declining health status among immigrants in wealthy nations raises significant issues regarding access to healthcare for immigrants, potential discrimination in the health care system, and poor utilization of services (146). These issues have a historical and structural presence in the U.S. (146). Whitbeck et al. (2002) suggest that use of traditional practices among Native Americans, a population that has faced historical discrimination, genocide, and systematic racism, may act as an important and salient cultural buffer to the multiple adverse effects experienced as a

61

result of discrimination. The use of traditional health practices could potentially serve a protective role for refugees to the U.S., specifically Cambodians who survived war under the Khmer Rouge regime by using traditional medicines to prevent and treat illness and their descendants who face new challenges in the U.S. and benefit from the intergenerational sharing of such practices (147).

**Traditional Health Practices: Use of *Sraa T’nam***

In our study, the odds of having ever used *sraa t'nam* were lower for women with some college or higher level of education. Jenkins et al. (1996) reported that Vietnamese community members in California with lower educational attainment, fewer years in the U.S., and limited English proficiency scored higher on the traditional health belief scale (p<0.05). In contrast, Buchwald et al. (2000) found that having more than a high school education was positively associated with use of traditional health practices among Native Americans and Rashrash et al. (2017) reported that higher education levels were associated with traditional herbal supplement use in the U.S.

Lower acculturation scores, observed mostly among foreign-born women, were associated with higher odds of ever using *sraa t’nam* in univariate and bivariate analyses of study data, but not in multivariate models. Looking directly at country of birth, as a proxy for acculturation in our study, revealed that U.S.-born women were less likely than foreign-born women to report ever having used *sraa t’nam*. Unlike the acculturation index (p=0.39), country of birth was a salient predictor of *sraa t'nam* use and expressed statistical significance across all multivariate models compared to the acculturation index. Supporting our findings, Buchwald et al. (2000) observed that lower acculturation was associated with use of traditional health practices among Native Americans. A Canadian

62

study examining predictors of traditional medicine use among Ghanian immigrants found that individuals who were more acculturated had more positive attitudes toward Ghanaian traditional medicinal practices than those who were less acculturated (145).

Jenkins et al. (1996) examined traditional health practices among Vietnamese community members in the U.S. Marital status and poverty status were significant determinants of traditional health practices in this study (148). Jenkins et al. (1996) used household size as the basis for the poverty status indicator. Our study provides additional information about the positive association of household size and parity on traditional health practices in an immigrant and refugee population. Parity is related to household size and participants who had at least one child were more likely to report having ‘ever used *sraa t’nam’*. Jenkins et al. (1996) recommended further investigation of traditional beliefs and practices as potential barriers to health care access and utilization of conventional health services by immigrants.

**Intention to Breastfeed and Breastfeeding Initiation**

Smoking status is an established predictor of a woman’s intention to breastfeed (133, 149). Our results are confirmed by Mclnnes et al. (2001) who found that smoking was an independent predictor of breastfeeding intention in a disadvantaged population of pregnant women in the United States. Similar to previous studies, older pregnant women were more likely to express an intention to breastfeed (149). Results from a study on non-exclusive breastfeeding (EBF) in five East and Southeast Asian countries in 2010 revealed that non-EBF was associated with higher maternal age (134). Women with higher maternal age were less likely to practice breastfeeding in study in all five countries, including Vietnam, Timor-Leste, Philippines, Indonesia, and Cambodia (134).

63

Our study did not find an association between intention to breastfeed and current work status, while the previous studies suggested that work status is a predictor of intention to breastfeed (150, 151). Staub et al (2008) suggested that women had low breastfeeding initiation rates when they were currently employed (150). The limitations of our study were the small sample size for pregnant women, followed by the low response rate on work status. As such, our study lacked sufficient power to detect significant associations between the variables of interest.

Education attainment emerged as a strong predictor of intention to breastfeed when controlling for covariates in other studies (152, 153). In a Brazilian study, Cesar (2015) reported that educational attainment was positively associated with the breastfeeding. Our study was not able to confirm an association between intention to breastfeed and educational attainment, partly due to the small sample size and low variance in education levels. Our findings may also result from differences in immigrant experiences for refugees versus other types of immigrants (153), as well as group differences by country of origin/heritage (153) or lived environment (152).

Straub et al. (2008) found that all nine Cambodian women in their U.S.-based study practiced traditional maternal health diets and/or rituals and all initiated breastfeeding.

However, we did not find an association between breastfeeding intention and intention to use *sraa t'nam*, with the small sample size being a primary limitation to our ability to fully examine the relationship between these variables. While no association was observed, barriers to breastfeeding initiation, including traditional health practices, which can either promote or disrupt maternal and child health, need to be carefully investigated. Earlier studies have indicated that Cambodians in the U.S. face significant

64

maternal and child health challenges, including LBW, high IMR, and the lowest breastfeeding rate among all groups in Massachusetts (154).

**CONCLUSION**

Future studies need to examine the role of traditional health practices on maternal and child health outcomes. In particular, cross-national studies would provide critical data on immigrant and refugee health transitions from home country, refugee host country, to final resettlement host country. Understanding the how a cculturation impacts traditional health practices can inform variations in knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs within and across refugee and immigrant groups in the U.S. *Sraa t'nam* as a traditional health practices poses a unique issue to maternal and child health due to its alcohol content. When situated in the larger context of acculturation, perceived access to and experiences with health care, health disparities, and discrimination, use of traditional maternal health practices may buffer stressors related to immigrant and minority experiences in the U.S.

65

**BIBLIOGRAPGY**

1. United States Census Bureau, Population track 2010-2015. Available at: <https://www.census.gov/>
2. Custavo L, et al. “Facts on U.S. Immigrants, 2015”. Pew Research Center. Available at: <http://www.pewhispanic.org/2017/05/03/facts-on-u-s-immigrants-current-data/>
3. Gustavo L, et al. “Key findsings about U.S. immigrants”. Pew Research Center. Available at: [http://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2017/05/03/key-findings-about-u-s-immigr](http://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2017/05/03/key-findings-about-u-s-immigrants/) [ants/](http://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2017/05/03/key-findings-about-u-s-immigrants/)
4. Peterman, Jerusha Nelson, et al. Relationship between past food deprivation and current dietary practices and weight status among Cambodian refugee women in Lowell, MA. American Journal of Public Health. 100.10(2010): 1930
5. Kiernan, B. (1997). The Cambodian genocide—1975–1979. In S.Totten, W. S.Parsons, & I. W.Charny (Eds.), Century of genocide: Eyewitness accounts and critical views (pp. 334–371). New York: Garland.
6. Mollica, R. F., Caspi-Yavin, Y., Lavelle, J., Tor, S., Yang, T., Chan, S., ... & De Marneffe, D. (1996). The Harvard trauma questionnaire (HTQ): manual; Cambodian, Laotian and Vietnamese versions. *Torture*, *6*(Suppl 1), 19-33.
7. Carlson EB and Rosser-Hogan R. Trauma experiences, posttraumatic stress, disassociation, and depression in Cambodian refugees. Am J of Psych. 1991; 148(11): 1548-51.
8. Portes A and Fernandes-Kelly P, No margin for error: educational and occupational achievement among disadvantaged children of immigrants. The Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science. 2008; 620(1):

12-36

1. Katherine L, et al. (2003). A profile of the foreign-born in Lowell, Massachusetts. *The urban institute.* Available at:[https://www.urban.org/sites/default/files/publication/59526/410918-A-Profile-of-t](https://www.urban.org/sites/default/files/publication/59526/410918-A-Profile-of-the-Foreign-Born-in-Lowell-Massachusetts.PDF) [he-Foreign-Born-in-Lowell-Massachusetts.PDF](https://www.urban.org/sites/default/files/publication/59526/410918-A-Profile-of-the-Foreign-Born-in-Lowell-Massachusetts.PDF)
2. Braveman, Paula and Colleen Barclay. Health disparities beginning in childhood: a life-course perspective. Pediatrics 124. Supplement 3 (2009): S163-75.
3. Lauren C, Kara G, Annie H, Busra O. Maternal Advocacy for Rural Cambodian
4. PRB. Maternal Mortality as a Leading Cause of Death in Cambodian

66

13. Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey (2000) and a report by the Action Research to Advocacy Initiative (ARAI) entitled *Indigenous Women Working Towards Improved Maternal Health* (May 2006), which is available online at[http://web.archive.org/web/20070108122006/http://www.healthunlimited.org/abo](http://web.archive.org/web/20070108122006/http:/www.healthunlimited.org/aboutus/ARAIreport.pdf) [utus/ARAIreport.pdf.](http://web.archive.org/web/20070108122006/http:/www.healthunlimited.org/aboutus/ARAIreport.pdf)

1. Misra, Dawn P., et al. Integrated perinatal health framework: a multiple determinants model with a life span approach. Am J of Preventive Med. 2003; 25(1): 65-75.
2. Bhutta, Zulfiqar A., et al. "Evidence-based interventions for improvement of maternal and child nutrition: what can be done and at what cost?." *The Lancet* 382.9890 (2013): 452-477.
3. Kowalenko, Nick. et al. The perinatal period: early intervention for mental health. Clinical approaches to early intervention in child and adolescent mental health. Volume 4. Australian Early Intervention Network for Mental Health in Young People. 2000.
4. Kogan, Michael. et al. Relation of the content of prenatal care to the risk of low birth weight: maternal reports of health behavior advice and initial prenantal care procedure. Jama 1994; 271(17): 1340-5.
5. Office of the Surgeon General, CDC, Office on Women's Health, 2011
6. Ellen G, et al. The impact of marketing of breast-milk substitutes on WHO-recommended breastfeeding practices. Sage Journal 2015; 36 (4)
7. White, Patrice. "Heat, balance, humors, and ghosts: postpartum in Cambodia."

Health care for women international 25.2 (2004): 179-194.

1. Rice, Pranee Liamputtong. "Nyo dua hli–30 days confinement: traditions and changed childbearing beliefs and practices among Hmong women in Australia." Midwifery 16.1 (2000): 22-34.
2. Siti, ZM, et al. Use of traditional and complementary medicine in Malaysia: a

baseline study. Complementary Therapies in Medicine. 17.5(2009): 292-9.

1. Hourn, Kruy Kim, et al. Postpartum heating practices in Cambodia. Are they harmful? Presented at Second National socio-cultural research congress on Cambodia. 3-5 Feb, 1999.
2. Popova, Svetlana, et al. "Estimation of national, regional, and global prevalence of alcohol use during pregnancy and fetal alcohol syndrome: a systematic review and meta-analysis." *The Lancet Global Health* 5.3 (2017): e290-e299.
3. Sokol, Robert J. et al. Fetal alcohol spectrum disorder. JAMA. 2003; 290(22): 2996-9.

67

1. Alcohol use during pregnancy can lead to lifelong effects. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2016). Available at: <https://www.cdc.gov/ncbddd/fasd/AlcoholUseDuringPregnancy.html>
2. Ursano RJ, Benedek DM. Prisoners of war: long-term health outcomes. Lancet. 2003 Dec; 362 Suppl:s 22-3.
3. Barr, H. M., & Streissguth, A. P. (2001). Identifying maternal self-reported alcohol use associated with fetal alcohol spectrum disorders. *Alcoholism: Clinical and Experimental Research*, *25*(2), 283–287.
4. Foltran, F., Gregori, D., Franchin, L., Verduci, E., & Giovannini, M. (2011). Effect of alcohol consumption in prenatal life, childhood, and adolescence on child development. *Nutrition Reviews*, *69*(11), 642–659.
5. Little, R. E. (1977). Moderate alcohol use during pregnancy and decreased infant birth weight. *American Journal of Public Health*, *67*(12), 1154–1156.
6. Little, R. E., Anderson, K. W., Ervin, C. H., Worthington-Roberts, B., & Clarren, S. K. (1989). Maternal Alcohol Use during Breast-Feeding and Infant Mental and Motor Development at One Year. *New England Journal of Medicine*, *321*(7), 425–430.
7. May, P. A., Hamrick, K. J., Corbin, K. D., Hasken, J. M., Marais, A.-S.,

Blankenship, J., … Gossage, J. P. (2016). Maternal nutritional status as a contributing factor for the risk of fetal alcohol spectrum disorders. *Reproductive Toxicology*, *59*, 101–108.

1. Mennella, J. A. (2001). Regulation of Milk Intake After Exposure to Alcohol in

Mothers’ Milk. *Alcoholism: Clinical and Experimental Research*, *25*(4), 590–593.

1. Mennella, J. A., & Beauchamp, G. K. (1993). Beer, breast feeding, and folklore. *Developmental Psychobiology*, *26*(8), 459–466.
2. Mills, J. L., Graubard, B. I., Harley, E. E., Rhoads, G. G., & Berendes, H. W. (1984). Maternal Alcohol Consumption and Birth Weight: How Much Drinking During Pregnancy Is Safe? *JAMA*, *252*(14), 1875–1879.
3. Breslow, R. A., Falk, D. E., Fein, S. B., & Grummer-Strawn, L. M. (2007). Alcohol consumption among breastfeeding women. *Breastfeeding Medicine: The Official Journal of the Academy of Breastfeeding Medicine*, *2*(3), 152–157.
4. Cobo, E. (1973). Effect of different doses of ethanol on the milk-ejecting reflex in lactating women. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology*, *115*(6), 817– 821.
5. Collins, R. L., & McNair, L. D. (2002). Minority women and alcohol use. *Alcohol Research & Health*. http://psycnet.apa.org/psycinfo/2003-08332-002

68

1. D’Avanzo, C. E., & Barab. (2000). Drinking during pregnancy: practices of cambodian refugees in France and the United States. *Health Care for Women International*, *21*(4), 319–334.
2. Pung, A. (2003). *Cambodian beliefs and practices related to pregnancy and the postpartum period*. Rhode Island College, Rhode Island, New York.
3. Dowling, Alison, et al. Measuring self-rated health status among resettled adult refugee populations to inform practice and policy – a scoping review. BMC Health Serv Res. 2017; 17:817.
4. Wong, Eunice C. et al. The unusual poor physical health status of Cambodian refugees two decades after resettlement. Journal of Immigrant and Minority Health. 2011; 13(5): 876-82.
5. Zuber PL, Knowles LS, Binkin NJ, et al. Tuberculosis among foreign-born persons in Los Angeles County, 1992-1994. Tuber Lung Dis 1996; 77: 524-30.
6. Deriemer K, Chin DP, Schecter GF, et al. Tuberculosis among immigrants and refugees. Arch Intern Med 1998; 158; 753-60.
7. Slutsker L, Tipple M, Keane V, et al. Malaria in east African refugees resettling to the United States: Development of strategies to reduce risk of imported malaria. J Infect Dis 1995; 171: 489-93.
8. Hayes EB, Talbot SB, Matheson ES, et al. Health status of pediatric refugees in Portland ME. Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med 1998; 152: 564-8.
9. Walker PF, Jaranson J: Refugee and immigrant health care. Med Clin North Am

1999; 83: 1103-20.

1. McDermott, Sarah, et al. "Cancer incidence among Canadian immigrants, 1980– 1998: results from a national cohort study." Journal of immigrant and minority health 13.1 (2011): 15-26.
2. Her, Cheng, and Marlon Mundt. "Risk prevalence for type 2 diabetes mellitus in adult Hmong in Wisconsin: a pilot study." WMJ-MADISON- 104.5 (2005): 70.
3. Dookeran, Nameeta M., et al. "Chronic disease and its risk factors among refugees and asylees in Massachusetts, 2001-2005." (2010).
4. Culhane-Pera, Kathleen A., et al. "Cardiovascular disease risks in Hmong refugees from Wat Tham Krabok, Thailand." Journal of immigrant and minority health 11.5 (2009): 372-379.
5. Wagner, Julie, et al. "Diabetes among refugee populations: What newly arriving refugees can learn from resettled Cambodians." Current diabetes reports 15.8 (2015): 1-14.

69

1. Kinzie, John David, et al. "High prevalence rates of diabetes and hypertension among refugee psychiatric patients." The Journal of nervous and mental disease 196.2 (2008): 108-112.
2. Carroll, W. Hypertension in America: Estimates for the U.S. Civilian Noninstitutionalized Population, Age 18 and Older, 2008. March 2011. Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality, Rockville, MD. http://www. meps.ahrq.gov/mepsweb/data\_files/publications/st315/stat315.pdf
3. Gammouh OS, Al-Smadi AM, Tawalbeh LI, Khoury LS. Chronic Diseases, Lack of Medications, and Depression Among Syrian Refugees in Jordan, 2013–2014. Prev Chronic Dis 2015;12:140424. DOI: [http://dx.doi.org/10.5888/pcd12.140424.](http://dx.doi.org/10.5888/pcd12.140424)
4. Marshall, Grant N., et al. "Diabetes and cardiovascular disease risk in Cambodian refugees." Journal of immigrant and minority health 18.1 (2016): 110-117.
5. Wagner J, Burke G, Kuoch T, Scully M, Armeli S, Rajan TV. Trauma, healthcare access, and health outcomes among Southeast Asian refugees in Connecticut. J Immigr Minor Health. Dec.2013 15:1065–72
6. Chan, Sucheng. Survivors: Cambodian refugees in the United States. University of Illinois Press. 2004
7. Depression. National Institution of Mental Health. 2016
8. Marshall, Grant N., et al. Mental health of Cambodian refugees 2 decades after resettlement in the United States. JAMA 294.5(2005): 571-9.
9. Depression among Women. CDC. 2017
10. Peterman J, Wilde P, Silka L, et al. Food insecurity among Cambodian refugee women two decades post resettlement. J Immigr Minor Health. 2013 Apr; 15(2): 372-80.
11. Chen, J. & Vargas-Bustamante, A. (2011). Estimating the Effects of Immigration Status on Mental Health Care Utilizations in the United States. Journal of Immigrant and Minority Health, 13(4), 671-680. doi:10.1007/s10903-011-9445-x.
12. Steel Z. and Liddell BJ, et al. Global Protection and the Health Impact of Migration Interception. PLOS med. 2011. 8(6).

doi: [10.1371/journal.pmed.1001038](https://dx.doi.org/10.1371%2Fjournal.pmed.1001038)

1. Crossroads: the psychology of immigration in the new century. American psychological association. 2012.
2. Katsiaficas D. Mediators of the relationship between acculturative stress and internalization symptoms for immigrant origin youth. [Cultur Divers Ethnic Minor](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23356354) [Psychol.](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23356354) 2013 Jan;19(1):27-37. doi: 10.1037/a0031094.

70

1. Mui, Ada C and Suk-Young Kang. Acculturation stress and depression among Asian immigrant elders. Social Work. 2006; 51(3): 243-55.
2. Physiological & psychological impact of racism and discrimination for African-Americans. American Psychological Association. 2018.
3. Coll, CG and Marks AK. The immigrant paradox in children and adolescents: is becoming American a developmental risk? 2012; 328
4. Portes A and Fernandes-Kelly P, No margin for error: educational and occupational achievement among disadvantaged children of immigrants. The Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science. 2008; 620(1): 13-36.
5. Turcotte D and Vidrine E, Greater Lowell Community Health Needs Assessment. 2013.
6. Brown, E. Richard, et al. "Racial and ethnic disparities in access to health insurance and health care." UCLA Center for Health Policy Research (2000).
7. Perreira, Krista M., et al. "Barriers to immigrants’ access to health and human services programs." ASPE Issue Brief. Washington, DC: Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation (2012).
8. Racial and Ethnic Approaches to Community Health. CDC. 2010. Available at: <https://www.cdc.gov/nccdphp/dnpao/state-local-programs/reach/index.htm>
9. Grigg-Saito, Dorcas, et al. "Long-term development of a “whole community” best practice model to address health disparities in the Cambodian refugee and immigrant community of Lowell, Massachusetts." American journal of public health 100.11 (2010): 2026-2029.
10. People, Healthy. "Healthy People 2020." (2016).
11. Johnson, E., Reed, S., Hitti, J., & Batra, M. (2005). Increased risk of adverse pregnancy outcome among Somali immigrants in Washington state. American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology, 193(2), 475–482.
12. Khanlou, N., et al. "Scoping Review on Maternal Health among Immigrant and Refugee Women in Canada: Prenatal, Intrapartum, and Postnatal Care." Journal of Pregnancy 2017 (2017).
13. Higginbottom, G., Safipour, J., Mumtaz, Z., Chiu, Y., Paton, P., & Pillay, J. (2013). “I have to do what I believe”: Sudanese women’s beliefs and resistance to hegemonic practices at home and during experiences of maternity care in Canada. BMC Pregnancy Childbirth.

71

1. Quintanilha M, Mayan MJ, et al. Contrasting back home and here: how Northeast African migrant women perceive and experience health during pregnancy and postpartum in Canada. International J for Equity in Health. 2016
2. Food insecurity definition by USDA. Available at: [https://www.ers.usda.gov/topics/food-nutrition-assistance/food-security-in-the-us/](https://www.ers.usda.gov/topics/food-nutrition-assistance/food-security-in-the-us/definitions-of-food-security.aspx) [definitions-of-food-security.aspx](https://www.ers.usda.gov/topics/food-nutrition-assistance/food-security-in-the-us/definitions-of-food-security.aspx)
3. Chilton, Mariana, et al. "Food insecurity and risk of poor health among US-born children of immigrants." American journal of public health 99.3 (2009): 556-562.
4. Pruitt, Sandi L. et al. Peer reviewed: Who is food insecure? Implications for targeted recruitment and outreach, national health and nutrition examination survey 2005-2010. Preventing Chronic Diseases. 13 (2016).
5. Alaimo K, Olsen C, and Frongillo E. Food insufficiency and American school-aged children’s cognitive, academic and psychosocial development. Pediatrics. 2001. 108: 44-53.
6. Hadley C, Crystal L. Patil, and Djona Nahayo. Difficulty in the food environment and the experience of food insecurity among refugees resettled in the United States. Ecology of Food and Nutrition. 49. 5(2010): 390-407.
7. Cordeiro, Lorraine. Et al. Household food insecurity is inversely associated with undernutrition among adolescent from Kilosa Tanzania. The Journal of Nutrition. 2012; 142(9): 1741-7.
8. Chilton, Mariana, et al. "Food insecurity and risk of poor health among US-born children of immigrants." American journal of public health 99.3 (2009): 556-562.
9. Rose-Jacobs, Ruth. et al. Household food insecurity: association with at-risk infant

and toddler development. Pediatrics 2008; 121(1): 65-72.

1. Rose-Jacobs, Ruth. et al. Household food insecurity: association with at-risk infant

and toddler development. Pediatrics 2008; 121(1): 65-72.

1. Frank, Lesley. Exploring infant feeding practices in food insecure household: what

is the real issue? Food and Foodways. 2015; 23(3): 186-209.

1. Whitaker, Robert C. et al. Food insecurity and the risks of depression and anxiety in mothers and behavior problems in their preschool-aged children. Pediatrics. 2006; 118(3): e859-68.
2. Grundersen, Craig. et al. Food security, maternal stressors, and overweight among low-income US children: results from the national health and nutrition examination survey 1999-2002. Pediatrics. 2008; 122(3): e529-40.
3. Sarah Dewing, Mark Tomlinson, et al. Food insecurity and its association with

72

co-occuring postnatal depression, hazardous drinking, and suicidality among women in peri-urban South Africa. J Affect Disord. 2013 Sep 5; 150(2): 460-5.

1. Gundersen, Craig, et al. Food security, maternal stressors, and overweight among low-income US children: results from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (1999-2002). Pediatrics. 2008; 122(3): e529-40.
2. Peterman J, Wilde P, Silka L, et al. Food insecurity among Cambodian refugee women two decades post resettlement. J Immigr Minor Health. 2013 Apr; 15(2): 372-80.
3. Peterman JN, Silka L, Bermudez OI, Wilde PE, Rogers BL. Acculturation, education, nutrition education, and household composition are related to dietary practices among Cambodian refugee women in Lowell, MA. J Am Diet Assoc. 2011 Sep; 111(9):1369-74.
4. Collins, R. L., & McNair, L. D. (2002). Minority women and alcohol use. *Alcohol Research & Health*. Retrieved from<http://psycnet.apa.org/psycinfo/2003-08332-002>
5. Johnson, E., Reed, S., Hitti, J., & Batra, M. (2005). Increased risk of adverse pregnancy outcome among Somali immigrants in Washington state. American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology, 193(2), 475–482.
6. Breslow, R. A., Falk, D. E., Fein, S. B., & Grummer-Strawn, L. M. (2007). Alcohol consumption among breastfeeding women. *Breastfeeding Medicine: The Official Journal of the Academy of Breastfeeding Medicine*, *2*(3), 152–157.<https://doi.org/10.1089/bfm.2007.0012>
7. Popova, S., Lange, S., Probst, C., Parunashvili, N., & Rehm, J. (2017). Prevalence of alcohol consumption during pregnancy and Fetal Alcohol Spectrum Disorders among the general and Aboriginal populations in Canada and the United States. *European Journal of Medical Genetics*, *60*(1), 32–48. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejmg.2016.09.010
8. D’Avanzo, C. E., & Barab. (2000). Drinking during pregnancy: practices of cambodian refugees in France and the United States. *Health Care for Women International*, *21*(4), 319–334. https://doi.org/10.1080/073993300245177
9. Immigrants, refugees and alcohol. (2005). NIH. Available at: [https://pubs.niaaa.nih.gov/publications/social/module10fimmigrants&refugees/mo](https://pubs.niaaa.nih.gov/publications/social/module10fimmigrants&refugees/module10f.html) [dule10f.html](https://pubs.niaaa.nih.gov/publications/social/module10fimmigrants&refugees/module10f.html)
10. Marshall, G. N., Schell, T. L., Elliott, M. N., Berthold, S. M., & Chun, C.-A. (2005). Mental Health of Cambodian Refugees 2 Decades After Resettlement in the United States. *JAMA*, *294*(5), 571–579. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.294.5.571

73

1. Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. (2014) *Results from the 2013 National Survey on Drug Use and Health: summary of national findings*.Rockville, MD
2. D'Avanzo, C. E., & Barab, S. A. (2000). Drinking during pregnancy: practices of Cambodian refugees in France and the United States. *Health care for women international*, *21*(4), 319-334.
3. World Health Organization. (2016). *World Health Statistics 2016: Monitoring Health for the SDGs Sustainable Development Goals*. World Health Organization.
4. Lara, M., Gamboa, C., Kahramanian, M. I., Morales, L. S., & Bautista, D. E. H. (2005). Acculturation and Latino health in the United States: a review of the literature and its sociopolitical context. Annual Review of Public Health, 26, 367– 397. http://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.publhealth.26.021304.144615
5. Drankus. (2010). Indicators of acculturation: a bilinear, multidimensional approach. University of Chicago. Available at: [http://ssa.uchicago.edu/indicators-acculturation-bilinear-multidimensional-approa](http://ssa.uchicago.edu/indicators-acculturation-bilinear-multidimensional-approach) [ch](http://ssa.uchicago.edu/indicators-acculturation-bilinear-multidimensional-approach)
6. Fennelly, K. (2007). The Healthy Migrant Phenomenon. In Walker, P. & Barnett, E. (Eds.), Immigrant Medicine: A Comprehensive Reference for the Care of Refugees and Immigrants. Philadelphia, PA: Elsevier Press.
7. Schwartz, S. J., Unger, J. B., Zamboanga, B. L., & Szapocznik, J. (2010). Rethinking the Concept of Acculturation. The American Psychologist, 65(4), 237–251. http://doi.org/10.1037/a0019330
8. Kandula, NR. (2008). Association of Acculturation Levels and Prevalence of Diabetes in the Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis. Diabetes Care 2008 Aug; 31(8): 1621-1628. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc07-2182>
9. Chamorro, R. (2000). Acculturation and disordered eating patterns among Mexican American women. [Int J Eat Disord.](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10800023) 2000 Jul;28(1):125-9.
10. Kaplan, Mark & Marks, Gary. (1990). Adverse Effects of Acculturation: Psychological Distress among Mexican American Young Adults. Social science & medicine (1982). 31. 1313-9. 10.1016/0277-9536(90)90070-9.
11. Chilton, Mariana, et al. "Food insecurity and risk of poor health among US-born children of immigrants." American journal of public health 99.3 (2009): 556-562.
12. Crossroads: the psychology of immigration in the new century. American psychological association. 2012.
13. Siti, Z. M., et al. "Use of traditional and complementary medicine in Malaysia: a baseline study." Complementary therapies in medicine 17.5 (2009): 292-299.

74

1. NIH, 2016. <https://nccih.nih.gov/research/statistics/2007/camsurvey_fs1.htm>
2. White, Patrice. Heat, balance, humors and ghosts: postpartum in Cambodia. Health care for women international 25.2 (2004): 179-94.
3. Aronson, L. Traditional Cambodian health beliefs and practices. Understanding Cambodian traditions with facilitate their care in a Western setting. Rhode Island Medical Journal. 1987; 70(2): 73-87.
4. Pillsbury, Barbara LK. “Doing the Month”: confinement and convalescence of Chinese women after childbirth. Social Science & Medicine. Part B: Medical Anthropology 12(1978): 11-22.
5. Liu-Chiang, Chong-Yeu. Postpartum worries: an exploration of Taiwanese primiparas who participate in the Chinese ritual of tso-yueh-tzu. Maternal Child Nursing Journal (1995).
6. White, Patrice. Heat, balance, humors and ghosts: postpartum in Cambodia. Health care for women international 25.2 (2004): 179-94.
7. White, Patrice M. "Crossing the river: Khmer women's perceptions of pregnancy and postpartum." Journal of Midwifery & Women’s health 47.4 (2002): 239-246.
8. Rice, Pranee Liamputtong. "Nyo dua hli–30 days confinement: traditions and changed childbearing beliefs and practices among Hmong women in Australia." Midwifery 16.1 (2000): 22-34.
9. Lamxay, Vithith, Hugo J. de Boer, and Lars Bjork. Traditions and plant use during pregnancy, childbirth and postpartum recovery by the Kry ethnic group in Lao PDR. Journal of Ethnobiolgoy and Ethnomedicine 2011; 7(1): 1.
10. Cordeiro, Lorraine and Jerusha Peterman. Household food security and consumption of a traditional medicine tincture, sraa tenam, among Cambodian women in Massachusetts. The FASEB Journal. 2014; Supplement 28(1): LB 480
11. Pung, Amanda, and Carol Reagan Shelton. "Cambodian beliefs and practices related to pregnancy and the postpartum period." Journal of Midwifery & Women's Health 50.5 (2005): 442-443.

128. Meedya S, Fahy K& Kable A. Factors that positively influence breastfeeding duration to 6 months: a literature review. Women Birth. 2010 Dec;23(4):135-45. doi: 10.1016/j.wombi.2010.02.002. Epub 2010 Mar 17

1. Mitra AK. (2004). Predictors of breastfeeding intention among low-income women. [Matern Child Health J.](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15198173) 2004 Jun;8(2):65-70.

75

1. McLnnes RJ. (2001). Independent predictors of breastfeeding intention in a disadvantaged population of pregnant women. [BMC Public Health.](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11710967) 2001;1:10. Epub 2001 Oct 31.
2. Sasaki Y. et al. (2010). Predictors of exclusive breastfeeding in early infancy: a survey report from Phnom Penh, Cambodian. [J Pediatr Nurs.](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21035012) 2010 Dec;25(6):463-9. doi: 10.1016/j.pedn.2009.04.010. Epub 2009 Jul 2.
3. Straub, B., Melvin, C. & Labbok, M. Int Breastfeed J (2008) 3: 2. https://doi.org/10.1186/1746-4358-3-2
4. Senarath, U. et al (2010). Factors associated with nonexclusive breastfeeding in
   1. east and sountheast Asian countries: a multilevel analysis. [J Hum Lact.](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20110564) 2010 Aug;26(3):248-57. doi: 10.1177/0890334409357562. Epub 2010 Jan 28.
5. Lee JP, Kirkpatrick S, Sin T, Rojas-Cheatham A, Moore RS, Ercia A, Tan S, Godoy S. Improving the Health of Cambodian Americans: Grassroots Approaches and Root Causes.
6. Collins, R. L., & McNair, L. D. (2002). Minority Women and Alcohol Use. *Alcohol Research & Health, 26*(4), 251-256.
7. Butte, Nancy F. et al. Nutrient adequacy of exclusive breastfeeding for the term infant during the first six months of life. 2002.
8. Schrader, P.G. et al. (2004). The knowledge, attitudes, & behaviors approach: how to evaluate performance and learning in complex environments. *Performance Improvement*, v43 n9 p8-15 Sep 2004
9. The social-ecological model: a framework for prevention. (2018). CDC. Available at: <https://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/overview/social-ecologicalmodel.html>
10. Bentley M, Gavin L, Black MM, Teti L. Infant feeding practices of low-income, African-American, adolescent mothers: an ecological, multigenerational perspective. Soc Sci Med 1999;49:1085–100.
11. Minkler, M., & Wallerstein, N. (Eds.). (2011). *Community-based participatory research for health: From process to outcomes*. John Wiley & Sons.
12. Russell, Cynthia K., and David M. Gregory. "Evaluation of qualitative research studies." Evidence Based Nursing 6.2 (2003): 36-40.
13. Tropp et al. Psychological acculturation: development of a new measure for Puerto Ricans on the U.S. mainland. Educ Psychol Meas. 1999 Apr 1; 59(2): 351–
    1. doi: [10.1177/00131649921969794](https://dx.doi.org/10.1177%2F00131649921969794)

76

1. Rashrash, M., Schommer, J. C., & Brown, L. M. (2017). Prevalence and Predictors of Herbal Medicine Use Among Adults in the United States. *Journal of Patient Experience*, *4*(3), 108–113. http://doi.org/10.1177/2374373517706612
2. Barimah, KB.et al (2008). The use of Traditional Medicine by Ghanaians in Canada. International Society for Complementary Medicine Research (ISCMR)2008**8**:30
3. Kim M. et al. The use of traditional and western medicine among Korean American elderly. [J Community Health.](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11936756) 2002 Apr;27(2):109-20.
4. Carteret M. (2010). Traditional Asian Health Belief & Healing Practices. Available at: [http://www.dimensionsofculture.com/2010/10/traditional-asian-health-beliefs-heal](http://www.dimensionsofculture.com/2010/10/traditional-asian-health-beliefs-healing-practices/) [ing-practices/](http://www.dimensionsofculture.com/2010/10/traditional-asian-health-beliefs-healing-practices/)
5. Jenkins CN. et al (1996). Health care access and prevention care among Vietnamese immigrants: do traditional beliefs and practices pose barriers? [Soc Sci](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/8890405) [Med.](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/8890405) 1996 Oct;43(7):1049-56.
6. McInnes R, Love JG & Stone DH (2001) Independent predictors of breastfeeding intention in a disadvantaged population of pregnant women, *BMC Public Health*, 1 (10).
7. Straub N, (2016). Economic impact of breast-feeding-associated improvements of childhood cognitive development, based on data from the ALSPAC. [Br J Nutr.](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26794240) 2016 Jan 22:1-6.
8. Balogun, O.O.; Kobayashi, S.; Anigo, K.M.; Ota, E.; Asakura, K.; Sasaki, S. Factors influencing exclusive breastfeeding in early infancy: A prospective study in north central Nigeria. Maternal Child Health J. 2015, 2,1–13.
9. Henninger Ml. (2017). Predictors of breastfeeding initiation and maintenance in an integrated healthcare setting. [J Hum Lact.](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28418800) 2017 May;33(2):256-266. doi:

10.1177/0890334417695202.

1. Cesar, GV. (2015). Association between breastfeeding and intelligence, educational attainment, and income at 30 years of age: a prospective birth cohort study from Brazil. 3(4). DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/S2214-109X(15)70002-1>
2. Breastfeeding data, CDC. 2017. Available at: [https://massbreastfeeding.org/2017/08/05/new-breastfeeding-data-shows-continue](https://massbreastfeeding.org/2017/08/05/new-breastfeeding-data-shows-continued-geographic-disparities-mass-work-highlighted/) [d-geographic-disparities-mass-work-highlighted/](https://massbreastfeeding.org/2017/08/05/new-breastfeeding-data-shows-continued-geographic-disparities-mass-work-highlighted/)

77