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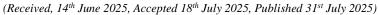


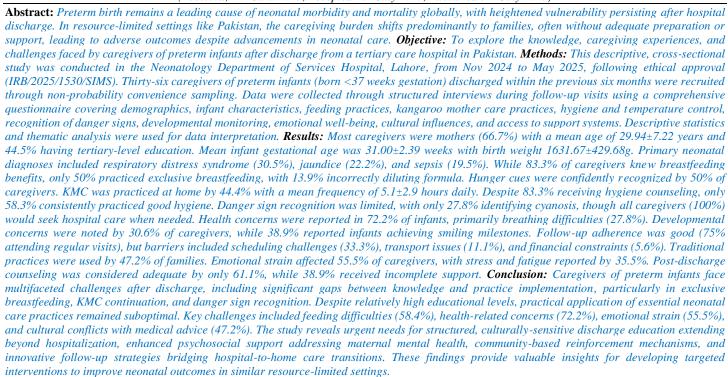
# Navigating Parental Knowledge, Experiences, and Challenges Regarding Post-Discharge Care of Preterm **Infants**

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## Introduction

Premature infants represent a significant proportion of hospital admissions and face elevated risks of both immediate and long-term health complications. Although advances in neonatal intensive care have dramatically improved survival rates, the transition from hospital to home remains a critical and challenging period for families. During this vulnerable phase, parents must independently manage complex care requirements, including specialized feeding protocols, growth monitoring, thermoregulation, respiratory support, and developmental interventions, often without the continuous guidance of experienced hospital staff (1).

The post-discharge period presents multifaceted challenges for caregivers of preterm infants. Common difficulties include feeding complications such as latching problems and inadequate milk supply, along with the management of respiratory issues, recognition of clinical warning signs, and maintenance of appropriate thermal regulation (2). Beyond these technical care aspects, parents frequently experience significant emotional distress, anxiety, chronic fatigue, and feelings of inadequate preparation for their caregiving role (3). These challenges are particularly pronounced in low- and middle-income countries, where cultural beliefs, misconceptions, and limited healthcare infrastructure compound the difficulties faced by families (4). Research from Indonesia, Uganda, and similar contexts demonstrates that while parents may possess basic knowledge of preterm care principles, they encounter substantial barriers, including financial constraints, social isolation, and inadequate follow-up services, resulting in feelings of helplessness and compromised care quality (5). The combination of insufficient discharge education, limited support systems, and these practical barriers can lead to inconsistent caregiving practices and increased risk of hospital readmission (6).

Furthermore, the psychological burden of caring for a preterm infant extends beyond the primary caregiver, affecting family dynamics, disrupting established roles, and creating substantial financial strain (7). Despite decades of research in neonatal care, significant knowledge gaps remain regarding the comprehensive experiences of families caring for preterm infants in the home environment. Addressing these gaps is crucial for developing evidence-based interventions that enhance parental preparedness, build caregiving confidence, and ultimately improve outcomes for both infants and their families. This study aimed to explore parental knowledge and caregiving experiences for preterm infants following hospital discharge, and to identify specific challenges that impact the quality and continuity of post-discharge care.

### Methodology

This cross-sectional descriptive study took place in the Department of Pediatrics and Neonatology at Services Hospital, Lahore, from November 2024 to May 2025, after receiving ethical approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB/2025/1530/SIMS). The research was carried out over six months following the IRB's approval. A non-probability convenience sampling method was used, and 36 caregivers were enrolled. The sample size was calculated based on a 95% confidence level, 10% margin of error, and an assumed 20% prevalence of parental health concerns after discharge, as noted in prior research (8). Eligible participants were parents or caregivers of preterm infants (born before 37 weeks of gestation) who had been discharged from the neonatology unit in the past six months. Caregivers of babies with major genetic or congenital disorders, or those who declined or withdrew consent, were excluded from the study. Data collection followed ethical protocols, ensuring confidentiality and informed consent. Caregivers attending routine follow-up appointments were interviewed privately in a supportive setting. A trained team, including neonatologists and residents, used a structured questionnaire to gather data. Topics included demographic and economic information, infant clinical details, caregiver knowledge and feeding practices,

Kangaroo Mother Care (KMC) practices, hygiene and temperature control, recognizing signs of illness, daily routines and difficulties, emotional well-being, community and healthcare support, cultural influences, and barriers to follow-up care. All 36 participants provided complete responses covering feeding, KMC, hygiene, illness recognition, emotional states, developmental concerns, follow-up habits, decision-making, cultural beliefs, prior experience, and suggestions for improvement. Data were entered into SPSS version 21.0 for analysis. Descriptive statistics (frequencies, percentages, averages, and standard deviations) summarized quantitative findings. Thematic analysis was used for open-ended answers to identify common themes related to knowledge, caregiving, emotional strain, and systemic barriers. Given the small sample and exploratory nature of the study, no inferential statistical tests (such as Chi-square, t-tests, or logistic regression) were conducted.

#### Results

The study included 36 female caregivers, with a mean age of 29.94 years (SD = 7.22), ranging from 20 to 45 years. Most of them were the infants' mothers (n = 24; 66.7%), while others included grandmothers (n = 7; 19.4%) and aunts (n = 5; 13.9%). A total of 23 caregivers (63.9%) identified themselves as the primary caregiver. Educational backgrounds varied: 16 participants (44.5%) had tertiary-level education, 9 (25%) had completed secondary schooling, and 11 (33.2%) had only basic or no formal education. In terms of occupation, more than half were homemakers (n = 22; 61.11%), followed by teachers (n = 7; 22.2%), and skilled or semi-skilled workers such as seamstresses or nurses (n = 6; 17.0%). One caregiver (2.8%) was a doctor. Family size ranged from 3 to 12 members, with a mean of 7.03 (SD = 2.14), and the number of children per household ranged from 0 to 6, with a mean of 3.08 (SD = 1.58). Monthly household income showed high variability, ranging from PKR 30,000 to PKR 400,000, with a mean of PKR 68,056 (SD = 62,379.98) (Table 1).

**Table 1: Caregiver demographics** 

Parameter	Value
Age (years)	Mean 29.94, SD ± 7.22
	Range 20–45
Relationship to infant	
Mother:	24 (66.7%)
Grandmother:	7 (19.4%)
Aunt:	5 (13.9%)
Primary caregiver	23 (63.9%)
Education level	
Tertiary:	16 (44.5%)
Secondary:	9 (25.0%)
Basic/None:	11 (33.2%)
Occupation	
Homemaker	22 (61.11%)
Teacher	7 (22.2%)
Skilled/Semi-skilled	6 (17.0%)
Doctor	1 (2.8%)
Family size	Mean 7.03, SD $\pm$ 2.14
	Range 3–12
Children per household	Mean 3.08, SD $\pm$ 1.58
	Range 0–6
Monthly income (PKR)	Mean 68,056, SD ± 62,379.98
	Range: 30,000 - 400,000

Among the 36 infants, 23 (63.9%) were female and 13 (36.1%) were male. Gestational age at birth ranged from 27 to 36 weeks, with a mean of 31.00 weeks (SD = 2.39). Birth weight varied between 1000g and 2500g (mean = 1631.67g, SD = 429.68), and current weight at discharge ranged from 1160g to 2750g (mean = 1796.11g, SD = 425.94). Postmenstrual age at discharge was 32.56 weeks on average

(SD = 2.05), while postnatal age ranged from 3 to 21 days, averaging 10.19 days (SD = 4.89). During hospital stay, the most common medical diagnoses were respiratory distress syndrome (n = 11; 30.5%), jaundice (n = 8; 22.2%), and sepsis (n = 7; 19.5%) (Table 2). Caregivers reported returning for follow-ups primarily to check weight (n = 6; 16.7%) or reassess jaundice (n = 6; 16.7%), followed

by sepsis monitoring (n = 4; 11.1%) and concerns about growth or infection (n = 3; 8.3% each).

**Table 2: Infant characteristics** 

Parameter	Value	
Gender		
Female	23 (63.9%)	
Male	13 (36.1%)	
Gestational age (weeks)	Mean 31.00, SD ± 2.39	
	Range 27–36	
Birth weight (g)	Mean 1631.67, SD ± 429.68	
	Range 1000 - 2500	
Discharge weight (g)	Mean 1796.11, SD ± 425.94	
	Range: 1160 - 2750	
Postmenstrual age at discharge (weeks)	Mean 32.56, SD $\pm$ 2.05	
Postnatal age at discharge (days)	Mean 10.19, SD ± 4.89	
	Range: 3–21	
Top diagnoses while admitted		
Respiratory distress syndrome	11 (30.5%)	
Jaundice	8 (22.2%)	
Sepsis	7 (19.5%)	
Reasons for follow-up		
Weight check	6 (16.7%)	
Jaundice review	6 (16.7%)	
Sepsis follow-up	4 (11.1%)	
Growth-related concerns	3 (8.3%)	
Infection-related concerns	3 (8.3%)	

In terms of feeding, 18 infants (50.0%) were exclusively breastfed, 8 (22.2%) were formula-fed, and 10 (27.8%) received mixed feeds. Among those using formula or mixed feeding, proper dilution was reported in 13 cases (36.1%), while 5 (13.9%) diluted the formula incorrectly. Feeding frequency ranged from every 30 minutes to 3 hours, with a mean interval of 2.15 hours (SD = 0.82). Hunger cues, such as crying or rooting, were confidently recognized by 18 caregivers (50.0%), sometimes identified by 9 (25.0%), and not recognized at all by another 9 (25.0%). Knowledge of the benefits of exclusive breastfeeding was high, with 30 caregivers (83.3%) reporting awareness. The most commonly identified benefits were improved immunity (n = 10; 27.8%), better nutrition (n = 8; 22.2%), and bonding (n = 6; 16.7%). Other less frequently mentioned advantages included growth, weight gain, emotional comfort, maternal recovery, and cost savings. Most infants (n = 25; 69.4%) were fed without any assistive device, while 6 (16.7%) used a breast

pump, 4 (11.2%) used a spoon or cup, and 1 (2.8%) used a nasogastric tube. When asked about challenges related to nursing, 15 caregivers (41.7%) reported no issues, but 11 (30.6%) experienced low milk supply. Other reported challenges included oral thrush (n = 4; 11.1%), sore nipples (n = 3; 8.3%), difficulty with latching (n = 2; 5.6%), and tube feeding issues (n = 1; 2.8%). Kangaroo Mother Care (KMC) was practiced at home by 16 caregivers (44.4%), with reported frequency ranging from every 2 to 12 hours (mean = 5.1 hours, SD = 2.9) and session durations between 30 minutes and 8 hours (mean = 2.1 hours, SD = 1.9). Most (n = 13; 36.1%) reported no problems with KMC; only a few noted issues such as infant restlessness, skin irritation, or excessive sweating (each n = 1; 2.8%). Regarding hygiene, 30 caregivers (83.3%) stated they had received comprehensive guidance on handwashing and feeding hygiene. However, only 21 (58.3%) consistently practiced good hygiene, while 9 (25.0%) did so inconsistently, and 6 (16.7%) did not adhere regularly (Table 3).

Table 3. Infant feeding practices, KMC, and hygiene

Parameter Parameter	Value
Feeding type	
Breastfeeding	18 (50.0%)
Formula	8 (22.2%)
Mixed	10 (27.8%)
Proper formula dilution	
Yes	13 (36.1%)
No	5 (13.9%)
Feeding frequency (hours)	Mean 2.15, SD $\pm$ 0.82
	Range: 0.5–3
Recognition of hunger cues	
Confidently/always	18 (50.0%)
Sometimes	9 (25.0%)
Poorly/never	9 (25.0%)
Knowledge of exclusive breastfeeding benefits	30 (83.3%)
Immunity	10 (27.8%)

Nutrition	8 (22.2%)
Bonding	6 (16.7%)
č	
Feeding aids	11 (30.6%)
Breast pump	6 (16.7%)
Spoon/cup	4 (11.2%)
Nasogastric tube	1 (2.8%)
Feeding challenges	21 (58.4%)
Low milk supply	11 (30.6%)
Oral thrush	4 (11.1%)
Sore nipples	3 (8.3%)
Difficulty latching	2 (5.6%)
Tube feeding issues	1 (2.8%)
KMC at home	16 (44.4%)
Frequency (hrs/day)	Mean 5.1, SD $\pm$ 2.9
	Range: 2–12
Duration per session (hours)	Mean 2.1, SD $\pm$ 1.9
	Range: 0.5–8
Reported KMC issues	3 (18.7%)
Infant restlessness	1 (2.8%)
Skin irritation	1 (2.8%)
Excessive sweating	1 (2.8%)
Counselled about feeding hygiene + handwashing	30 (83.3%)
Practicing at home	
Always	21 (58.3%)
Sometimes	9 (25%)
Rarely	6 (16.7%)

Understanding of normal breathing and sleep patterns was pretty good, with 24 caregivers (66.7%) being fully aware, 6 (16.7%) somewhat aware, and 6 (16.7%) unaware. Regarding developmental milestones, 14 infants (38.9%) had begun smiling, 6 (16.7%) had head control, and 4 (11.1%) could recognize faces or respond to voices.

However, 12 (33.3%) had not yet shown developmental signs. Thirteen caregivers (36.1%) felt their child's development was normal, 7 (19.4%) were satisfied, 11 (30.6%) were concerned, and 5 (13.9%) thought it was too early to assess (Table 4).

Table 4. Sleep & breathing awareness, milestones, and development perception

Parameter	n (%)
Awareness of regular sleep & breathing patterns	
Aware	24 (66.7%)
Somewhat aware	6 (16.7%)
Unaware	6 (16.7%)
Developmental milestones attained	
Smiling	14 (38.9%)
Head control	6 (16.7%)
Face/voice recognition	4 (11.1%)
Caregiver perceptions of infant development	
Normal	13 (36.1%)
Satisfactory	7 (19.4%)
Concerned	11 (30.6%)
Too early to assess	5 (13.9%)

Health concerns were reported in 26 infants (72.2%), with the most common being breathing difficulties (n = 10; 27.8%), fever (n = 5; 13.9%), and sleep-related concerns (n = 5; 13.9%). In response to breathing cessation, 18 caregivers (50.0%) said they would use tactile stimulation, 12 (33.3%) would try mouth-to-mouth breathing, and 6 (16.7%) offered mixed responses. Isolated cases of apneic episodes, loose stools, or failure to gain weight were reported by one caregiver each (2.8%). The remaining 10 caregivers (27.8%) noted no health issues. Temperature control strategies included the use of heaters and

warm clothing (n = 14; 38.9%), a heater with KMC (n = 8; 22.2%), a heater alone (n = 4; 11.1%), and blankets or sunlight (n = 4; 11.2%). Notably, six caregivers (16.7%) used no specific method to regulate temperature. Awareness of neonatal danger signs varied. The most commonly cited signs were cyanosis or bluish lips (n = 10; 27.8%), irritability (n = 6; 16.7%), and cold extremities (n = 4; 11.1%). Despite variations in awareness, all 36 caregivers (100%) stated they would seek hospital care if danger signs appeared (Table 5)

Table 5: Infant health concerns and caregiver response

Parameter	n (%)
Reported infant health issues	26 (72.2%)

	, ( ,
Breathing difficulty	10 (27.8%)
Fever	5 (13.9%)
Sleep-related concerns	5 (13.9%)
Apneic episodes	1 (2.8%)
Loose stools	1 (2.8%)
Failure to gain weight	1 (2.8%)
Response to breathing cessation	
Tactile stimulation	18 (50.0%)
Mouth-to-mouth breathing	12 (33.3%)
Mixed/other responses	6 (16.7%)
Temperature regulation methods	
Heater + warm clothing	14 (38.9%)
Heater + KMC	8 (22.2%)
Heater alone	4 (11.1%)
Blankets or sunlight	4 (11.2%)
No specific method	6 (16.7%)
Awareness of danger signs	20 (55.6%)
Cyanosis (bluish lips, hands, and feet)	10 (27.8%)
Irritability	6 (16.7%)
Cold extremities	4 (11.1%)
Would seek hospital care if danger signs	36 (100%)

Follow-up attendance was generally consistent, with 27 caregivers (75.0%) attending weekly or biweekly regular visits. Others had monthly (n = 5; 13.9%) or irregular (n = 4; 11.1%) follow-up patterns. Barriers to consistent follow-up included scheduling challenges (n = 12; 33.3%), transport issues (n = 4; 11.1%), financial constraints (n = 2; 5.6%), and lack of family support (n = 2; 5.6%). Support systems usually included aunts (n = 10; 27.8%) and grandmothers (n = 8; 22.2%), and half the caregivers (n = 18; 50.0%) felt that their support systems were sufficient. The infant's mother was involved in decision-making in 50.0% of cases (n = 18), followed by a family elder in 30.6% (n = 11) and the father in 19.4% (n = 7). Moreover, 69.4% of caregivers (n = 25) reported that their opinions were taken into account during the decision-making process. Traditional practices such as delayed initiation of breastfeeding, application of substances

to the umbilical stump, herbal remedies, gripe water, and mustard oil massage were used by 17 caregivers (47.2%), while 19 (52.8%) used none. Sources of health information varied: most relied on clinics, family, or community health workers, while only 8 (22.2%) accessed the internet. Experience caring for infants was reported by 22 caregivers (61.1%) and was found helpful by 29 (80.6%). Emotionally, 16 caregivers (44.4%) felt confident while caring for their infant, while 8 (22.2%) reported fatigue, 5 (13.9%) experienced stress, and 7 (19.4%) reported both stress and fatigue. Twenty-two caregivers (61.1%) received satisfactory post-discharge counselling, most often from doctors (n = 27; 75.0%) and nurses (n = 9; 25.0%). At the same time, 14 caregivers (38.9%) reported receiving incomplete or partial counseling (Table 6).

Table 6: Follow-up, support, and counseling

Variable	n (%)
Follow-up attendance	
Weekly/biweekly	27 (75.0%)
Monthly	5 (13.9%)
Irregular	4 (11.1%)
Barriers to follow-up	20 (55.6%)
Scheduling challenges	12 (33.3%)
Transport issues	4 (11.1%)
Financial constraints	2 (5.6%)
Lack of family support	2 (5.6%)
Support systems	
Aunt	10 (27.8%)
Grandmother	8 (22.2%)
Support system considered sufficient	18 (50.0%)
Primary decision maker	
Mother	18 (50.0%)
Family elder	11 (30.6%)
Father	7 (19.4%)
Caregiver's opinion considered	25 (69.4%)
Use of traditional practices	17 (47.2%)
Sources of health information	
Local practitioner/health clinic	16 (44.4%)
Family members	12 (33.3%)

Internet	8 (22.2%)
Past infant caring experience	22 (61.1%)
Experience found helpful	29 (80.6%)
Emotional state of caregivers	
Confident	16 (44.4%)
Fatigued	8 (22.2%)
Stressed	5 (13.9%)
Both stressed & fatigued	7 (19.4%)
Post-discharge counseling given by	
Doctor	27 (75.0%)
Nursing staff	9 (25.0%)
Counselling adequacy	
Sufficient	22 (61.1%)
Partial/insufficient	14 (38.9%)

Suggestions for improvement were diverse, including requests for better follow-up systems, home visits, feeding and emotional support, community services, and transport assistance, each suggested by 1-2 caregivers (2.8-5.6%) (Figure 1).

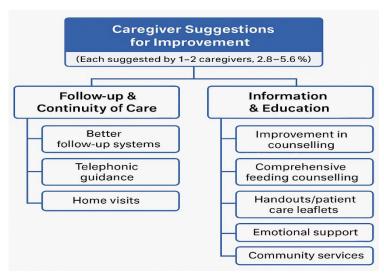


Figure 1: Caregiver suggestions for improvement

#### Discussion

This study provides comprehensive insights into the lived experiences, caregiving practices, and knowledge gaps of families caring for preterm and low birth weight infants in a resource-limited urban Pakistani setting. The findings illuminate how the complex interplay of maternal education, cultural norms, systemic limitations, and social support structures shapes neonatal caregiving. Despite 44.5% of caregivers having tertiary education, a persistent and concerning gap existed between theoretical knowledge and practical implementation, particularly in critical areas such as exclusive breastfeeding, danger sign recognition, and thermal care management. This knowledge-practice disconnect mirrors broader trends observed across low- and middle-income countries (LMICs), where formal education, while valuable, proves insufficient on its own to drive optimal neonatal outcomes (9, 10). The stark contrast between awareness and application was most evident in feeding practices: although 83.3% of caregivers acknowledged the benefits of exclusive breastfeeding, only 50% implemented it consistently, and 13.9% reported incorrect formula dilution techniques. This disparity raises significant concerns about nutritional risks and growth outcomes stemming from misinformation or inadequate practical counseling (11). Feeding practices revealed multifaceted challenges that extended beyond simple knowledge deficits. Only half of caregivers could confidently recognize infant hunger cues,

feeding intervals varied dramatically (30 minutes to 3 hours), and improper formula dilution in 13.9% of cases posed serious risks of hypernatremia, dehydration, and growth faltering (12, 13). The prevalence of feeding difficulties, including low milk supply (30.6%), oral thrush (11.1%), and latching problems (5.6%), often remained unaddressed due to insufficient lactation support and limited access to specialized counseling services (14).

Kangaroo Mother Care (KMC) implementation revealed a significant hospital-to-home transition gap, with only 44.4% of caregivers continuing the practice post-discharge despite its well-established benefits for thermoregulation, bonding, and survival outcomes (15). This low uptake likely reflects household responsibilities, family resistance, cultural misconceptions, and lack of structured community-based reinforcement, challenges consistently reported across LMICs (16). While few complications were reported among those practicing KMC, the substantial discontinuation rate suggests an urgent need for culturally adapted promotion strategies and ongoing support systems.

Danger sign recognition represented perhaps the most concerning knowledge gap, with potentially life-threatening implications. Despite universal willingness to seek hospital care when needed, only 27.8% of caregivers could identify cyanosis, 16.7% recognized irritability as a warning sign, and merely 11.1% knew to watch for cold extremities. Emergency response preparedness was similarly inadequate, with an

inconsistent understanding of appropriate interventions for breathing cessation. These deficits align with findings from South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, where post-discharge emergency readiness training remains minimal (17, 18).

Despite 83.3% of caregivers receiving hygiene guidance, only 58.3% maintained consistent practices at home, highlighting the challenge of translating facility-based education into sustainable daily routines. Temperature regulation strategies varied widely, with 16.7% employing no specific thermal management methods and others relying on potentially inadequate alternatives like sunlight exposure. The underutilization of KMC for warmth (only 22.2% combined KMC with heating strategies) represents a missed opportunity for evidence-based thermal care (19). Developmental monitoring revealed concerning gaps in both assessment and concern levels. While 38.9% of infants had achieved smiling milestones and 16.7% demonstrated head control, one-third showed no observable milestones yet generated minimal parental

concern. This pattern suggests either normalization of delayed development, insufficient awareness of age-appropriate behaviors, or inadequate counseling about expected developmental trajectories. Contributing factors likely include caregiver fatigue, cultural expectations, and limited access to developmental guidance. The emotional toll of preterm infant caregiving emerged as a significant yet underaddressed concern. Over half of caregivers (55.5%) experienced stress, fatigue, or both, while only 61.1% received adequate discharge counseling support. This neglect of maternal mental health and psychosocial needs reflects broader systematic gaps in LMIC neonatal care programs (20). The isolation experienced by 50% of caregivers, combined with insufficient family support systems, compounds the psychological burden of managing medically vulnerable infants. Caregiver knowledge and experience across key themes is summarized in Figure 2.

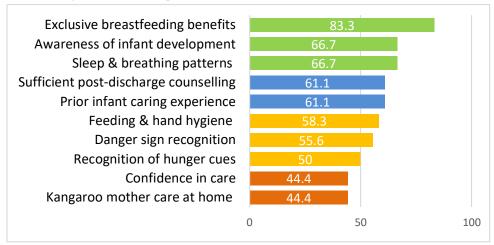


Figure 2: Caregiver knowledge and experience across key themes

Despite relatively encouraging follow-up adherence (75% attending regular visits), systemic barriers, including irregular scheduling (33.3%), transportation difficulties (11.1%), and financial constraints (5.6%), hindered optimal continuity of care. These findings underscore the urgent need for innovative delivery mechanisms such as mobile health platforms, community-based visits, and telemedicine support to bridge geographical and economic access gaps (21). Cultural dynamics significantly shaped caregiving patterns, reflecting the communal caregiving model characteristic of South Asian societies. While mothers served as primary caregivers, grandmothers and aunts played influential roles in decision-making and daily care practices. Nearly half of families (47.2%) employed traditional remedies, including gripe water, mustard oil

massage, and herbal treatments. While culturally meaningful, these practices sometimes conflicted with evidence-based medical recommendations and required respectful, culturally sensitive guidance rather than outright prohibition (22).

The study findings reveal that post-discharge challenges were primarily health-related (72.2%) and feeding-related (58.4%), followed by follow-up barriers (55.6%) and emotional strain (55.5%) (Figure 3). These interconnected challenges emphasize the need for comprehensive, multi-dimensional interventions that address not only knowledge gaps but also practical implementation barriers, cultural considerations, and psychosocial support needs.

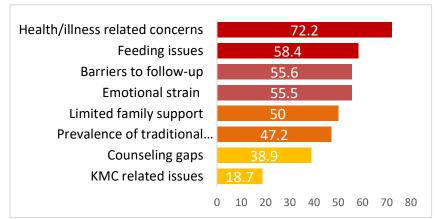


Figure 3: Key challenges faced post-discharge

Key areas requiring targeted intervention include: enhanced practical feeding support with hands-on demonstration and ongoing troubleshooting; culturally adapted KMC promotion strategies with family engagement; systematic emergency preparedness training with regular reinforcement; structured developmental monitoring guidance; comprehensive psychosocial support addressing maternal mental health; and innovative follow-up mechanisms reducing access barriers while maintaining care quality. This study's cross-sectional design and small sample size limit generalizability, while the single-center urban setting may not reflect rural experiences. Future research should employ longitudinal designs tracking outcomes over extended periods, include diverse geographical settings, and develop culturally adapted intervention strategies with rigorous evaluation of effectiveness and cost-effectiveness.

#### Conclusion

This study reveals the complex, multifaceted nature of preterm infant caregiving in a lower-middle-income urban Pakistani context, where educated, committed caregivers nevertheless face significant challenges in translating knowledge into effective practice. The persistent gaps between awareness and implementation—particularly in exclusive breastfeeding (83.3% awareness vs. 50% practice), KMC continuation (hospital initiation vs. 44.4% home practice), and danger sign recognition (100% willingness to seek care vs. 27.8% ability to identify critical signs)-highlight the inadequacy of knowledge-only approaches to discharge preparation.

The findings demonstrate that optimal neonatal outcomes require more than individual caregiver education; they demand systematic changes addressing cultural integration, family dynamics, healthcare accessibility, and ongoing support mechanisms. The high prevalence of health-related concerns (72.2%), feeding difficulties (58.4%), and emotional strain (55.5%) among caregivers underscores the vulnerability of this population and the critical importance of comprehensive post-discharge support systems.

### **Declarations**

#### **Data Availability statement**

All data generated or analysed during the study are included in the manuscript.

#### Ethics approval and consent to participate

Approved by the department concerned. (IRB/2025/1530/SIMS)

# **Consent for publication**

Approved

# **Funding**

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#### **Conflict of interest**

The authors declared the absence of a conflict of interest.

#### **Author Contribution**

### **SH** (Associate Professor)

Data Collection, Data Analysis, Manuscript drafting, Critical Input, and Study Design, Conception of Study, and Final Approval of Draft

## **BBM** (Assistant Professor)

Review of Literature, Data entry, Manuscript Revision, and Final Approval of Draft

## AS (Postgraduate Resident)

Development of Research Methodology Design, Conception of Study

#### AK (Postgraduate Resident)

Study Design, Manuscript review, and critical input.

### FS (Assistant Professor),

Study Design, Critical Input

#### TKB (Professor)

Critical Input, and Review of Literature

All authors reviewed the results and approved the final version of the manuscript. They are also accountable for the integrity of the study.

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