

A STUDY OF THE BIRTHING PRACTICES
OF A GROUP OF RECENTLY IMMIGRATED
HMONG WOMEN

by

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A Thesis

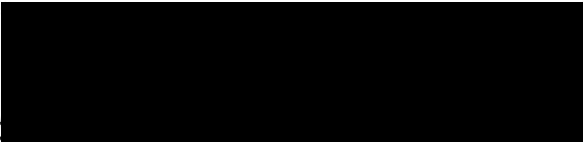
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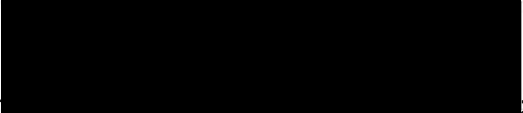
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e. b. l.

For Bob

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

This study will address the knowledge gap faced by American nurses who are providing nursing care to the child-bearing families of recently immigrated Hmong refugees. The Hmong, a hilltribe people of Laos, are part of the larger influx of Southeast Asian refugees; yet their culture is sufficiently distinct that they have not yet been accurately assessed in the literature addressing the nursing care needs of the Southeast Asian client. This examination of Hmong childbearing practices will be directed primarily at the needs of nurses working in labor, delivery, and post partum.

The nursing process takes place within a culturally defined setting. In order to provide the best possible nursing care, and care that is acceptable to the client, something of the cultural milieu from which the client comes must be understood. It is then necessary to cross, at least intellectually, from our culture to a frequently very different one. This intercultural bridging is often called transcultural nursing.

It is the culture from which one comes that determines one's approach to life, goals, expectations, and fears. And it is anthropological information that enables the transcultural nurse to assess care needs in light of these

factors. Therefore, it is appropriate for those who will be caring for the Hmong families to know something of the history and the cultural background of this group.

In 1975, in a series of parallel political events, the U.S. backed governments of Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos fell to the Communist backed Viet Cong, Khmer Rouge and Pathet Lao respectively. Refugees by the hundreds of thousands poured across the borders, and even the open seas, to take refuge in Thailand and Malaysia. Unwelcome in the countries into which they fled, they were collected into camps and are now gradually being accepted as immigrants by various Western nations.

Currently, the United States receives approximately 7,300 refugees a month. Of those, the State of Oregon receives 300-400. There are now approximately 17,000 Indo-Chinese or Southeast Asian immigrants in Oregon. More than 3,000 of these immigrants to Oregon have been of the ethnic group called Hmong, though recently many have left the state because of adverse economic conditions. The Hmong in the U.S. have almost all come from Laos, Vang Tou-Fu (1978) states, and so they may also be considered to be Lao Hmong.

These people now living in the United States are turning to a new and, to them, strange health care system. They appear faithfully at pre-natal clinics for obstetrical care, and at hospitals for delivery, at least in part, it is said, because they believe this is expected of a responsible and law-abiding U.S. citizen. It may be that they come also because they believe ours is a good health care system which

as already noticeably lowered their infant mortality rate.

In the "old country," where satisfaction in life was obtained by watching one's children and grandchildren grow up (Barney, 1957), and where the ideal was to be blessed with as many children as possible (Bernatzik, 1947), the birthrate was very high. In keeping with that tradition, and because one element in setting down roots here seems to be to have an American-born child or children, it is expected that a significant number of births will be seen within this community in the coming years. These births occurring now in American hospitals present an unique challenge to the obstetrical care team.

The goals of obstetrical nursing are to provide comfort, support and safety to the childbearing family. If more is learned about the Hmong childbearing customs, practices and desires, then it should be possible to increase the effectiveness of the American nurse in providing the comfort and support desired while adding the dimension of increased safety in the birthing process.

There is a range of good health practices which the obstetrical team attempts to teach to all childbearing families from nutrition during pregnancy to immunization of all babies. In order to teach these things the nurse needs rapport and credibility with her clients. If her behavior is in sharp contrast to what the clients experienced in the past and seems to them to violate common sense, it is unlikely that she will achieve either the rapport or

credibility she desires. If, on the other hand, she can do her caring and teaching with an understanding of the clients' past experiences, she can incorporate those experiences where appropriate and explain contradictions when necessary.

A final reason for conducting this factor-seeking study is the observation made both historically and locally (Lees, Hickey and Musgrave, 1964; Lees, 1981) that the Hmong women have very easy, rapid and uneventful labors. If this is so, there may be traditional factors or practices that account for this. In addition, therefore, this study will attempt to record from the practical wisdom of their older women and traditional birth attendants those things which they believe have led to a better pregnancy outcome, such as easier labors or stronger babies.

Review of the Literature

The anthropology literature makes only very general references to the childbearing practices of the Hmong. The details of those practices remain to be described and an attempt will be made to do so in the course of this study. What will be reviewed in this section are descriptions of the Hmong culture as a whole, Hmong childbearing practices as far as they are known, and then the literature pertaining to labor and delivery support and the role of the nurse in effecting that support.

Yang See Koumarn, himself a Hmong, in an article written to help Americans understand the history of the Hmong

refugees states: "A complete anthropological study of the Hmong has never been made..." (Yang See, 1978, p. 3). The most comprehensive material available about these people was gathered and written by G. L. Barney, a missionary, anthropologist and linguist who worked in the early 1950's with the Hmong in Xieng Khouang Province, Laos and Hugo Bernatzik who, with his wife, studied the Thailand Meau Hmong) in 1936-1937. Most descriptions of the Hmong in Laos after 1957 refer to Barney's work.

Origins of the Hmong

The name Hmong means "free men" and that is the name by which these people have always referred to themselves. However, they are called by several different names. The Siamians referred to them as "Meo," a derogatory term translating literally as "rice shoot" and implying much the same thing as the American term "hayseed" for a country person. The Chinese refer to them as "Maio" - barbarians; and most of the older literature uses some variation of this term (Barney, 1957; Bernatzik, 1947; Garrett, 1974; Le Bar, et al., 1964; Roberts, Carroll, Kaplan, Matthews, McMorris and Townsend, 1967; Yang See, 1978). In the United States they are known as Hmong, a term that the most recent literature utilizes also.

The Hmong are divided into a number of groups which are named on the basis of a characteristic color or design of the women's costume. They are thus referred to as White, Black, Red, Striped, Flowered, and so forth, Hmong. The

most prevalent groups in Laos were the White and the Black Hmong (Le Bar, 1964; Roberts, 1967).

The earliest known reference to the Hmong people occurs in a Chinese text dating from some forty-two centuries ago (2223 B.C.). The Hmong are believed to have originated in China and approximately two and a half million of them remain in the Peoples Republic of China today (Garrett, 1974; Le Bar et al., 1964). Over the centuries they moved south through Yunnan, China where many remained and into Laos and other Southeast Asian countries, always settling in the mountains between 3,000 and 6,000 feet (Roberts et al., 1967; Vang Tou-fu, no date). They first appeared in Laos only about one hundred fifty years ago and have maintained much closer cultural links with China than with the indigenous Laotians (Roberts et al., 1967; Yang See, 1978).

The number of Hmong who actually lived in Laos is unknown since a census was never taken. It is estimated, however, that 350,000 lived there in the mid 1960's (Yang See, 1978). Their numbers were greatly reduced by both combat and the effects of relocation during the war (White & Garrett, 1968; Yang See, 1978).

Life in Indo China

Living high in the mountains the Hmong practiced a form of slash-burn agriculture (swidden-farming) growing subsistence food crops and, as a cash crop, opium (Roberts, et al., 1967). The growing of opium was legal and encouraged under both the French and Royal Laotian

governments until 1971 (Garrett 1974). The Hmong remained fiercely independent of Laotian influence, holding the Laotians in no higher esteem than the Laotians held them (Barney, 1957; Halpern & Kunstadter, 1967).

Traditional Hmong society is usually described as non-literate or pre-literate. Roberts et al. (p. 60) state:

They are said to have writing systems that are based on Chinese characters, limited in use to religious texts, and known only by priests.

Very few Hmong, however, did learn to read and write in Lao and occasionally in French (Yang See, 1978).

The war that ultimately drove the Hmong from Laos lasted from about 1955 to 1975. The majority of the Hmong, recruited and armed by the American CIA, backed the Royal Laotian forces against the Pathet Lao. Even with peace in 1975, there was no relief since the pro-American Hmong were apparently singled out by the Pathet Lao for annihilation (Yang See, 1978). There was literally no place to hide and thousands more were killed. Fleeing for their lives, some actually swimming across the Mekong River border, they made their way into Thailand and from there to such unlikely places as Missoula, Montana and Portland, Oregon.

Prior to the relocations caused by the war, the Hmong lived in small scattered villages on the mountain sides, above 3,000 feet elevation. They moved the village every few years because the type of agriculture they practiced required that new land be found, the forest cut down and burned to provide the nutrients for the soil, and then the

crops planted in this clearing (Barney, 1957; Garrett, 1974; Bar et al., 1964; Roberts et. al., 1967).

Food crops planted included corn, buckwheat, and dry-land rice supplemented by several different vegetables (Aradie, 1924; Roberts et al., 1967). Domestic animals, which were usually only eaten in conjunction with a ritual religious sacrifice, included poultry, goats, cows, buffalo and pigs (Barney, 1957; Garrett, 1974). Horses, which were much finer than the usual Southeast Asian ones, were also raised but never eaten (Aradie, 1924).

Social Organizations

More than any other of the minority tribespeople of Southeast Asia, the Hmong developed a system of political organization that enabled them to have representation and the beginnings of power in the country as a whole (Barney, 1957; Garrett, 1974; Roberts et al., 1967; White & Garrett, 1968). The basic and strongest unit was the household made up of an extended family under the leadership of the senior male householder. The village was the next division and was made up of one to twenty households, usually of one clan, under a senior householder. The clans were spread over different villages and occasionally more than one clan would share a village. Some time after 1945, these village chiefs were organized and led by a man named Toubey Lyfond who first rose to prominence as a leader of Hmong militia against the Japanese in World War II. He was generally considered to be the paramount chief and was the first of

...s people to hold a seat on the Council of the Royal Lao Government (Barney, 1957; Yang See, 1978). This propensity for organization was evidenced even in crowded refugee camps where the shelters were arranged by households, clans and former villages.

Parallel to this civilian organization has been the recruitment and support of guerilla armies. These armies were led by Faydang Lor on the side of the Pathet Lao and General Vang Pao on the side of the Royal Laotians (Barney, 1957; Roberts et al., 1967; Yang See, 1978). Vang Pao is living in the United States today where he retains much of his former influence in the Hmong Community (Woody, 1981). The Hmong economist, Dr. Yang Dao, attributes this military involvement with ". . . more progress in 14 years . . . than he could have had in 50 years of peace" (Garrett, 1974, p. 86).

The religion of these people is animistic in that there are numerous spirits, each of which is involved with a specific aspect of daily life such as the rice field, the trail, the sleeping quarters, and the like. The degree to which an individual believes in these spirits varies greatly. There was also a Supreme Being, the creating spirit called Fua Tai who initially created all things but became disgusted with man and abandoned him to the spirit world (Barney, 1957). Related to this spirit world is the honoring of the spirits of the families' ancestors. A shrine within each home is reserved for this purpose. Not

being able to erect a proper shrine in the refugee shelters
is a source of some distress to these people (Barney, 1957;
Yang See, 1978).

Barney observed that:

with the Hmongs, life is conceived of as one long series of events with no great traumatic experiences leading from one stage to another. Birth and death are considered the major crises, while marriage is an important event that assures the continuance of Hmong society and culture. The household functions throughout the life of the Hmongs, and serves as the mold in which life is lived (1957, p. 42).

Family Life

Marriage must be with someone from outside the clan and the marriage partners make their own choices. The age for marriage is variously set at 20-21 for girls and 16-17 for boys by Bernatzik (1947); at 14-18 for girls and 15-30 for boys by Bessac & Rainbolt (no date) and beginning at 14 for girls by the Indo Chinese Mental Health Project (no date). Barney and others state that sexual adventures and trial marriage are the norm and that virginity at the time of marriage has no particular value (Adabie, 1924; Barney, 1957; Bernatzik, 1947; Garrett, 1974). Hmong writers, however, dispute this and Yang See adds that unwed pregnancy is a family disgrace (Truong-Quang Reed & Tou Fu-vang, 1978; Yang See, 1978).

When a couple determined that they wanted to be married, a go-between was chosen who would negotiate with the bride's parents for the "bride price" which would be paid by the

potential husband. Elopements occurred when negotiations broke down and the arrangements were then made after the fact by a neutral panel (Abadie, 1924; Barney, 1957; Bernatzik, 1947). The society is patrilocal and so the young woman leaves her father's household and joins the household and clan of her husband (Barney, 1957; Bernatzik, 1947).

Polygamy was traditionally allowed and was most often practiced when a man married his brother's widow (Barney, 1957). Second and subsequent wives occupy a lower status and must answer to the first wife (Bernatzik, 1947). Occasionally a second wife might be sought by the first wife to help with an increasing load of household duties (Garrett, 1974), although, the consent of the first wife is not required (Bernatzik, 1947; Indo Chinese Mental Health Project, no date). In general the members of this household get along well and unhappy wives are rare (Bernatzik, 1947). With the war, a tremendous number of men were killed and so polygamy, which was beginning to die out, increased beyond that formerly seen (Yang See, 1978; Garrett, 1974). The staff of the Indo Chinese Mental Health Project in Pennsylvania state: "In coming to the U.S., only one spouse may remain to the husband. Second, third, etc., marriages must be dissolved. Wives are still informally accepted as family." (p. 42).

Divorce, initiated only by the wife, was possible, but was unusual (Bernatzik, 1947). More commonly, a neutral

nel with a village headman and representatives of both
ets of in-laws would arbitrate a dispute (Barney, 1957).

By way of emphasizing the importance of the family in
s essay for Americans on Hmong culture, Vang Tou-fu states:

By tradition the Hmong usually have big
families... In a world where people have
not learned to trust police, banks or
insurance, the happiness, prosperity and
security of the individuals are centered
in the family. Thus the larger the
family, the better and more secure it is
(no date, pp. 94-95).

Health-Illness Caring System

Bernatzik describes the Hmong as having a very highly
developed talent for observation and diagnosis of illness.
Their knowledge of herbal medicine was so great that he
recommends a serious investigation by western pharmacology
of the many medicinal plants which they utilized. They are
most skillful at treating fractured bones which are
carefully set with splints and bound with bandages. He
states that only in those cases of illness for which there
is no known remedy do the Hmong turn to the ancestors and
spirits for help. And, even then, some of the shamen who
are called in are also skilled at medicine (Bernatzik, 1947).

Several authors describe the appropriate use of opium to
treat pain, the discomforts of old age and diarrhea (Barney,
1957; Bernatzik, 1947; Garrett, 1974). In contrast to that,
however, both Barney and Garrett report that illness is
attributed to spiritual factors. Usually blame is placed on
the spirit trying to leave the body of the ill individual,

us the job of the shamen is to entice the spirit to return and remain where it belongs (Barney, 1957, Garrett, 1974).

Childbearing Practices

Barney states that when childbirth occurs the father assists his wife during the birth and receives the child. He cuts the cord and bathes the child with warm water. That author did not observe any taboos that the father was supposed to observe but it was clear that he was expected to be present at the delivery. An informant is quoted who stated that a pregnancy lasts nine months if it is a girl and ten months if it is a boy. Shortly after a birth takes place, the village shaman will place fetishes on the child's neck and limbs to guard against evil spirits and to encourage the soul to remain in the body (Barney, 1957).

Bernatzik similarly describes the participation of the husband who when the time for delivery comes supports his wife who is squatting on the ground next to the bed, catches the child, ties the cord and cuts it with scissors and then washes the baby. If this is the husband's first experience the parents will assist him. A mat or leaves will have been placed underneath the delivering women. The placenta and umbilical cord are placed in a bamboo and buried -- the girl's under the bed of the parents and a boy's next to the middle post of the house. After delivery the mother remains on her bed and her husband cares for her and tries to relieve her of all work. Length of confinement varies according to economic circumstances from a few to 30 days.

is always prolonged as long as possible in the belief that it will make the women healthier and stronger and thus able to bear future children. The birth of twins, he found, is considered an especially happy and lucky occasion.

In his discussion of medicinal practices Bernatzik (1947) reports the use of an herb as an uterine tonic. He also cited Meau (Hmong) obstetrical skill where "... even in transverse presentation they are able to turn the child in the uterus by reaching in through the vagina with the hand and assisting the work of the hand through massage from the outside (p. 319).

Le Bar et al., (1964) offer a very comprehensive ethnography of the different "Meo" groups, yet they have only two references to birthing practices. First the Miao of Yunnan, China are reported to have easy births, sometimes unattended in the fields. Birth is reported to be in:

...upright position, legs apart and slightly bent while grasping a stationary object with a lined basket or receptacle on the ground to receive the baby. The mother is back in the fields in three or four days (p. 72).

They also report the possession of an herb which makes others strong and able to give birth easily.

These authors' descriptions of the Laos "Meo" in part quote from the French work of Abadie in 1924 wherein they state that the "Meo" have no food taboos for the mothers but the husband must observe a vegetarian diet and remain near the house. If a boy is born, his placenta is buried before

the entrance to the house; if a girl, hers is buried underneath the hearth. The child is named at thirty-three days of age and at that time friends bring gifts (LeBar et al., 1964).

Bessac and Reinbolt (no date) who investigated Hmong culture among recent immigrants in Missoula, Montana, confirmed earlier observations about the husband's role. They state that "Even in Montana the husband tries to stay at the hospital until his wife can safely come home with the baby" (p. 34). Their informants also recall "...wild plants which when eaten assure the birth of a son, increase fertility or cause abortion" (p. 25). Like other Southeast Asians these new or expectant mothers avoid drinking cold things in order to keep their bodies strong both now and in old age. Chicken and rice prepared with healthful herbs are recommended for new mothers.

The staff study by the Indo Chinese Mental Health Project in Pennsylvania (no date) reported that the husband traditionally delivered the baby with the help of a midwife, a statement that contradicts to Bernatzik's observation that "Midwives are unknown" (p. 75). Further, they alone report a strict confinement to the house for one month of all newly delivered women.

Garrett in 1974 reported that the necklace placed on every baby right after birth, in addition to encouraging the soul to remain is also to show the spirits that the child is not a slave and belongs to a family.

Some Hmong, Barney relates, believe that the soul of a recently deceased family member will remain in the house and then inhabit the body of the next newborn.

One of the few published articles to date which address the issue of providing obstetrical nursing care to Southeast Asian families considers all of the ethnic groups who have lived in that region to have similar cultural backgrounds. Focusing on the Vietnamese who make up the largest number, the article is quite misleading. For example, the question of whether the woman's husband would expect to play a part in the labor and delivery is answered in the negative. While this would be correct in the case of Vietnamese, Laotians or Cambodians it would not be correct in the case of Hmong families (Hollingsworth, Brown, and Brooten, 1980).

Todd (1982) writing for the publication of the International Childbirth Education Association, on the other hand, recognizes the cultural differences among Southeast Asians and goes on to say that even within the ethnic group it is not possible to altogether generalize. She presents a brief ethnography and recommendations based on information gathered by Barbara Huff-Bloomer, a public health nurse who interviewed 10 Hmong women who had had at least one child in Laos and one in the United States, and published in a Wisconsin regional perinatal journal.

Todd reports that Hmong women in Laos would have associated clinics and hospitals only with severe illness and death and thus may be quite fearful about a hospital

experience. She predicts that Hmong fathers might only take their wives to the hospital for delivery but not wish to be in the hospital themselves. She states that Hmong may be very anxious about blood tests believing that blood loss weakens the individual. There may, she found, be a tendency also to want to avoid taking vitamins and iron because medicine should be used only by the sick.

The Hmong women's special post partum diet is described as chicken, rice, eggs, salt, black pepper, hot herbs and spices for one month with all fruits and vegetables forbidden in the belief that they would cause lifelong illness. It is expected, she reports, that the baby would stay with the mother after birth and she refers to the special significance of the placenta to the Hmong people. In Laos, the boy's placenta was buried outside the door of the home and the girl's in the floor under the place of birth, so in this country she recommends that the disposition of the placenta be discussed with the parents.

The Role of the American Nurse

In contrast to the dearth of literature describing the childbearing practices of the Hmong family, there is a wide range of literature about the role of the American nurse in assisting the childbearing family in general.

During the course of labor, Affonso describes two major goals:

1. To nurture the woman and significant other during labor and delivery so that they can cope optimally during the experience.
2. To stimulate the woman and significant other so that they will emerge from the labor experience with a strengthened self esteem and family unity.

(Affonso, 1976, p. 355).

The nursing actions to accomplish this are those which develop a sense of trust, meet informational needs, promote comfort and relaxation, provide the support system of herself and significant others, facilitate the immediate maternal-infant claiming process and help to integrate the labor experience into a meaningful whole.

Similarly, Chassie (1976) sees the role of the nurse in supporting the laboring couple as that of advocate and the goals as:

- (1) to identify and reinforce strengths that already exist within the family,
- (2) to augment those strengths for the future, and
- (3) to prevent events that weaken such strengths.

(p. 100).

Muecke (1976) believes that the health care system, if it can attract clients by its obvious reduced risk in delivery, can act as an agent for social change. She sees improved nutrition, environmental sanitation and fertility control attitudes all arising from teaching during pre-natal and delivery care. At the same time, she envisions traditional (Thai) practices incorporated into

stern hospitals, thus salvaging the rich human intimacy that was the strength of those older ways.

Addressing the issue that American nurses need to adopt a transcultural nursing model, Leininger urges nurses to systematically study and classify the nursing care beliefs, values and practices of other cultures. Based on her own anthropological and nursing research she hypothesizes that:

Professional people working in strange cultures with different values about nursing care or caring behaviors can create obvious cultural conflicts and problems unless they are willing to recognize and adapt to indigenous caring values and expectations.

The greater the differences between indigenous...cultural caring values and modern professional nursing care values, the greater the signs of cultural conflict and stresses in care-giving and care-receiving contexts.

Professional caring behaviors which are congruent with the social structure and the values of a particular culture will show greater client satisfaction and acceptance than those caring behaviors which show incongruencies with the values and social structure of a given culture.

(Leininger, 1978, p. 37)

Summary

In summary, then, the literature provides us with a general background of the life style of the Hmong people in their Laotian homeland and a history of their migration and relocation. The desirability of children is evidenced, but there are scanty references to childbearing practices

and those that are found scarcely treat such areas as the husband's role, the traditional birth attendants, treatment of the mother in labor or the immediate care of the newborn. Nursing literature recommends a number nursing actions which facilitate healthy childbearing in general and Leininger (1978) warns of the consequences of a failure to provide culturally sensitive care. There does not seem to be a published work on the American nurse's role in meeting the particular nursing care needs of the Hmong families in labor and delivery.

Conceptual Framework

If it is accepted that nurses who are going to be caring for laboring women need to understand them within their cultural context, then the conceptual and theory-generating model of Leininger can be used. Within this model the major sources of transcultural information are:

1. A general ethnography of the lifeways of the particular culture.
2. The major social structure features (political, kinship).
3. Cultural values.
4. The health-illness caring system.

From these sources, the researcher looks for those caring "constructs" such as comfort, nurturance and protection "which reflect the culture's own caring practices" (p. 22). Analysis and utilization of this data

enable us to determine appropriate nursing interventions (Leininger, 1979).

In the case of the Hmong the literature has provided a basic ethnographic, social structure and cultural value orientation. Within the health-illness caring system, however, there is an inadequate information base in the area of childbirth. This basic information can be gathered in such a way as to yield details illustrating the culture's approach to comfort measures, support measures, helping behaviors, coping behaviors, health maintenance acts and stress alleviation measures. Following Leininger's model, these, constructs can be identified and analyzed for use in nurses' decision making.

The data collected in this study will be used to describe some aspects of the health illness caring system relating to childbirth. The data analysis will then utilize the classification of those details for the development of factor-isolating theory.

Problem Statement

There is a need for nursing to determine the child birth practices that are valued by the Hmong clients. This information can be analyzed and used to prescribe the nursing interventions which will ensure maximum benefit from Western obstetrical care while providing comfort and support that is sensitive to Hmong desires and customs.

search Questions

To address the gap in knowledge regarding the childbearing health-illness system, the following research questions are asked:

1. What were the caring constructs of the birthing practices of the Hmong women in their homeland?
2. What were the caring constructs of the birthing practices in their American deliveries?
3. Which of the traditional caring constructs do they continue to value?
4. What can an American nurse do to facilitate the continuation of those valued caring constructs, thereby providing the support desired and enhancing her effectiveness as a health care provider?

CHAPTER II

Methods

Introduction

This chapter will deal with the setting and why it was chosen for the study; the subjects and how they were recruited into the study; the design of the study including the procedure; the type of analysis it was subjected to. Limitations of the methods used and of the study data will include the chapter.

Setting

The setting chosen for the study was the Indochinese Cultural and Service Center. This center is a private, non-profit, social service agency dedicated to aiding refugees from Southeast Asia in achieving self-sufficiency and productivity in American life. This service center operates in the classic tradition of the settlement house and is in fact located in The Neighborhood House which was built as a settlement house in 1911.

Among the many programs offered by this center is the Women's Cultural Skills Program. This program enrolls adult women in a course of study which includes such basic survival skills as: telling time, shopping for groceries, laundry, and taking prescribed medications. The women enrolled range in age from 15-80 and most of them are re-literate.

This setting, which also had available records of their first students, was chosen because it provided a source for selecting the desired number of participants, all of whom were recently immigrated to this country. The surroundings were familiar to them and the interpreter was someone they knew.

Secondly this setting was chosen because it is not a health care provider. Under the National Institute of Health guidelines effective June 1, 1981, therefore, this survey/interview procedure was exempt from human subjects review requirements and as a result, some of the difficulties associated with the necessity of obtaining informed consent were avoided.

Subjects

Seventeen Hmong women from Laos were recruited as a convenience sample from the Women's Program at the Indochinese Cultural and Service Center. The identification and recruitment of these women was done by the Hmong interpreter of the Women's Program from their list of current and former students. The women had to have had at least two births in Laos and one hospital birth in the United States (During the course of the interview it was discovered that one woman had delivered precipitously at home and was only admitted to the hospital post partum.). Births which occurred in the refugee camps in Thailand either disqualified a candidate nor counted as part of the minimum requirement because of the disruption and atypical nature of the situation. At least two births in Laos were

ulated to allow for the difference between the first
por and delivery a mother has and any subsequent ones.
ving had experiences delivering in both countries, it was
ded that these women would be able to identify those "old
untry" practices which they missed in this country.

An attempt was also made to identify traditional birth
tendants or midwives but finding none, a group of four
ltiparous women over 50 years of age were selected. These
men were recruited to act as critical informants providing
ckground information regarding reasons for specific
actices and details. Additionally they had all had their
bies prior to the severe physical and cultural disruption
used by the war. The same question technique used with
e 17 initial subjects was used except that they were asked
ly about their Laotian experiences.

Design and Procedure

The study is a descriptive one using the results of a
ructured interview to outline the past, present and
sired birthing practices of the target population.
estions were developed with input from nursing staff of
manuel Hospital. These questions were further refined with
e help of the Emanuel staff Hmong interpreter so that
estions were culturally sensitive enough to obtain the
equired information without causing discomfort to the
articipants. The interpreter at the Indochinese Center
also reviewed the questions for appropriateness. Finally, a
et of nine specific questions and one open-ended question

was adopted for use. The questions can be seen in Appendix A.

The Indochinese Center interpreter, herself a Laotian born Hmong, contacted the potential subjects by telephone or at the center and asked them to participate. The purpose of the study, a general description of the questions' content and an assurance of privacy was given to potential subjects. A written and signed statement of informed consent was not obtained for the following reasons: there was no risk of physical or psychological discomfort involved (all questions were tested for possible causes of psychological/emotional discomfort); the concept of a written informed consent form would have been extremely difficult to explain adequately and so it was unlikely that it would have validly served its purpose; and the act of obtaining informed consent could in itself have constituted a discomfort to these people.

Subjects were interviewed in groups of two to four to save interpreter time, to minimize the amount of direct confrontation which might be threatening, and in the hopes of decreasing their characteristic shyness. A cover letter was read to the participants before beginning the interview and the opportunity to ask questions was offered. (See Appendix B.) The interpreter asked the questions and provided immediate translation. A tape recording was made of each interview with the permission of the participants.

a question seemed to cause discomfort to either the subjects or the interpreter, it was not pursued. Subjects were reimbursed for travel expenses to and from the Indochinese Center with two Tri-Met bus tickets.

Background data was gathered from each participant regarding the Hmong group they belong to, i.e. White, Black, etc., age, number of children, age at first birth, and years in the U.S.

Data sheets (Appendix C) were prepared to code information received from each participant. There was one sheet per question and the individuals' responses were coded. The sheets were divided to allow for answers in terms of the Laotian experience, the U.S. experience, and the desired experience.

Analysis

Analysis of the raw data entailed examination of the answers received in the course of the interviews for themes which could then be categorized within Leininger's caring constructs. These were examined for elements which pointed to a discrepancy between birthing practices the Hmong women remember, continue to desire, and those currently employed at local obstetrical facilities with Hmong clients. These themes were not subjected to statistical analysis and are presented in descriptive, narrative form.

Limitations

The study subjects were a convenience sample taken from participants in the Women's Program and, while it is believed by the Indochinese Center that most newly arrived

fugee women enroll in the program, it is possible that there are childbearing Hmong women who have not taken this course and who represent a group with a different mind set.

Because the family and clan relationships are so important in Hmong culture, the Portland Hmong community may represent a specific group who intentionally settled in the same area. Evidence which supports this is the finding that nearly all of the subjects were White Hmong, there were two Hue Hmong and no other groups; and that several of the women were related to each other by either blood or marriage.

The interpreter provided by the Indochinese Center was skillful and patient, however, an interview done through an interpreter is difficult at best. The process is tedious and in the end exhausting for the interpreter. Thus, the interpreter tries to keep the exchange to an efficient rendering of the facts and some of the background information is lost. Particularly sad was the investigator's inability to understand the frequent bursts of humor within the groups.

The study design contained too many questions so that interviews took much longer than had been anticipated. Most of the subject women were accompanied by infants and/or small children and both were tired before the session was concluded. Thus, it seems that answers to the later questions were less complete than the earlier ones.

Interviewed in a group, the women often reached a consensus before answering and it can be assumed that the

inions of the more assertive ones were reported. There s disagreement within groups so this was certainly not the se each time. Additionally, a topic might come up in one oup which triggered the memory of the participants of that oup but not come up in another group although they might so have experienced the same thing.

Finally there seemed to be a tendency among these women be agreeable and perhaps to avoid criticism of American ys. Because an effort was made to encourage criticism, at ast some of the women did do so, but it is very difficult know whether there may have been others who had mplaints they did not feel free to voice.

CHAPTER III

Results

This chapter will present the biographical data obtained from the seventeen subject women and the four critical informants, the answers received to the ten research questions, and the supplementary information provided by the critical informants.

Sample

Initially, 20 women who had had at least two births in Laos and one birth in the United States were sought as subjects for this study. Only 17 women, however, could be identified by the staff at the Indochinese Center who met the sample criteria and who were willing and able to meet at the center for the required interview.

The subjects' biographical data can be seen summarized in Table 1. The majority identified themselves as white Hmong, with only two women identifying themselves as Blue Hmong. The mean age of these women, who ranged from 20 to 46 years of age, was 30.06. One woman, who seemed older than most, did not know how old she was. Their ages at their first birth are difficult to determine, since several participants did not know and others were unsure. Most could estimate their ages at that time, nevertheless, and the range was from 16 to 19 years with a mean of 16.93. The

number of children each had had ranged from 3 to 12 with a mean of 5.58. They had had from 1 to 11 children in Laos with a mean of 3 and had had 1 to 2 children in this country with a mean of 1.12. Fourteen of them had had at least one boy in a Thai refugee camp and three had not. These women had lived in the United States from 11 to 24 months with a mean residence time of 19 months.

An unsuccessful attempt was made to determine their village of origin in Laos. No one knew how the village names were spelled and it was impossible for this writer to record the tonal Hmong language phonetically. It should be noted, however, that several of the participants were from the same town.

The subject women were identified alphabetically from A to Q and will be referred to in the text by their letter.

TABLE 3

Subjects' Biographic Data

Subject	Hmong Group	Age	Age @ 1st Birth	Total Births	Births				Months in U.S.
					Laos	Thailand	U.S.	Months in U.S.	
A	White	41	? ^b	5	2	2	1	24	
B	White	33	17 ^b	6	4	1	1	15	
C	White	33	16	6	3	2	1	20	
D	White	34	19 ^b	7	4	2	1	24	
E	White	46	17	11	8	2	1	24	
F	White	28	16	4	2	1	1	24	
G	White	24	19	4	2	0	2	20	
H	White	37	18	4	2	1	1	24	
I	White	26	17	5	3	1	1	12	
J	White	28	16	4	2	1	1	18	
K	White	20	16	3	1	1	1	12	
L	White	20	16	3	1	1	1	17	
M	White	26	19	5	4	0	1	11	
N	Blue	26	17	5	3	1	1	12	
O	White	31	15	6	3	1	2	24	
P	Blue	? ^{ab}	? ^c	12	11	0	1	18	
Q	White	28	16	5	1	3	1	24	

^aseemed older than most subjects
^bunsure
^csaid she was very young

In addition, four older women were recruited as critical informants. These women were all white Hmong and ranged in age from 56 to 64 years, with one being unsure of her age. They had borne from 3 to 15 children each and had been between 15 and 25 years old when their first child was born. They had lived in the United States from 10 to 36 months.

Findings

The research questions were asked in three forms: first, how these women remembered an issue or situation in Laos; secondly, how they experienced it in their U.S. hospital deliveries; and, lastly, how they would wish for it to be. A summary of the seventeen subjects' views will be followed by specific comments by them and the critical informants. Not every women answered every question and so the numbers do not always total seventeen.

Birth Attendants

As can be seen in Table 2, there was a variety of responses to the question: "Who was with you during your labor and delivery in Laos?" Furthermore, because there was more than one birth for each women, it was not necessarily the same person each time and so the numbers of the attendants total more than 17.

Table 2
 Attendants During Labor
 and Delivery in Laos

Attendant	Number Reporting Attendant in Labor	Number Reporting Attendant During Delivery
husband	10	13
mother-in-law	1	2
grandmother-in-law	1	1
father	0	1
uncle's wife	0	1
alone	7	2

Only two women, N and O, reported being totally alone for the whole birth process, although others noted that the attendant merely cut the umbilical cord rather than providing any particular companionship or support. One woman, P, related that her husband was not always home at the time of the birth and had to be summoned afterward. Another, Q, remarked that older people don't like the husband to see his wife's first birth because he is then too young.

The experience of the critical informants also varied, but their attendants included: husbands, mothers-in-law, the mother, and one husband's first wife. One woman had no one with her. They all agreed that it was important for the husband to be there for a birth, but that there were no serious consequences if he was not.

Answers to the question: "Who was with you during your labor and delivery in the United States?" are shown in Table 3 below:

Table 3
Attendants During Labor
and Delivery in the U.S.

Attendant	Labor	Delivery
Husband	13	11
Doctor	10	12
Nurse	5	7
Midwife	2	2
Sister-in-law	1	1
Other	1	0
Delivery	0	2a

Husband not in OR

Two deliveries occurred accidentally at home. One was assisted by her husband and the other by her husband and sister-in-law. Another delivery occurred in the hospital elevator with her husband standing by.

Subjects E and P, both of whom were grand multipara's, had Cesarean births and were distressed that they had been unable to deliver their babies with ease in the old country, but had to be delivered surgically here. P still seemed quite angry and stated that her husband, rather than herself, had signed the consent for the Cesarean delivery, as well as, a bilateral tubal ligation.

Also notable is the fact that only seven mentioned having had nurses with them during their U.S. labors compared to 12 who mentioned the doctor. It may have been, however, that they were unable to distinguish the nurse from the physician in a setting where both are dressed alike, perform similar functions and are, in many instances, both male.

The next question asked about birth attendants was: "Who would you like to have with you during labor and delivery?" Responses are summarized in Table 4.

Table 4
Attendants Desired During
Labor and Delivery

Attendant	Number
Doctor	12 ^a
Husband	10
Nurse	6
No family	4
Alone in labor	3
Delivery at home	2
Friend	1

^aTwo mentioned women doctors

Additional comments included those of A and B who stated that they preferred not to have relatives with them since the relatives don't know what to do. D, E, and F wanted the doctor to stay with them, but not to touch them; and another, Q, so feared having the doctor touch her that she would prefer to remain at home for her next birth. J requested that there not be too many people in the room because that makes her uncomfortable. K, on the other hand, stated that she needs support people because she has a hard time having a baby. Though P had been sterilized and knew she would have no more children, she said that if she were to have another baby it would be at home with her husband.

tendants' Functions at Birth

The question asked was: "What did those with you do to help during labor and delivery in Laos?" While many of the respondents (6) answered that the helper did nothing or only cut the cord (3) after the birth, they also indicated that their labors were short and no help was expected or required. For example, L started having pains while working in the fields and ran to the house where she delivered immediately without help, although her husband and mother-in-law were present. C recalls that her husband tried to help by bringing a lamp, but she sent him away. At her subsequent birth in Thailand, he really wanted to help her but only succeeded in being distracting and annoying,

though she did allow him to cut the cord. Similar examples include N's husband, who just watched and made her look around the fire, and O's husband, who went to sleep and woke in time to cut the cord.

J said that her husband was there and she could hold onto him when the pain was bad. Three others also said that they were held up by their support persons. Another kind of assistance included that rendered by M's husband who took her to the temple and performed a ceremony to the spirits to hasten the birth. By contrast, K who had had 5-6 days of labor pains reported that nothing was done by anyone to help her.

It should be noted that question number two was designed to determine what was done by way of support by the laboring men's companion/attendant rather than to determine additional obstetrical aids or techniques which are addressed in question number three. The answers largely overlap, however, since there was no "professional" birth attendant for these primitive hill women and whatever might have been done was done by whichever family member happened to be nearby.

By contrast to the minimal intervention or assistance during their Laotian deliveries, the subjects reported a number of measures taken during their U.S. deliveries. Answers to the questions: "What did the support person(s) do to help during your labor and delivery in the United

ates?" are summarized in Table 5. The answers to this question seem to apply to the assistance given by hospital personnel even though most of the women had had their husbands with them at least up to delivery.

Table 5
Attendants' Functions at Birth in the U.S.

Activity	Number
Nothing	5
I.V.'s	5
Shot	2
Blood	2
Sent home	2
Made to lie still	1
Held hand and wiped brow	1
Belt placed on stomach	1
Doctor caught the baby	1

C and G diagnosed as not being in labor, were sent home where they then delivered, so do not perceive that they were given any assistance. One who indicated that nothing was done to help was L whose baby arrived in the hospital elevator while her husband stood by.

O's American sponsor held her hand and wiped sweat from her forehead. O was given what seems to have been spinal anesthesia and subsequently did not feel anything. Others were given I.V.'s, blood, and shots which they report as

ving been done to help, but were unable to report whether, not these did any good. P was very frightened by the blood transfusion given her. Both G and J were made to lie still which they found most distressing. J stated that lying still makes you feel like you are going to die. Also, a bag of waters was broken by someone who did not tell her that they were going to do.

The women were then asked the question: "What would you like those with you to do to help you during your labor and delivery?" N and O both volunteered that whatever they did at first time was all right and would be what they would want again. In fact, a majority of the women appeared relatively satisfied with the support that was given.

Three of the women, A, I, and J, were adamant in their request that the bag of waters not be broken. H stated that the bag of waters breaks three or four hours before delivery, a difficult labor will ensue. J remains very much afraid that her bag of waters will be broken by someone in a future delivery.

Ten of the 17 subjects mentioned the need for a high pillow or the wish not to lie down flat during labor and/or delivery. H explained that if the mother is lying down the baby can become stuck and not come out. Furthermore, I stated that lying down causes pain to be felt in the back.

While three requested that they not be bothered and one that she not be touched, three others asked that someone hold their hands and another that someone hold her when she had a hard pain. One requested that she not have to walk or walk in labor. Another asked for help to get up as necessary. Among those with minimal requests were two who wanted only that the doctor cut the cord, one who wanted water to drink and one who asked that her husband and the nurse remain with her.

Measures to Ease or Speed Labor

The question first asked was: "Was anything done to make labor shorter or the pain less during your labor and delivery in Laos?" The majority (14) of the women stated that nothing was done to speed or ease their labors but several were able to report things that were sometimes done when labor was difficult.

As a group G, H, I, and J explained that they worked hard so it was easy to have a baby. I stated that in Laos labor was usually only twenty or thirty minutes long. This belief was confirmed by the critical informants whose explanation of that was:

Hmong people work very hard and so have easier labors. Americans lie down too much. During labor pains but when the birth is not imminent, they stayed up working around the house. They still had to do their farming chores even in labor and would run home when they knew it was time. Young people were told that the harder they work and the more they carry, the easier the labor will be. Americans take it easy during pregnancy, the Hmong do not.

D and F described a massage and pressure technique that is used by older women to help bring the baby down in labor. E remarked that that was used on her to help with pre-labor (Braxton-Hicks?) contractions.

Q's mother-in-law was knowledgeable in Hmong medicine and had a very heavy stone that she boiled in water. The water was then drunk by the laboring women. Q still has the stone, but does not use it in this country because the baby could come too fast for the mother to get to the hospital. Q stated that she had helped others with an herbal remedy. E also said that ginger and egg can be given for prolonged labor without delivery. M's father-in-law could, by feeling contractions, predict the exact time of delivery and this is seen as helpful. He also turned the baby so that it came easily.

Most fascinating were the reports of the older women (critical informants) who were recalling both their own birth experiences and those of others they had witnessed. One confirmed the use of a special plant to help

or, while another related that soot from the ceiling would be rubbed on the stomach of the laboring women. When they were asked how malpresentations were handled, one woman recalled that there was a woman from the village who could hold a woman in her hands and deliver the baby, however, she charged a great deal. This was the only reference made to any sort of professional birth attendant or midwife. If a first baby comes easily, the cord is saved and dried. Then if another woman has a hard labor, the cord is put into a cup and an infusion is made and drunk by the distressed woman. Tribute is made to the spirits during pregnancy, however, is believed to prevent trouble.

One of these older women related that while nothing was ever done to help her, she had helped her rude daughter-in-law. Trouble with delivery of the placenta, she explained, can be due to having spoken rudely to one's mother-in-law, sister-in-law or grandmother. She was the recipient of this kind of behavior yet when her daughter-in-law experienced the resultant difficulty she was able to help her deliver the placenta by ritually washing her and putting her husband's shirt over her head.

The next question asked: "Was anything done during your labor and delivery in the United States to make labor shorter or the pain less?" Four of the women stated that they found their U.S. deliveries to be a better experience

in their previous deliveries, but were not specific about what it was that was better. D had less afterpains and thought that something may have been given that helped her. Six women said that nothing had been done and three did not know if anything had. Two had Cesarean births, while three were given shots and one a spinal for their vaginal births.

There were two women who said that things had been made worse. Subject I felt that her labor here was prolonged because she was held down; when she got up and squatted the baby came at once. J felt labor was prolonged by artificial rupture of her bag of waters.

The third question on this subject asked was: "What would you like to have done to make labor shorter or the pain less in future labors and deliveries?" The largest number (7) answered that they wanted nothing done. Two women would like to have a shot and one woman each asked for: massage pressure, help only if the baby is slow in coming, to be able to move about at will, an abdominal binder, a home delivery, a shot to make the baby come fast, I.V. and spinal anesthetic, and a spinal if the doctor wants to give it to her.

Position for Delivery

Answers to the question: "What position did you use for delivery in Laos?" were nearly unanimous. All but one woman

had squatted for all deliveries. The woman who had not squatted, knelt and another woman related that her sister-in-law had knelt. It was asked if they had had any support to maintain the delivery position. Six of the women had been held up by their husbands, three had held onto the bed, two said they had needed no support, and one demonstrated how she was supported from behind. The woman who had knelt had done so holding onto the bed.

There was also a consensus among the critical informants that only if labor was so long that one became exhausted, would one lie down.

The question was then asked "What position did you use for delivery in the United States?" Table 6 summarizes these answers.

Table 6
Position for Delivery
in the U.S.

Position	Number of Responses
Lying	9
Squatting	4
Lithotomy	2
Cesarean Delivery	2
Standing	1 ^a

^aPrecipitous delivery in elevator

Of the four women who delivered squatting, two of them out of hospital births. It is not clear whether any of nine who described their position as lying were in the standard hospital lithotomy position. The one standing delivery was that of L who delivered in the hospital elevator. Q, who delivered squatting said that the nurse got up on the bed with her.

J described being tied up in such a way that would not let her move and P who had 11 babies squatting in the old country was made to lie down here and ultimately had a cesarean delivery which she attributes to being made to lie down.

Then the question was asked: "What position would you like to deliver in in the future?" Responses to this question are summarized in Table 7. Two of the women were willing to assume whatever position the doctor wanted. Q, whose nurse had gotten onto the bed with her, wanted to hold onto the nurse, while M definitely wanted to hold onto her husband.

Table 7
Desired Position for Future Deliveries
in the U.S.

Position	Number of Responses
Squat	10
Lithotomy	2
At home	2
Lying	1
Lying with <u>high</u> pillows	2
Kneel	1
No Preference	2

H did not like having a mirror to see the baby coming t. She explained that "We are shy for ourselves." Likewise, one of the older women was shocked when the lithotomy position was described to her because of the posture involved.

Care of the Mother After Childbirth

The question was first asked: "Immediately after childbirth, what was done for you in Laos?" The majority of men reported changing clothes (13) and lying down by the fire (12), but three also mentioned a tradition of lying down on a bed of leaves. F added that the leaves are a special kind that are cut one month before the expected birth. Four women said that they lay down with a high pillow and one said that she had bathed in a few hours.

All of the critical informants agreed that the new mother would change her clothes and lie down by the fire.

Response concerning the amount of time that a new mother should rest varied among the subjects from 2 days to 30 days. A believed that the women should remain lying down for three days, while M, N, and O thought two days was sufficient. C recommended that no work be done for 30 days post partum, if possible, and at least 10 to 20 days if there was no help available. The amount of rest they actually had after delivery seemed to be dependent on how much help was available to take over their responsibilities. It does seem clear that rest post partum is considered more important than during the antepartum period.

This question elicited the first mention of ritual foods. Q said that the first food eaten was egg cooked in water and served with the cooking water. She explained that boiling egg and water with pepper causes blood to be pressed out. Three others mentioned the exclusive post partum diet of chicken, rice, warm water, and black pepper for 30 days after delivery. E said that if chicken and rice were not available then rice and rice water would be served.

The critical informants were in agreement that the first food should be egg, though three said that the egg should be cooked on the sooty side of the pan and one agreed with Q's addition of an egg cooked in water. Egg cooked with soot is to prevent afterpains and one informant said it could also bring on a delayed period. One of these women

lained that they planned for the thirty day chicken and rice diet by raising a lot of chickens during their pregnancy so they would have enough after the baby was born. She said that a special plant was also grown and cooked with the chicken.

The next question asked was: "Immediately after the birth in the U.S., what was done for you?" Three of the women spontaneously expressed the opinion that they were very well taken care of. D said that care of a woman who has just had a baby is better here. A majority (10) remembered being put to bed, four said they were helped to shower, four mentioned the sanitary pad being placed and/or changed and two that their clothes were changed.

The food that was served to them was mentioned by four women, one of whom said that the hospital saw the food that her husband was bringing in and prepared the same thing for her. B related with much amusement how a large piece of chicken and a small bowl of rice were served to her when it could be the other way around. F also mentioned how small the rice serving was explaining that "when you live on rice, you have to eat a lot of rice." O agreed to her sponsor's commendation that she add fruit to her chicken and rice diet. N was given rice and rice water to eat (probably a well-meaning attempt by the staff who were aware that other Chinese groups do prefer that), but she did not like

t. Q was given the chicken and rice meal but needed to eat egg and water first, so she waited until her husband could bring it in along with some chicken and rice.

Two women remarked that the baby was taken away and one could remember only the I.V.'s and transfusion. K remembered being left lying flat which she felt caused her stomach to become hot and the afterpains to be worse than before. Three women also mentioned that their husbands had been hospitalized at home.

The third question asked on this subject was: "What would you like to have done for you immediately after a birth?" The issue of having the appropriate foods to eat after a delivery came up both in response to this question (in responses) and as comments when other points were being discussed. Three women stated that the wrong foods eaten after birth can cause the mother trouble all her life. The desire for a first meal of egg and water was not expressed by the majority, but a virtual litany of requests came for an exclusive diet of rice, chicken, chicken cooking broth and black pepper. The critical informants stated that those are the only foods which should be eaten for one month following childbirth. The pepper used, they said, must be black and not like the fine ground pepper usually served in hospitals which has white specks throughout it. (One woman specifically requested that no fruit be served.)

Next to having the right foods to eat, the desire to stay warm brought the most responses (7). Five women said they would like to have a shower and one women volunteered that it is all right to bathe as long as it is in hot water. Five women additionally noted that no cold food should be served. The critical informants as a group agreed that socks and head covering should be worn always at this critical time, or else one would have headaches when one got older.

The amount of rest desirable following delivery varied considerably. M would like to go home from the hospital as soon as the paperwork was done, while O stated emphatically that if it were not for the cost, she would like to stay in the hospital for a full month post partum. No one, she said, would take care of her when she went home. Two women again noted the need for high pillows to rest against.

Three of the four critical informants agreed that if you have enough help you should rest one month at home or, lacking that, return to work as soon as you are strong enough. One of these women advised seven days of rest.

An abdominal binder described as four or five yards of fabric wound tightly around the abdomen was recommended by Q to increase strength post partum. In Laos, she said, wearing a fabric binder would enable one to get up and wash

thes or walk long distances three or four hours after
th.

L felt that her hospital care had been good and so was
ling to follow hospital routine stating "they know what I
d." In a similar vein, F volunteered that she certainly
not want the leaf bed they had used in Laos and that she
ds the idea funny in retrospect.

e of the Infant

The question first posed on this subject was: "What was
e with the baby immediately after birth in Laos?" Nearly
of the subjects responded that the baby was washed (15)
wrapped or clothed (17). Three, in contrast, said that
baby was not washed until later. Eight said the baby
then put down to sleep; six said it was nursed when it
ed; one said it was nursed after it was washed; and
other said it was only nursed after it had urinated. Two
en mentioned that it was nursed by someone else.

If the cord was wrapped around the baby's neck, then the
ditional necklace was put on immediately before the cord
; cut. Otherwise, this necklace was placed on at the
ditional birthday celebration. Two women described the
thday celebration which took place three days after
th. P remembered that three chickens were killed, the
oy was named, and the baby's head was shaved. Q differed
that she remembered that the boys' heads were shaved

pletely while girls had only a small amount shaved off, they also had their ears pierced. One woman said that pregnant women were allowed to visit the baby.

Two of the critical informants said that if a baby was born in the evening it was just wrapped and put down to sleep, waiting until morning to be washed because of a problem with the spirits; the other two did not recall this problem. They were evenly divided as to whether they nursed the baby initially themselves or had someone else do it. When asked specifically how the cord was cut, one explained that it was measured to the baby's knee and cut there. A string was used to tie off the cord. One 63 year old woman who had borne 11 babies said that she did not want to pick up the baby immediately because she had carried it for nine months and it was her husband's turn.

The question then asked was: "What was done with your baby immediately after birth in the United States?" The majority (10) responded that it was taken away and so they did not know what was done. While most mothers did not express having had great fears when the baby was taken to the nursery, A worried when she heard babies crying for fear it was hers. Babies she said were taken to their mothers in order regardless of whether they were crying or not. One woman said that she visited with it for awhile before it was taken away and another said that it was taken away and

ther said that it was first taken away and then brought
k to visit. Two said they saw it only twice a day while
women said that they had to wear masks when they saw
Two women recalled that an I.D. bracelet had been put
and one that it had been weighed and measured.

When they were asked the question: "How would you like
have your baby cared for immediately after birth?" the
ority (11) responded that nursery care was all right.
eral women expressed the opinion that they would be far
tired to take responsibility for caring for the baby
mselves. There were different opinions expressed on
oming-in with one women wanting the baby in the room all
time, one wanting the baby away all the time and another
ing it should be in the room all the time only if she was
astfeeding. Again, one women simply said she was
eeable to hospital routine. K and L said that people
y at how soon the milk comes in so a friend who is
sing may be asked to nurse initially.

K is very much afraid that a baby boy would be
cumcised which she does not want to have done.

Disposal of the Placenta

The answer to the question: "What was done with the
terbirth in Laos?" was nearly unanimous with the only
ception being one of the two women who identified
emselves as Blue Hmong. Sixteen of the respondents said

t the placenta of a girl was buried under the bed and the placenta of a boy under the center post of the house. The dissenter said that her family buried both boys' and girls' placentas under the bed. Three women mentioned that placentas were covered with cloth before burying.

Nearly all of the groups expressed curiosity about how Americans handle the placenta. The reason for this concern in part be due to the belief expressed by M that the placenta must be handled right or the baby will have trouble. L and Q explained the belief that if an ant or something similar gets into the placenta, the baby will get a rash and they felt that babies in the U.S. have had rashes that may have been due to how the placenta was handled. Q said that in Laos if a baby developed a rash then water was boiled and poured over the placenta burial site to kill whatever had gotten into it. P, on the other hand, believed that anything getting into the placenta would cause eye problems.

The critical informants explained why the boys' and girls' placentas were buried in different places. The boy's placenta was buried under the center post because, like his father, he will take care of the house. The girl's placenta was buried under the bed because when she marries she will go away.

The question then asked was: "What was done with the placenta after birth following your United States' delivery?" None of

subjects knew what had been done with the babies' placentas in the hospital, but most were curious. One woman observed that the doctor spent some time carefully examining and her group was quite interested in the investigator's explanation of why this was done. One family had been offered the placenta in a plastic bag to take home, but they declined to do so.

Thirdly, the question: "What would you like to have done with the afterbirth?" was asked. All of the subjects stated that they did not want to take the placenta home. Reasons given for this were that it just was not practical because there are no dirt floors here and it is not possible to bury anything in the concrete floors of American houses. Another problem expressed was that they did not own the house and so would not want to bury anything there.

The investigator, when asked what American hospitals did with placentas, answered that she believed most hospitals incinerated them. This seemed to be a satisfying solution, since it got rid of the placenta once and for all so there was no need to worry about anything improper getting into it.

Food and Drink During Labor

The question first asked was: "Did you eat or drink anything while you were in labor in Laos?" While most of the subjects (9) had had nothing at all to eat or drink during labor or nothing if the labor was short (3), they

acknowledged the need for water if labor went on for some time. Three mentioned having had water in prolonged labor; two apparently drank as they wished; and one woman ate some food. K, who had experienced a five or six day labor, said that she drank at will throughout it. E remembered that there was a special medicine boiled in water and eaten if there was a problem with the labor, but she did not describe it further.

The opinion of the critical informants was that Hmong women have babies so fast that there is no need for food or water during labor.

Secondly, the subjects were asked: "Did you eat or drink anything during your labor in the United States?" Thirteen of the women had had nothing to eat or drink. Two women who were given I.V.'s recognized that this was given as a substitute for drinking water. K stated that she was thirsty, but was not given any water to drink. One woman was given ice water and another water and 7 UP.

The third question asked was: "What would you like to eat or drink during labor?" Eleven women wanted water as necessary; three wanted nothing; two mentioned drinking warm liquids; and one would like to have tea. G, who said that she would ask for water if she was thirsty, added that there should be no ice.

ds, Medicines, and Herbs Eaten/Avoided During Pregnancy

The questions was asked: "Were there any foods, medicines or herbs which you ate or avoided eating during pregnancy in Laos?" Fourteen of the subject women said that there were no particular things which were eaten or avoided. Two women said that they stayed away from medicine when they were pregnant, while one woman said that medicine should be used only if there was a problem. A stated that if a baby did not move by five months gestation, there was a medicine that was taken. Q mentioned the use of water boiled with a special stone as has been described above. P said that a person would eat whatever she wanted.

One critical informant said that the foods sought in pregnancy depend on the individuals' tastes where some like a thing and others hate it. Another of these older women said that she always like sour things when pregnant and she seemed to enjoy hearing from the investigator about the American lore that considers a craving for sour things, especially pickles, a sign of pregnancy.

The question was then asked: "Were there any foods, medicines or herbs which you ate or avoided eating during your pregnancy in the United States?" Fifteen of the women answered that there was nothing special eaten or avoided. Only one of the subjects volunteered that she had taken vitamins and none of them mentioned iron supplements. This

surprising in light of the fact that probably all of the women had received pre-natal care. D volunteered that she had not understood the pre-natal instructions she had been given because there was no interpreter at the clinic. One woman said she had eaten foods from the WIC program.

Thirdly, the question was asked: "Are there any foods, medicines or herbs that you would like to eat or avoid during pregnancy?" Fourteen women said there was nothing they would particularly eat or avoid, while two said they would like something sour and one wanted something to make her stronger. This lack of desire for any special foods during pregnancy contrasts sharply with the exclusive diet desired in the post partum period.

Final Thoughts on the Subject of Childbirth

The last question that was asked was: "Is there anything else about childbirth that you think it would be good for me to know?" There were only a few responses to this question, which may in part be due to the fact that the women were tiring and anxious to leave.

D thought that having a home delivery would be less expensive, but she worried about obtaining a birth certificate in that case. She wondered about finding an attendant to help with a home birth.

J stated that in Laos the bag of waters remains intact until just before delivery when it breaks spontaneously. To

s H added that in the American hospital her bag of waters artificially broken at 5 p.m. and so the baby did not e until 11 p.m. Another issue that troubled both J and H their observation that in the American hospital there e too many people involved in the delivery. J remembered t there were seven or eight people with her in the ivery room.

L, who had in response to different earlier questions ut desired practices answered to the effect that the rican hospital routine was fine with her, stated that she too young when she had her babies in Laos to really know h about it.

Because so many women had described very short labors in s, the investigator further asked the group consisting of H, I and J when they considered labor to start. Their nsensus was that it began when the pains started or the g of waters broke.

Summary

From the ten questions that were asked, it was possible obtain a description of how things were generally done in e old country, how these women perceived certain aspects their American deliveries and, to a great extent, how ey would like to be treated in future deliveries. There ce clearly individual differences throughout (except on

one issue of disposal of the placenta), but there were
nds which can well be utilized in prescribing nursing
erventions.

CHAPTER IV

Discussion

In order to classify a culture's own caring constructs, Leininger (1979) has identified seventeen major segregates (see Appendix E). These segregates or specific ways of caring will be used to identify elements of traditional Hmong birthing practices. There were no studies found in the review of the literature which dealt specifically with the issues investigated in this study, hence there will not generally be comparisons made with the findings of other studies.

Comfort

Traditional Hmong life seems to have been a hard one wherein little attention was given to providing for the comfort of the childbearing women. Such comfort measures as have been mentioned by the subjects and informants of this study are essentially permissive. For example, the women was allowed to assume for herself a position of comfort for labor and delivery. She changed her clothes after delivery and reclined by the fireplace on a bed with high pillows that had been prepared for her. One exception was the occasional mention of a massage/pressure technique that was used in labor and to ease pre-labor contractions. The American practice which caused distress to many of these

women was that of restricting them to lying in a bed for labor and delivery. During labor and post partum they would have welcomed a high pillow to recline against.

Support

In all but two cases the Hmong women reported having had someone (usually the husband) with them during delivery if not always during the labor. The support rendered by this person was, however, minimal. Some mentioned that they were physically supported during hard pains or delivery while others mentioned that the umbilical cord was cut for them and the largest number said that the attendant did nothing. These women expected little in the way of labor support in the old country and continue to prefer to be largely left alone. Acceptable supportive nursing behaviors are simply being there and, for some, offering a hand to hold or water to drink. During delivery some women would welcome physical support in the squatting position by their husband or by the nurse while others would rather hold onto something like a siderail.

Helping Behaviors

Known helping behaviors were usually described as something that could be done when things were not going well such as the old woman's technique of ritual washing and covering the parturient's head with her husband's shirt to bring about the delivery of a retained placenta. A special stone boiled in the laborer's drinking water was thought by

women to shorten labor, but most women felt that there was nothing that could or should be done to speed or ease their labors. While most had experienced some sort of intervention in this country in the way of I.V.'s, analgesics, anesthesia or surgical intervention, they were generally skeptical that it had done any good. The common American practice of artificially rupturing the bag of waters was not interpreted as a helping behavior.

Specific Stress Alleviation

Being free to move about during the pains of labor was an expectation in the old country as was being able to satisfy one's thirst at will. There is real dissonance seen here between what was the former practice and the American situation where women are frequently tied to fetal monitors which restrict movement and allowed nothing by mouth throughout labor.

Touching

Several of the women stated emphatically that they did not want to be touched or bothered during labor. This may have been in part a reaction to the vaginal exams that were done during their American births and which were of course unknown in their homeland. There seemed to be a desire to concentrate or focus on the work to be done by contrast to the popular Western Lamaze technique which emphasizes distraction from the labor. Since some welcomed being held

having someone to hold onto during hard contractions
re may also be individual preferences shown here.

turance

The mother was not responsible for care of her newborn
mediately after delivery. This responsibility was most
en taken by the father, who washed and wrapped the baby.
sequently, nursery care for the baby was acceptable to
st of these women. In their homeland, if a mother's milk
s not in, a friend or relative might nurse for her. This
y in part account for why many of these women bottle feed
eir babies in the hospital here. Most of the women breast
d infants and toddlers during the course of the interviews
it is unclear if these women were continuing to
plement with bottle feedings. The desirability of a
plemental nutrition source for these women who had seen
many babies die during the war years is obvious.

ccorance

Traditionally, babies were nursed whenever they cried
d so one should not be surprised to hear that at least one
men was distressed by the American hospital practice of
inging the babies out at a specific time and in order
ardless of whether they were crying or not. Additionally
the extended family home babies were immediately
sponded to by someone and it may not have been clear that
e nursery could do the same thing.

ection

In this animistic society the protection and goodwill of spirits was sought in different ways. This was expressed, however, as an issue only infrequently in the course of the interviews. Two women recalled that a ceremony was performed over water calling on the spirits to begin their labors. Others recalled the traditional amulet which is placed on every child and which the literature states is a message to the spirits. Breast milk, women warned, should not be expressed or spilt for fear that it would attract spirits (a not unwise fear in a remote and situation where saved milk would rapidly become contaminated). Placentas were carefully buried to keep dirt from getting into them and causing rashes or other problems for the infant. Our practice of placenta disposal, unless it is explained to the family, is a potential source of distress. There was some fear of hospital procedures. Whether these women saw hospitalization as a protection against the perils of childbirth or not is hard to say; they expressed fear over certain procedures but not necessarily hospitalization per se that Todd (1982) reports.

toration

The restoration of strength after childbirth was one of the most important issues to come up in this study. If the proper things were not done, the women could expect to have

trouble later in life. While there were no injunctions for the pregnant women concerning the antenatal diet, the post delivery diet was strictly prescribed. The exclusive diet of chicken, chicken broth, black pepper and rice was for some women preceded by a first meal of egg cooked in water. These foods may have constituted an important source of protein, calcium, and iron for the nursing mother in a land where dairy products were not used and meat consumption was rare. The woman was expected to lie down by the fire immediately after childbirth and to keep warm. Rest after having had a baby was considered important for future health, but the time allotted for this varied with the woman's circumstances. Here there may not be much discordance with the desired practice since the recovery period in bed with a nurse watching over them was noted as an improvement. None of the women articulated the reason for keeping warm post partum, but authors describing other Southeast Asians state that this stems from a belief that heat is lost in the course of childbirth (Stringfellow, 1978). In sharp contrast with this are such American nursing measures as a cool cloth on the head, an ice bag on the perineum and cold or iced drinks.

Stimulation

In keeping with their general practice of leaving the parturient largely alone, little in the way of stimulation was done. One exception to this is the stone described by

ne women which could be used to speed labor to such an extent that while she still has it, she does not use it in this country because, if she did, the mother would not make it to the hospital in time. Attempts at stimulation of labor such as amniotomy, vaginal examination with stripping of membranes and operative deliveries that are widely made in this country would have been extremely dangerous had they been used in the unsanitary circumstances surrounding home births in Laos. Consequently, the common wisdom of keeping one's hands out of the birth canal continues to prevail among these people and violation of that causes great fear.

Health Maintenance

The post partum regimen seems most closely tied to health maintenance, in addition to its restorative function, since a violation of its principles was considered to have a long-term effect on the woman's health. Furthermore, while there were no foods especially eaten or avoided during pregnancy, some women reported that the pregnant woman was enjoined to stay away from all medicines. This essentially wise practice may present a point of conflict when a Hmong women in this country is prescribed pre-natal vitamins and iron, and it may in part account for why only one woman volunteered that she had taken vitamins during her American pregnancy.

Health Instruction

The lively group of older women who told why Hmong women have an easier time in childbearing described the instruction given young women thusly: if they worked hard in the fields and continued lifting and carrying things, they would experience a short and easy labor. Given this ready source of aerobic exercise, cardio pulmonary fitness and suppleness was probably well maintained. The restrictions of urban life these women now experience make it difficult to comply with that traditional instruction. The only form of health instruction that the Hmong women repeatedly asked of this investigator was how Americans handle disposal of the placenta.

Health Consultation

According to the literature (Barney, 1957; Bernatzik, 1947; Garrett, 1974) a shaman would be consulted should a health problem arise. The fact that none of the women mentioned this kind of consultation may indicate that childbirth was considered a natural function and not one connected with illness. There is disagreement in the literature about whether there was a midwife position or role in this culture and within the sample surveyed the only mention made was of the woman who could deliver a mal presentation and who charged highly for her services. The father-in-law of one young women was apparently experienced

both turned the baby and predicted the exact time of delivery. By contrast, the American system is one of regular health consultation during the pre-natal period and multiple invasive procedures by the consultant during labor delivery. That the Hmong women have largely acquiesced to this system may be due to several factors: the observations that maternal and infant mortality rates are lower here, a desire to adapt to American ways, and a desire to be law abiding in the face of a wide spread rumor within the community that it is illegal to have a home birth.

Other Ethnocare Constructs

The upright position for labor and delivery, which is an important issue for these people is difficult to categorize. There is clearly an element of comfort involved which may derive from the physiologic and mechanical appropriateness of this position and also from the fact that it is a customary resting posture. The mechanical efficiency of that position was probably observed over the years and so became relatively standard. The fact that exceptions (kneeling or lying if exhausted) to this were reported indicates that the woman was not forced to use the upright position.

Of the seventeen major segregates that Leininger suggests for classifying a culture's own caring constructs, fourteen can be demonstrated in the caring behaviors

ported as valued by the subject women. There are surely
nts which overlap and so the designation into one or
ther segregate was arbitrarily made. The important issue
position did not clearly fit into any named segregate and
was added as an "Other Care Construct."

CHAPTER V

This chapter includes a summary of the study and the implications for nursing practice. Implications for future nursing research conclude the chapter.

Summary

Professional nurses working in cultures with values different from their own can create conflicts and stress. However, they are willing to identify and adapt to the differing cultures' values and expectations. Yet the American nurse working with childbearing Hmong families has an information gap about that culture's preferences, values, and caring beliefs during and immediately after childbirth.

This study was designed to address that informational gap. It surveyed a sample group of recently immigrated Hmong women regarding their birthing practices in their Laotian homeland and their birth experiences in an American hospital to determine which practices were preferred. A convenience sample of 17 women who had had at least two births in Laos and one birth in the United States was recruited from the Indochinese Cultural and Service Center's Women's Program. An additional group of four elderly

tigravidas was recruited from the same program as tical informants. A structured interview consisting of biographic questions, nine research questions and one n-ended question was used to identify the traditional thing practices which these women continued to value.

The answers to these questions indicate that the Hmong en were surprisingly accepting of most American hospital ctices and pointed out those several areas where nursing e can be adapted to provide a more culturally sensitive thing situation.

Conclusions and Recommendations

for Nursing Practice

Although ten different questions were asked of these en, the answers tended to overlap and the results seem to ter around six major issues: support persons, care ing labor and delivery, position for labor and delivery, sposition of the placenta, post partum care of the mother d care of the newborn infant. These issues will be mmarized here and implications drawn for nursing practice.

Support Persons

The most frequently referenced support person for labor d delivery in the old country was the woman's husband, who ntinues to be the major preference here also. There are able exceptions to this, however, and some Hmong women y be satisfied with hospital personnel only. The role of

support person was largely simply to be present; thus limited interaction between the parturient and support person should be accepted as normal. The husband might be offered the opportunity to cut the cord as is sometimes done in other family-centered deliveries and should probably be allowed to hold the infant after delivery. To meet the complaint of women that there were too many people in the delivery room, the number of personnel in attendance might well be reduced to a minimum.

Care During Labor and Delivery

Care given during labor and delivery in Laos was minimal and these women continue to believe that little needs to be provided here. Little in the way of analgesics or anesthesia should be needed, since even the women who did receive them during their U.S. births were not convinced that it did any good. Some women appreciate having a hand to hold during labor though generally they would prefer to be touched as little as possible. They should be allowed to move about freely during labor and never made to lie down flat. Most would like warm water offered to drink as necessary. Artificial rupture of the bag of waters may be perceived as something approaching assault and this invasive procedure should not be undertaken without obtaining informed consent.

Position for Labor and Delivery

During labor in their homeland the women were at liberty to move about, usually remaining upright and occasionally reclining with high pillow support. The traditional position for delivery was squatting and either holding onto something or someone or being supported in that position by another. The majority of women continue to prefer that method of delivery and so, unless there are strong contraindications, delivery should be allowed in that position.

Position of the Placenta

Proper burial of the placenta was important in the Hmong homeland. The women in the study continue to be concerned that it be handled so that nothing improper gets into it. While it is unlikely that any of the families will want to take the placenta home, they should be informed as to how it should be disposed of. Incinerating the placenta seems to be an acceptable way of disposing of it.

Post-partum Care of the Mother

Immediate post-partum care for the mother traditionally included a change of clothes and rest in a warm place. In addition, too, they preferred to have support with high pillows and so initial care of the Hmong woman should include propping the head of the bed up and teaching her how to use the bed's controls. She should be kept warm and offered plenty of warm liquids to drink. A warm shower would be

acceptable to most. Rest following delivery continues to be needed. It should be remembered that many of these women will return home to heavy responsibilities with little help.

The hospital care in this country would have pleased the majority of the women had it not been for the difficulty of getting acceptable foods to eat. The proper diet after childbirth continues to be a significant value. There is no point at all in offering the usual varied house diet since it causes distress and will only be refused. Because all Hmong women want the egg and water first meal before beginning the exclusive chicken and rice diet, it might be practical to have pictures of each so that a choice can be offered. The chicken and rice diet should have proportionately more rice than chicken, the chicken should be served with the cooking broth, and the pepper should be crushed or in a grinder since the fine ground type usually served is filled with white specks.

Care of the Newborn

After birth in Laos the infant was taken care of by someone else. Several women expressed the idea that they were far too tired to care for the baby themselves. Thus, rooming-in in the newborn nursery is acceptable to most Hmong mothers. If rooming-in is available, it should be offered to those who want it. Traditionally, babies were nursed whenever they cried; thus sticking to an established feeding

chedule may be cause of distress to the mothers. Pumping expressing breast milk is totally unacceptable to most of these people. Consequently, other remedies for engorged breasts should be used. Often the mother will combine breast and bottle feeding, and an occasional mother would like to have a friend help with the initial nursing. The umbilical necklace may be placed on the child at any time, but in the case of a baby with a nuchal cord, or who is otherwise compromised, the mother may want to have it placed immediately.

Looking at the conclusions drawn in these six areas, one sees that those caring behaviors which the Hmong continue to use are all ones which can safely and easily be incorporated into standard hospital practice for those who hire them. To make the Hmong families' American childbearing experiences ones which are satisfying rather than fear-filled, and ones which increase their faith in modern Western health care require only cultural sensitivity on the part of the nurse who is willing to learn their ways and incorporate them into her care.

Implications for Nursing Research

The following implications for future nursing research have been identified.

1. This study could be replicated using recently immigrated Hmong women in different parts of the U.S. to determine whether there are differences which might be due to homogeneity within the population in Portland, Oregon.
2. Childbirth practices might be studied using other Hmong groups such as Black Hmong as subjects.
3. Childbirth practices might be studied in five or ten years to see whether a number of years spent in this country has a significant effect on desired birthing practices.
4. A study could be done comparing birthing practices of other Southeast Asian cultures with an attempt to draw general conclusions and to point out specific differences. Reasons for specific differences should be analyzed in light of that culture so that generalizations could be made on the basis of cultural characteristics.
5. Other aspects of childbearing within this culture should be investigated such as pregnancy, maternal-infant bonding patterns, infant care, child spacing, etc.

6. Childbirth practices of other cultures could be analyzed using the caring constructs used in this study to determine:
 - a) which constructs are valued and applicable cross culturally
 - b) which constructs are most highly valued by most cultures
 - c) which constructs are more likely to be acculturated
7. The effectiveness of the suggested nursing interventions could be tested and evaluated.

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Appendix A

The following questions were asked of each participant.

Demographic:

1. Hmong Group
2. Name of village/town in Laos
3. Age
4. Age at first birth
5. Number of births
6. Number of months in the U.S.

Research:

1. Who was with you during your labor and delivery?
Which part?
2. What did that person do to help during labor?
during delivery?
3. Was anything done to make labor shorter or the pain
less?
4. What position did you use for delivery -- stand?
squat? lie? other?
5. What was done for you immediately after birth?
6. What was done with the baby immediately after birth?
7. What was done with the afterbirth?
8. Did you take anything to eat or drink during labor?
9. Were there any foods, herbs or medicines that you
tried to eat during pregnancy? -- any that you
tried to avoid?

10. Is there anything else you can tell me about childbirth that you think would be good for me to know?

The research questions were asked three times; first referring to births experienced in Laos, second referring to births in the U.S., and third referring to what would be preferred.

Appendix B

YOU ARE INVITED TO JOIN IN A STUDY ABOUT HMONG WOMEN WHO
HAD BABIES BOTH IN LAOS AND IN THE UNITED STATES. THIS
STUDY WILL HELP AMERICAN NURSES TO TAKE CARE OF HMONG WOMEN
LABOR IN THE WAY THEY WOULD LIKE. LIZ LA DU, WHO IS A
NURSE AT OHSU, WILL BE ASKING YOU QUESTIONS THROUGH YOUR
INTERPRETER ABOUT HOW YOU WERE TAKEN CARE OF IN LAOS, AND
HOW YOU WERE TAKEN CARE OF IN THE UNITED STATES, AND HOW YOU
WOULD LIKE TO BE TAKEN CARE OF HERE. YOU WILL BE
INTERVIEWED IN A SMALL GROUP.

THE QUESTIONS WILL TAKE ABOUT ONE HOUR TO ANSWER. THERE
WILL NOT BE ANYTHING ASKED THAT IS LIKELY TO CAUSE YOU
EMBARRASSMENT OR DISCOMFORT. THERE ARE NO OTHER RISKS. LIZ
WILL USE A TAPE RECORDER AND ALSO WRITE DOWN YOUR ANSWERS.
WE WILL NOT USE YOUR NAME ON ANYTHING THAT ANOTHER PERSON
MIGHT SEE. YOUR NAME WILL NOT BE ON THE TAPE.

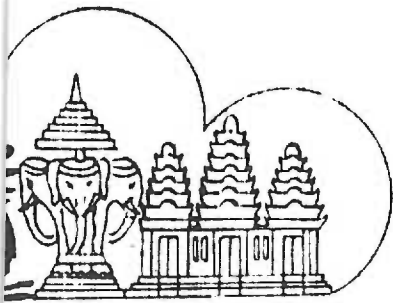
LIZ WILL PROVIDE YOU WITH BUS TICKETS TO COVER YOUR
EXPENSES FOR TRANSPORTATION TO AND FROM THE INDO CHINESE
CENTER.

YOU DO NOT HAVE TO JOIN THIS STUDY AND MAY SAY "NO" AT
ANY TIME WITHOUT HURTING YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH THE INDO
CHINESE CENTER OR THE OREGON HEALTH SCIENCES UNIVERSITY.
LIZ WILL ANSWER ANY QUESTIONS YOU MAY HAVE ABOUT THE STUDY.

Appendix C

QUESTION: (Example) Who was with you during your labor and delivery? Which part?

Participant	A	B	C	D	E
Laos					
U.S.					
Desired					



INDOCHINESE CULTURAL AND SERVICE CENTER

at

*The Neighborhood House
3030 S.W. Second Avenue
Portland, Oregon 97201
Phone (503) 241-9393*

September 23, 1981

Elizabeth LaDu
4049 N. Overlook Terrace
Portland, OR 97227

Dear Liz:

The Indochinese Cultural and Service Center is pleased to assist you in a study of the Birthing Practices of the Hmong. It is our understanding that you are pursuing this as part of your work toward a Master's Degree, but that you also hope that it can help to make the medical service delivery system more sensitive to the needs of this group and open to adjusting services to accommodate their practices.

We have agreed to let you contact a group of approximately 20 refugee women who meet the specifications of your project design and to provide interpreter service for interviews of these women, with their consent and understanding of your purpose. We will assist you in the contact and in the group discussions with them. For this consultation, you can provide us \$150; you will also provide us with a bound copy of your finished work for our library and we understand that if articles are presented to professional journals about this work, the Center may share in authorship of these articles. We would also be interested in pursuing possible publication rights with you in the future if the study proves as valuable as it appears now.

Tentative interview dates will be Wednesday, Oct. 14; Friday, Oct. 23; Wednesday, Oct. 28; Friday, Nov. 6, and Wednesday Nov. 11. You should make contact with Carrie Wilson to firm this for times, etc.

We look forward to the project and any good impact it may have for refugee women.

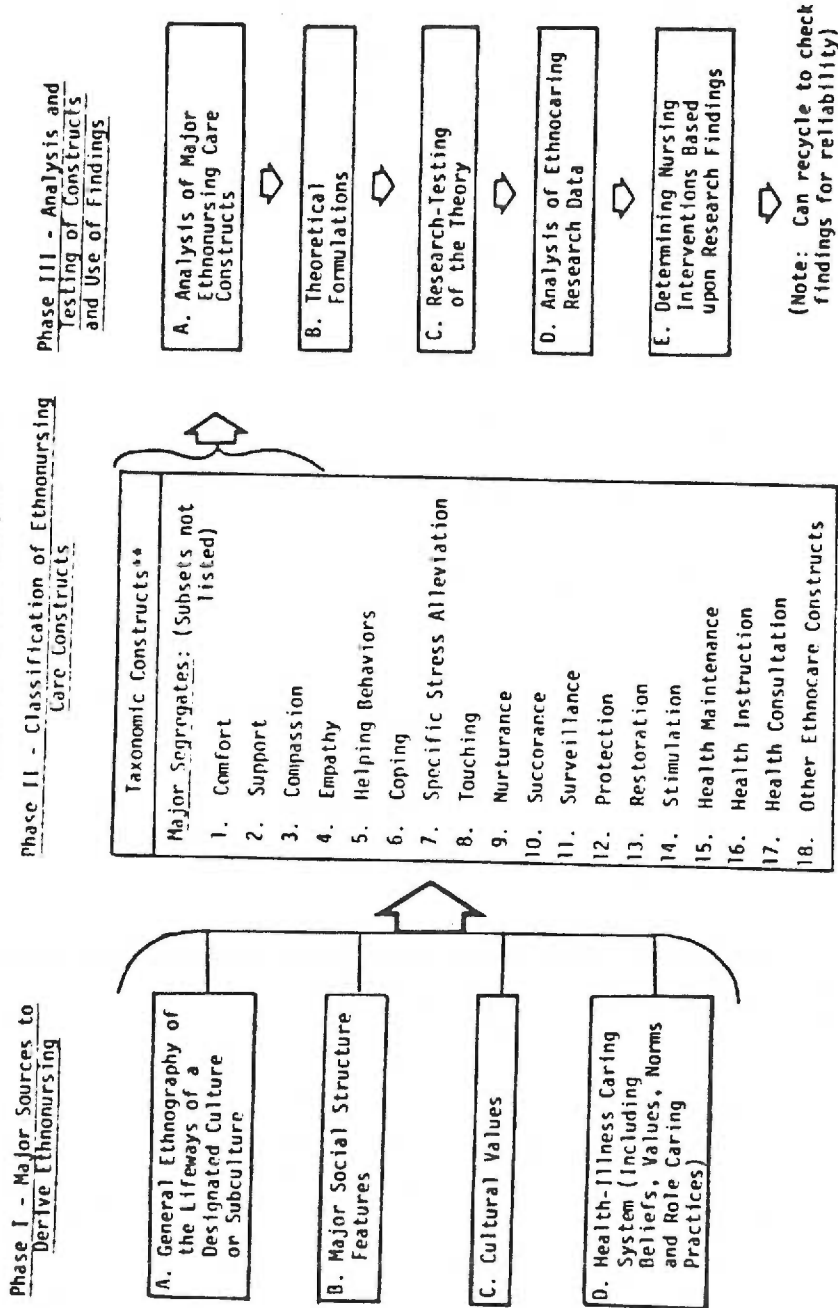
Sincerely,

I am in agreement


Carol Law
Associate Director

cc: Carrie Wilson

FIGURE 1
A Conceptual and Theory-Generating Model to Study Transcultural (or Ethnonursing) Constructs*
 (Developed by M. Leininger)



*Developed in 1968 with revision and additions in 1972, 1975, and 1976.
 **Constructs derived from 30 cultures using ethnoscience and literature studies.

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF
Elizabeth Bjorkman La Du

for the MASTER OF NURSING

Date of Receiving this Degree: June 11, 1982

Title: A STUDY OF THE BIRTHING PRACTICES OF A GROUP OF
RECENTLY

Approved:

Mary Ann Curry, D.N.S., Thesis Advisor

A Study of the Birthing Practices of a Group of Recently Immigrated Hmong Women is designed to provide information needed by nurses working in ante partal, intra partal and post partal settings where Hmong clients are served. Seventeen subjects were surveyed regarding their birthing practices in their Laotian homeland and their birth experience in an American hospital to determine which practices are preferred. In addition four elderly multiparous women were recruited as critical informants to provide background information on "old country" practices.

Subjects were recruited from the Indo Chinese cultural and Service Center's Women's Program. They were women who had had at least two births in Laos and one birth in an U.S. hospital. A structured interview consisting of six biographic questions, nine research questions and one open-ended question were used to identify the traditional

birthing practices valued by these women. The results should provide American nurses with information that will help them provide more culturally sensitive care to childbearing Hmong women.

The results of the interviews revealed that these women were in large part agreeable to American hospital deliveries with a few notable exceptions.

They prefer to be left largely alone during labor, being allowed to move about at will and resting with high supporting pillows. The bag of waters was traditionally left intact until delivery and many are very fearful of an artificial rupture of membranes. A squatting position is desired for delivery. After delivery they want to be kept warm, allowed to rest, supported by pillows, and provided with an exclusive diet including only: eggs, chicken, chicken broth, rice and black pepper. Nursery care of the baby is acceptable.

All of the changes desired by these women are ones which can be easily and safely made in any American hospital desiring to do so.