

1     **Health professionals’ over estimation of knowledge on snakebite management, a threat to**  
2                     **survival of snake bite victims - A cross-sectional study in Ghana.**

3

4                     Evans Paul Kwame Ameade<sup>1\*</sup>, Isaac Bonney<sup>2</sup>, Evans Twumasi Boateng<sup>3</sup>

5                     <sup>1</sup>Department of Pharmacy, University for Development Studies, Tamale

6                                     <sup>2</sup> South Tongu District Hospital, Sogakofe, Ghana

7                                     <sup>3</sup> Worawora Government Hospital, Worawora, Ghana

8

9

10

11

12

13

14

15

16     \* Corresponding author:

17     Evans Paul Kwame Ameade, Department of Pharmacy, School of Medicine and Health Sciences,

18     P.O.Box TL 1350, Tamale. Email: [sokpesh@yahoo.com](mailto:sokpesh@yahoo.com).

19

## 20 **Abstract**

### 21 **Background**

22 According to the World Health Organization, snakebites, a common occupational hazard in  
23 developing countries accounts an annual loss of between 81,000 and 139, 000 lives following 5  
24 million of bites of which 2.7 million results in envenomation. Since snakebite associated morbidity  
25 and mortality is more prevalent in agriculture economies such as Ghana, health professionals  
26 should be optimally knowledgeable on how to manage incidence of snakebites. Lack of knowledge  
27 or overestimation of a professional's knowledge can be affects heath delivery especially for  
28 emergency situations such as snakebites. The three (3) Tongu districts South Eastern Ghana  
29 which are rurally situated with agriculture as the major source of livelihood for their inhabitants  
30 are prone to snakebite incidence hence the need to assess whether the health professionals in these  
31 districts are well equipped by way of knowledge to handle such emergencies and whether they are  
32 able to rightly estimate their knowledge with regards to snakebite management.

33

### 34 **Methodology/Principal findings:**

35 Data was collected using a *de novo* semi-structured questionnaire administered through google  
36 form whose link was sent via to 186 health workers made up of nurses, midwives, physician  
37 assistants, medical doctors, pharmacists, and pharmacy technicians. This data was analyzed using  
38 Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 25. Association between variables was  
39 determined using the appropriate tools where necessary, using a confidence interval of 95% and  
40 significance assumed when  $p \leq 0.05$ . This study found male health workers significantly more  
41 knowledgeable about snakebite management ( $11.53 \pm 5.67$  vrs  $9.64 \pm 5.46$ ;  $p = 0.022$ ) but it was the

42 females who overestimated their knowledge level (27.9% vrs 24.1%). The medical doctors  
43 exhibited the best knowledge on snakebite management with the registered general nurses least  
44 knowledgeable. Although most professionals overestimated their knowledge, the registered  
45 general nurses were the worst at that (53.7%). Overall knowledge of health care professionals on  
46 snakebite management was below average [ $10.60 \pm 5.62/22$  (48.2%)] but previous in-service  
47 training and involvement in management of snakebite were associated with better knowledge.  
48 Respondents who had no previous training overestimated their knowledge level compared to those  
49 who had some post qualification training on snakebite management (7.5% vrs 38.1%). Greatest  
50 knowledge deficit of respondents was on the management of ASV associated adverse reactions.

## 51 **Conclusion**

52 Health workers in rural Ghana overestimated their knowledge about snakebite management  
53 although their knowledge was low. Training schools therefore need to incorporate snakebite  
54 management in their curriculum and health authorities should also expose health workers to more  
55 in-service training on this neglected tropical disease.

56  
57

## 58 **Author summary**

59 World Health Organization estimates that every year between 81,000 and 139,000 die due snake  
60 bites across the world. Mismanagement of snakebites can result in increased disabilities and death  
61 if not handled by knowledgeable health workers. This study assessed if various categories of health  
62 workers made up of professionals from the medical, pharmaceutical and nursing categories in the  
63 three neighbouring Tongu districts in Ghana have the appropriate level of knowledge on snakebite  
64 management. Using a newly developed questionnaire, data was collected from the respondents

65 using google forms sent to their WhatsApp platforms. Data was then analyzed using Statistical  
66 Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 25. Results were presented in the form of tables  
67 and association between the variables also determined. The level of knowledge of sampled health  
68 workers on snakebite was below average especially among the nursing professionals. However,  
69 those who had some previous post qualification training on snakebite management exhibited a  
70 significant superior knowledge and least overestimated their knowledge hence policy makers  
71 should through workshops equip health workers especially the nurses on snakebites so that rural  
72 dwellers whose health care needs are mainly attended to by nurses can be better managed when  
73 they suffer snakebites.

74  
75 **Keyword list**

76 Snakebite, Health workers, Management, Knowledge, Confidence, Overestimation, Tongu,  
77 Ghana

78  
79  
80 **INTRODUCTION**

81 Snakes which belongs to the class of animals called the reptiles can be found in all places except  
82 in Antarctica, Iceland, Ireland, Greenland, New Zealand, Cape Verde in West Africa, Siberia area  
83 in Russia, some parts of Argentina, Chile, Finland as well as some small nations in the Pacific  
84 Ocean such as Tuvalu and Nauru [1]. It is estimated that there are more than 3,700 species of  
85 snakes on earth [2]. As snakes also makes efforts to survive in the ecosystem, there are bound to  
86 come into conflict with humans and mostly as a defensive mechanism some of them bite. This  
87 human-snake conflict is estimated to results in between 4.5 and 5.4 million snakebites annually  
88 [3]. It is estimated that about 600 snakes whenever they bite, they inject toxins substances referred

89 to as venoms into their victims hence they are classified as being venomous while the vast majority  
90 are non-venomous [4]. The number of persons bitten by venomous snakes cannot be exactly  
91 known but it is believed that 1.8 to 2.7 million people globally suffer the effects of their bites out  
92 of which 81,000 to 138,000 of victims die although the mortality would have been higher had it  
93 not been because about 50% of venomous snakebites do not lead to envenoming [4, 5].  
94 Notwithstanding this high level of snakebite incidence, reports across the world found that quite a  
95 number of victims seek remedies from traditional medicine practitioners than hospitals. A study  
96 in India found that only 22.2% of snakebite victims report at the hospitals [6]. Two hospital-based  
97 surveys in Nigeria and Ghana reported snakebite incidence of 465 per 100,000 and 92 per 100,00  
98 respectively [7, 8]. Mortality and morbidity associated with snakebites for those who report at the  
99 hospital can be determined by the level of management by the health care professionals which will  
100 depend on how knowledgeable or skillful they are on snakebite management. There is paucity of  
101 study on assessment of the knowledge of healthcare professionals on the management of  
102 snakebites in Ghana hence the need to undertake this study in three rural districts of Ghana in the  
103 coastal savanna eco-zone.

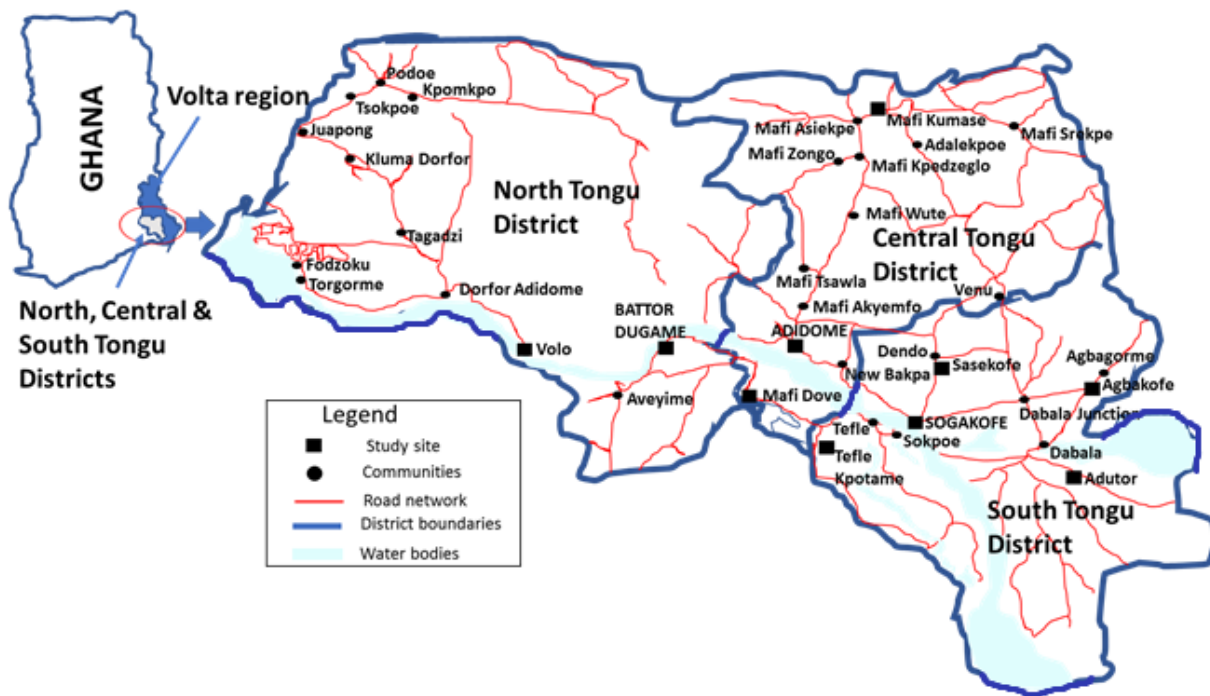
104

## 105 **METHOD**

### 106 *Study setting*

107 The study areas are selected health facilities South, Central and North Tongu districts of the Volta  
108 region of Ghana. The facilities in the South Tongu district were the District Hospital and Comboni  
109 Catholic Hospital both located at Sogakofe; Health Centres at Tefle Kpotame and Adutor and the  
110 Agbakofe and Sasekofe Community-based Health Planning and Service (CHPS) zones. CHPS  
111 zones are the lowest level of health care system in Ghana for the provision of primary health care

112 to those in rural Ghana. For the North Tongu District, Battor Catholic Hospital and Volo Health  
113 Centre were the sites for the study while the Central Tongu District had Mafi Adidome Hospital  
114 as well as Mafi Kumase and Mafi Dove Health Centres as the study sites. The total population of  
115 these three Tongu districts in Ghana's 2010 National population census was 237,138 [9].  
116 Inhabitants of these districts (Figure 1) whose main occupation are agriculture related, speak  
117 mainly the Tongu dialect of the Ewe language.



118  
119 **Figure 1: The map of Ghana and the study location, the South, Central and Tongu Districts**  
120 **of the Volta region of Ghana.**

### 121 *Study design*

122 A cross-sectional study design was applied in this study which was conducted within the months  
123 of May and June, 2019.

124 ***Study population***

125 The study population were health care providers namely; pharmacists, physician/medical  
126 assistants, medical doctors, pharmacy technicians as well as midwives and nurses of various  
127 categories who work in hospitals, health centres and CHPS compounds in the study area.

128 ***Study sample size determination***

129 The sample size for this study was calculated using the Cochran formula,  $n_0 = \frac{t^2(p)(q)}{d^2}$

130 Where t (selected alpha level of .025 in each tail) = 1.96; d, (acceptable margin of error) = 0.05;

131 With an estimated overall knowledge of health care providers in the study area on management

132 of snakebites as 50%, p (the estimated proportion of an attribute that is present in the population)

133 = 0.5 hence q is 1-p = 0.5.

134 
$$n_0 = \frac{1.96^2(0.5)(0.5)}{0.05^2}$$

135 
$$n_0 = 384$$

136 Since  $n_0$  of 384 exceeds the 5% of the eligible study population of 537 excluding the 20

137 involved in the pre-testing of the questionnaire ( $537 \times 0.05 = 26.9$ ), Cochran correction formula

138 can be used to obtain adjusted sample size  $n_1$

139 
$$n_1 = \frac{n_0}{1 + \frac{n_0}{\text{Study population}}}$$

140 
$$n_1 = \frac{384}{1 + \frac{384}{517}}$$

141  $n_1 = 220$

142 With as expected response rate of 90%, the final actual sample size for the study was 244 ( $\frac{n_1}{0.9}$ ).

143 At the end of the study period, responses from 186 individuals were successfully received  
144 resulting in a response rate of 76.2% ( $186/244*100$ ).

### 145 ***Sampling procedure***

146 Efforts were made to take a census sample of all the pharmacists (5), physician/medical assistants  
147 (26), medical doctors (17), and pharmacy technicians (6) because of their small numbers in the  
148 selected health facilities. However, for the nurses and midwives who were about 483, convenience  
149 sampling technique was applied to select the respondents. For the category of health professionals  
150 that census technique was applied, they were met in person or spoken to on their mobile phone  
151 and the link of the questionnaire was sent to the WhatsApp pages of those willing to partake in the  
152 study. All nurses and midwives working in Health centres and CHPS zones which are the lowest  
153 level of health care in Ghana, were invited to partake in the study after a visitation by a member  
154 of the research team. For the respondents from the hospitals, invitation was extended to those who  
155 were at the facility at the time of the visit of the research team. Some off-duty nurses and midwives  
156 were gotten in to participate in the study by their colleagues who the researchers had earlier met  
157 and enrolled into the study.

### 158 **Data Collection Instrument and Technique**

159 A de novo self-administered semi-structured questionnaire was designed and then converted into  
160 google form. The questions were formulated based on information obtained from the 2016  
161 edition of the WHO Guidelines for the management of snakebites, WHO Regional Office for  
162 South-East Asia. The questionnaire was piloted among twenty(20) health workers from the study



163 area who were subsequently excluded during the actual data collection. The research team  
164 performed a face validity of the questionnaire and also deleted or reframed questions that were  
165 ambiguous so as to ensure their clarity. Reliability test of the questionnaire was also performed  
166 using Microsoft Excel which gave a Cronbach alpha of 0.7 which made the questionnaire  
167 acceptable for the study. The questionnaire consisted of thirty-one questions of which six were  
168 on respondents' sociodemographic characteristics, and another nine related to previous training  
169 and management as well of their level of confidence in the management of snakebites. The  
170 remainder fifteen questions assessed respondents' knowledge about snakebite management. The  
171 questionnaire was administered through the WhatsApp accounts of the respondents using the link  
172 <https://forms.gle/iV5NtKzdjbg5LTSc9>. Follow up text messages were sent and calls made to the  
173 respondents to remind them of the need to complete and submit the questionnaire.

#### 174 ***Data measurement***

175 Comparing the answers provided by the respondents with those from literature sources, the  
176 knowledge of the health professionals on snakebite management was assessed. For questions that  
177 the respondents had the option of choosing the most appropriate answer, a score of 1 mark was  
178 allocated. Choosing a wrong or an 'I don't know' option attracts zero mark. The total score for  
179 open-ended questions depends on the maximum number of answers required to be provided hence  
180 a question that required the provision of four answers scores 4 marks if all the respondent's answers  
181 are considered appropriate. The total maximum score which assessed the respondent's knowledge  
182 on snakebite management was 22. In comparing the perceived and actual knowledge scores of  
183 respondents on snakebite management, the total score of actual knowledge of each respondent was  
184 converted to 10 because respondents stated their perceived knowledge on snakebite management

185 with values ranging between 0 and 10 with 0 indicating absolute lack of knowledge while 10, for  
186 the most excellent level of knowledge.

187

### 188 *Statistical analysis*

189 Descriptive data was presented in tables indicating frequencies and percentages of the variables  
190 and questions used for the assessment. Association between variables was also determined using  
191 One-Way ANOVA at a confidence interval of 95%. Assessment of the level of over or under  
192 estimation or exaggeration of respondent's was measured by comparing respondents perceived  
193 knowledge and their actual knowledge score using paired sample test and pair sample correlation.  
194 Significance was assumed when  $p \leq 0.05$ .

195

196

197

### 198 **3.11 Ethical Consideration**

199 The ethics committee of the School of Medicine and Health Sciences of the University for  
200 Development Studies, Tamale provided ethical clearance for this study. Again, the preamble on  
201 the questionnaire explained the purpose of the research and stating clearly that submitting the form  
202 after completion is indicative of giving consent. To ensure confidentiality, the names of the  
203 respondents were not required. Clearances were also obtained from the District Health Directorates  
204 as well as the administrative heads of the various health facilities from which the data were  
205 collected.

206

## 207 **RESULTS**

208

### 209 **Sociodemographic characteristics of respondents**

210 The number of male and females who took part in the study was almost equal (51.1% vrs 48.9%)  
 211 but those between ages 30 and 39 years were in the majority, 98 (52.7%). Again, majority of  
 212 respondents were health workers in hospitals, 146 (78.5%) and had worked for less than 5 years,  
 213 112 (60.2%). Most respondents were from the South Tongu District, 87 (46.8%) and were  
 214 registered general nurses, 80 (43.0%) but the health profession least represented were the  
 215 pharmacists, 4 (2.2%). Table 1 shows the sociodemographic characteristics of respondents in this  
 216 study.

217

218 **Table 1: Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents**

Variable	Subgroup	Frequency	Percentage
Sex	Male	95	51.1
	Female	91	48.9
Age (years)	20-29	81	43.5
	30-39	98	52.7
	>39	7	3.7
District	South Tongu	87	46.8
	Central Tongu	45	24.2
	North Tongu	54	29
Number of years of practice (years)	< 5	112	60.2
	5 – 10	71	38.2
	>10	3	1.6
Level of health facility	CHPS zones	15	8.1
	Health Centre	25	13.4
	Hospital	146	78.5
Profession category	Registered General Nurse	80	43.0
	Enrolled/Community Nurse	37	26.3
	Midwife	15	8.1
	Medical officer	14	7.5
	Pharmacy Technician	5	2.7
	Pharmacist	4	2.2
	Physician/Medical assistant	19	10.2

219

220 **Training on and management of snakebite**

221 Table 2 presents the record of post qualification training on snakebite management and  
222 management history of respondents. Although, those who had ever been provided training on  
223 snakebite management since they started practicing as healthcare professionals were in the  
224 minority, 57 (30.6%), majority of the respondents, 154 (82.8%) had ever been involved in the  
225 management of snakebite victims in their facilities. For those who had no post qualification formal  
226 training on snakebite management, most, 53 (40.2%) had snakebite management skills from their  
227 senior colleagues with a lesser number, 32 (24.2%) acquiring their knowledge by reading materials  
228 from the internet and books. For the first half of the year 2019, most, 92 (49.5%) respondents who  
229 had ever managed snakebite cases had taken care of between 1 and 5 victims. Although majority,  
230 160 (86.0) will triage snakebite as emergency, most respondents, 91 (48.9%) do not think their  
231 health facilities have all the resources for optimal management of snakebites. The major limitation  
232 against the management of snakebite for those who think their health facilities cannot manage  
233 snakebites adequately is the unavailability of anti-snake venom, 77 (86.5%) although majority of  
234 respondents, 139 (73.7%) of all respondent said their health facilities have protocols for the  
235 management of snakebites. Most respondents, 79 (43.6%) were fairly confident about their ability  
236 to manage snakebite victims.

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245 **Table 2: Training on and management of snakebite incidence by respondents**

Variable	Subgroup	Frequency	Percentage
Ever managed snakebite	Yes	154	82.8
	No	32	17.2
Ever been trained on snakebite management after school?	Yes	57	30.6
	No	129	69.4
If not trained, how was skill acquired? (n = 132)	Learning from senior colleagues on the job	53	40.2
	Knowledge and skills obtained in school	47	35.6
	Self-education on the internet or in text books	32	24.2
Number of snakebites managed half year (January to June, 2019)	0	77	41.4
	1-5	92	49.5
	6-10	12	6.5
	>10	5	2.7
How to you triage snakebite?	Emergency	160	86.0
	Urgent	24	12.9
	Don't know	2	1.1
Does your health facility have what it takes to manage snakebites?	Yes	90	48.4
	No	91	48.9
	I don't know	5	2.7
Reasons for which your health facility unable to manage snakebites (n = 89)	Lack or inadequate Anti Snake venom	77	86.5
	Lack of other logistics	10	11.2
	Inadequate qualified staff	2	2.2
Does your hospital have snakebite management protocol?	Yes	137	73.7
	No	34	18.3
	I don't know	15	8.1
How confident are you about snakebite management (n = 181)	Not confident	11	6.1
	Fairly confident	79	43.6
	Confident	78	43.1
	Very confident	13	7.2

246

247

248

### 249 **Knowledge of respondents on snakebite management**

250 Table 3 shows the level of knowledge of respondents on snakebite management. The top five best  
251 answered questions on snakebite management were; Antivenoms being the only specific antidotes  
252 in the management of snake bites by venomous snakes [ $0.92 \pm 0.273$  (92.0%)], injecting ASV  
253 intramuscularly is as not as effective as using the intravenous route [ $0.81 \pm 0.39$  (81.2%)], the 20  
254 minutes whole blood count test (20MWBCT) being the first recommended test for a suspected  
255 snakebite victim to determine envenoming [ $0.73 \pm 0.447$  (73.0%)], stating correctly three adverse  
256 reactions a patient given anti-snake venom (ASV) may experience [ $2.01 \pm 1.24$  (67.0%)] and  
257 antivenoms need not be given to all persons suspected of snakebite [ $0.67 \pm 0.47$  (67.0%)]. The  
258 bottom five areas of least knowledge about snakebite management by the respondents were; ASV  
259 being useful for months and years after the labelled expiry date [ $0.12 \pm 0.32$  (12.0%)], intramuscular  
260 route being the most appropriate for administering first choice drug used for managing adverse  
261 reaction caused by ASV [ $0.19 \pm 0.40$  (19.4%)], Adrenaline being the first choice in the management  
262 of adverse reactions caused by ASV rather than hydrocortisone which majority, 96 (51.6%)  
263 wrongly indicated [ $0.22 \pm 0.42$  (22.0%)], a snake bite patient reporting to a facility with a  
264 tourniquet applied to the affected limb must be told it is not appropriate, but informed that the  
265 tourniquet will not be removed until anti-snake venom is injected [ $0.22 \pm 0.42$  (22.0%)] and  
266 correctly stating any important biochemical test required in snakebite management [ $0.31 \pm 0.464$   
267 (31.2%)]. The overall knowledge score of the respondents on snakebite management was  
268  $10.60 \pm 5.62$  over 22 which is equivalent to 48.2%.

269

270

271

272 **Table 3: Knowledge of respondents on snakebite management**

Question	Sub-group/ Correctness	Responses		Mean knowledge score (Percentage)
		Frequency	Percentage	
Which of the following will be your comment if a snake bite patient report to your facility with a tourniquet applied to the affected limb?	Not sure of what I will tell the person	17	9.1	0.22±0.42 (22.0%)
	It doesn't matter if it remains or removed since it had at least prevented the movement of the venom	17	9.1	
	It is appropriate, let it remain as we begin treatment	26	14.0	
	It is inappropriate, so remove it immediately	84	45.2	
	<b>It is not appropriate, but we will not remove it until we have given the anti-snake venom</b>	42	22.6	
State four recommended first aid procedures to be applied in the right order when you are the first to come to the aid of a person bitten by a suspected venomous snake? <sup>a</sup>	0/4	88	47.3	1.30±1.49 (33.0%)
	1/4	26	14.0	
	2/4	28	15.1	
	3/4	17	9.1	
	4/4	27	14.5	
Which test will you first recommend to determine if a suspected snakebite victim actually had an injection of venom by the snake?	<b>20 minutes whole blood count test (20MWBCT)</b>	135	72.6	0.73±0.447 (73.0%)
	Full blood count	42	22.6	
	Grouping and cross matching	4	2.2	
	Urinalysis for myoglobinuria	5	2.7	
State any important biochemical test required in snakebite management. <sup>b</sup>	Incorrect	128	68.8	0.31±0.464 (31.2%)
	Correct	58	31.2	
Antivenoms are the only specific antidotes in the management of snake bites by venomous snakes.	No	15	8.1	0.92±0.273 (92.0%)
	<b>Yes</b>	171	91.9	



Antivenoms made anywhere in the world is appropriate for all countries.	Yes	108	58.1	0.42±0.50
	No	78	41.9	(42.0%)
Antivenoms should be given to all patients bitten by snakes?	Yes	62	33.3	0.67±0.47
	No	124	66.7	(67.0%)
State 3 indications for the use of antivenom in snake bite. <sup>c</sup>	0/3	44	23.7	1.67±1.184
	1/3	39	21.0	(56.0%)
	2/3	38	20.4	
	3/3	65	34.9	
State three adverse reactions a patient given anti-snake venom (ASV) may experience. <sup>d</sup>	0/3	40	21.5	2.01±1.24
	1/3	20	10.8	(67.0%)
	2/3	24	12.9	
	3/3	102	54.8	
Which drug is the first choice in the management of adverse reactions caused by ASV?	<b>Adrenaline</b>	41	22.0	0.22±0.42
	Promethazine	2	1.1	(22.0%)
	Antihistamine	4	2.2	
	Don't know	40	21.5	
	Hydrocortisone	96	51.6	
	Others	3	1.6	
Which route is the most appropriate for administering first choice drug used for managing adverse reaction caused by ASV?	Intravenous	122	65.6	0.19±0.40
	<b>Intramuscular</b>	36	19.4	(19.4%)
	Subcutaneous	4	2.2	
	I don't know	18	9.7	
	Others	6	3.2	
Injecting ASV intramuscularly is as effective as using the intravenous route.	Yes	11		0.81±0.39
	No	151		(81.2%)
	I don't know	24		
ASV remain useful for months or even years after stated expiry dates.	<b>Yes</b>	22	11.8	0.12±0.32
	No	164	88.2	(12.0%)

In the use of ASV, it is better to give low doses repeated over several days than give high initial doses.	Yes	101	54.3	0.46±0.50
	<b>No</b>	85	45.7	(46.0%)
How long should a suspected snakebite victim who shows no sign of envenoming be detained for observation. <sup>e</sup>	Incorrect	82	44.1	0.56±0.51
	Correct	104	55.9	(55.9%)
Overall average knowledge score				10.60±5.62/22 (48.2%)

273 <sup>a</sup> Recommended first-aid: Move the victim from the area, reassure the victim, remove any constricting materials and immobilize the whole patient  
274 especially the affected limb using a splint or sling. <sup>b</sup> Other biochemical tests: plasma creatinine, urea/blood urea nitrogen and potassium  
275 concentrations, elevated aminotransferases and muscle enzymes (creatinine kinase, aldolase etc.) or hyponatraemia. <sup>c</sup> Antivenom treatment is indicated:  
276 if/when patients with proven/ suspected snakebite develop one or more of the following signs - Systemic envenoming: haemostatic abnormalities  
277 such as spontaneous systemic bleeding, coagulopathy or thrombocytopenia; neurotoxicity (bilateral ptosis, external ophthalmoplegia, paralysis etc.);  
278 cardiovascular abnormalities (hypotension, shock, cardiac arrhythmia, abnormal ECG); Acute kidney injury (oliguria/anuria, rising blood creatinine/  
279 urea); haemoglobin-/myoglobin-uria (dark brown/black urine, positive urine dipsticks) <sup>d</sup> Headache, nausea, vomiting, urticarial, pruritus, fever,  
280 chills, bronchospasm, tachycardia, hypotension, angioedema, abdominal cramps. <sup>e</sup> 24 hours. NB. In the table, correct answers were those in bold  
281 fonts.

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289 **Association between socio-demographic characteristics and knowledge on snakebite**  
290 **management.**

291 Table 4 shows the association between socio-demographic characteristics and knowledge on  
292 snakebite management. Male respondents were significantly more knowledgeable about snakebite  
293 management than females ( $11.53 \pm 5.67$  vs  $9.64 \pm 5.46$ ;  $p = 0.022$ ) so also were those who had some  
294 previous training on snakebite management than those who were not provided any other form of  
295 in-service training ( $14.14 \pm 5.90$  vs  $9.04 \pm 4.75$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ). Previous experience on snakebite  
296 management provides significantly better knowledge on snakebite management than one who had  
297 never been involved in the management of snakebite ( $5.17 \pm 2.47$  vs  $3.15 \pm 2.38$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ).  
298 Respondents working at CHPS zones scored best ( $14.47 \pm 5.48$ ) followed by those at health centres  
299 ( $12.72 \pm 6.88$ ) with those at hospitals being the least knowledgeable ( $9.84 \pm 5.18$ ) on snakebite  
300 management with the differences in knowledge being statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$ ). There  
301 were significant differences in knowledge among respondents based on their district of practice ( $p$   
302  $= 0.003$ ) with those from the North Tongu District scoring the highest ( $11.94 \pm 5.95$ ), closely  
303 followed by those in the Central Tongu District ( $11.84 \pm 5.93$ ) whereas the South Tongu district  
304 respondents scored the least ( $9.84 \pm 5.18$ ). There was a significant difference on knowledge on  
305 snakebite among the various categories of healthcare professionals ( $p = 0.031$ ) with the medical  
306 doctors obtaining the best mean score of  $13.71 \pm 6.50$  followed by the Pharmacy technician  
307 ( $13.60 \pm 6.07$ ) and the pharmacist ( $13.50 \pm 7.77$ ) but the registered general nurses were the worst  
308 performers ( $9.11 \pm 4.63$ ). Further grouping of the various categories of health workers based on  
309 their core duties found the prescribers being the most significantly knowledgeable group  
310 ( $13.56 \pm 6.41$ ;  $p = 0.017$ ) with the nursing and midwifery group scoring the least ( $9.98 \pm 5.31$ ).

311 **Table 4: Association between socio-demographic characteristics and actual knowledge**  
 312 **scores on snakebite management**

313

	Characteristic	Sub-group	Mean Score±SD	P-value
314	Sex	Male	11.53±5.67	0.022*
		Female	9.64±5.46	
315	Level of health facility	CHPS zone	14.47±5.48	<0.001*
		Health centre	12.72±6.88	
		Hospital	9.84±5.18	
316	District of health facility	South Tongu	9.13±4.93	0.003*
		Central Tongu	11.84±5.93	
317		North Tongu	11.94±5.95	
318	Area of profession	RGN	9.11±4.63	0.031*
		Pharmacist	13.50±7.77	
		Medical officer	13.71±6.50	
319		Physician assistant	11.63±6.08	
		CHN/EN	10.86±5.63	
320		Pharmacy technician	13.60±6.07	
	Registered midwife	11.73±6.95		
321	Professional group	Nursing and midwifery group	9.98±5.31	0.017*
		Prescribers	13.56±6.41	
		Pharmacy group	12.52±6.25	
322	Training	No training	9.04±4.75	<0.001*
		Received training	14.14±5.90	
323	Number of years of practice	<5 years	10.80±5.87	0.716
		5 – 10 years	10.24±5.28	
324		>10 years	12.50±6.36	
325	Ever managed snakebite?	No	3.15±2.38	<0.001*
		Yes	5.17±2.47	

326

327

328

329

330 **Comparison between the perceived and actual knowledge scores of respondents on snakebite**  
331 **management and**

332 Table 5 shows the comparison between the perceived and actual knowledge scores of respondents  
333 on snakebite management against their sociodemographic characteristics. There was significant  
334 difference between the mean actual and perceived knowledge scores on snakebite management for  
335 both male ( $p < 0.001$ ) and female ( $p < 0.001$ ) respondents but the females had greater exaggerated  
336 confidence than the males (24.9% vrs 24.1%). For both the male ( $p = 0.008$ ) and the female ( $p =$   
337  $0.003$ ) respondents, there was a small but significant positive correlation ( $\approx 0.3$ ) between their  
338 perceived and actual knowledge scores. All the age categories had exaggerated snakebite  
339 management knowledge scores  $> 20.0\%$  but those above 39 years had the highest score difference  
340 of 43.5%. However, it was only age groups 20 to 29 and 30 to 39 that had the differences between  
341 their perceived and actual knowledge scores being statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$ ). Again,  
342 although all age categories had weak positive correlation between the mean perceived and actual  
343 scores, it was only those between 30 and 39 that that had a significant correlation ( $p < 0.001$ ).  
344 Whereas health workers in the lowest level of Ghana's healthcare system, the CHPS zones  
345 significantly underestimated their knowledge on snakebite management ( $-25.4\%$ ;  $p = 0.005$ ), their  
346 colleagues in the hospitals significantly over estimated their knowledge ( $37.4\%$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ). It was  
347 only respondents in the hospitals that had a moderate but significant correlation between their  
348 actual and perceived knowledge on snakebite management. Health workers in the South Tongu  
349 District had the highest significant over exaggeration of knowledge on snakebite management  
350 ( $46.6\%$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ) as well as a significant and strong correlation between perceived and actual  
351 knowledge scores ( $r = 0.5$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ). All the categories of the number of years of practice had an  
352 over exaggerated score but those practicing between 5 and 10 years recorded the highest significant

353 difference score (38.4%;  $p < 0.001$ ) while those who had worked for less than a year had the lowest  
354 significant difference score (17.8%;  $p = 0.001$ ). Again, whereas those who had practiced for less  
355 than 5 years had a moderate but significant correlation ( $r = 0.3$ ;  $p = 0.01$ ) between the perceived  
356 and actual mean knowledge score, those who had worked between 5 and 10 years had a strong and  
357 significant correlation ( $r = 0.5$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ). There was over exaggeration of knowledge on  
358 snakebite management whether respondents had over had any form of on-the-job training or not  
359 (7.5% vrs 38.1%) but those who had no training had a significant exaggeration ( $p < 0.001$ ) and  
360 also a moderate but significant correlation between their actual and perceived mean snakebite  
361 management scores ( $r = 0.4$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ). Only the pharmacists (-2.3%), midwives (-12.9%) and the  
362 pharmacy technician (-22.2%) under estimated their knowledge on snakebite management. Other  
363 healthcare workers such as medical doctors (21.5%), physician/medical assistants (24.4%) and  
364 registered general nurses (53.7%) over exaggerated their knowledge by more than 20.0% but it  
365 was only the registered general nurses ( $p < 0.001$ ) and the physician/medical assistants ( $p = 0.032$ )  
366 that the differences between their perceived and actual knowledge scores were significantly  
367 different. Whereas, there was a moderate but significant correlation between perceived and actual  
368 knowledge scores of the registered general nurses ( $r = 0.4$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ), that of the physician/medical  
369 assistants was a strongly significant correlation ( $r = 0.5$ ;  $p = 0.037$ ). Regrouping of the health  
370 workers categories based on their core functions found significant differences between perceived  
371 and actual knowledge score for the nursing/midwifery group (29.6%;  $p < 0.001$ ) and the  
372 prescribers (23%;  $p = 0.005$ ) as well as a significant and moderate correlation ( $r = 0.3$  ;  $p = 0.002$ )  
373 for the nursing/midwifery group but a significant and strong correction for the prescribers ( $r = 0.5$ ;  
374 0.005). Both respondents who had in-service training and those without over exaggerated their  
375 knowledge (26.4% vrs 18.9%) but it was only those who had been trained who shows a significant

376 difference between their perceived and actual knowledge scores. Whereas the correlation between  
377 the scores were for those without training was strong and significant ( $r = 0.5$ ;  $p = 0.011$ ), those  
378 who had training was significant but weak ( $r = 0.2$ ;  $p = 0.042$ ). All the forms of verbal declaration  
379 of confidence in snakebite management showed exaggeration of knowledge with those who stated  
380 they had no confidence scoring the least difference (6.6%) which was not significant and those  
381 who stated they were very confident recording a significantly large difference between actual and  
382 perceived knowledge scores (52.7%;  $p < 0.001$ ).

383

**Table 5: Comparing means of respondents perceived and actual knowledge of snakebite management according to their sociodemographic characteristics**

Variable	Subgroup	Frequency	Paired sample statistics		Paired samples test		Paired samples correlation	
			Mean NPS±SD	Mean AKS±SD	Difference (%)	p value	r	P value
Sex	Male	93	6.60±1.62	5.32±2.54	1.28±2.62 (24.1)	<0.001*	0.3	0.008*
	Female	88	5.73±1.82	4.48±2.46	1.25±2.55 (27.9)	<0.001*	0.3	0.003*
Age	20-29	78	5.68±1.49	4.52±2.36	1.16±2.60 (25.7)	<0.001*	0.1	0.200
	30-39	96	6.49±1.90	5.22±2.63	1.27±2.57 (24.3)	<0.001*	0.4	<0.001*
	>39	7	7.36±1.18	5.13±2.63	2.23±2.57 (43.5)	0.062	0.3	0.550
Level of facility	CHPS	14	5.21±0.70	6.98±2.01	-1.77±1.94 (-25.4)	0.005*	0.3	0.346
	Health Centre	21	5.86±1.35	6.28±3.06	-0.42±3.04 (-6.7)	0.534	0.2	0.298
	Hospital	127	6.24±1.88	4.54±2.40	1.70±2.27 (37.4)	<0.001*	0.5	<0.001*
District	South Tongu	84	6.23±2.03	4.25±2.21	1.98±2.12 (46.6)	<0.001*	0.5	<0.001*
	Central Tongu	44	6.21±1.53	5.47±2.67	0.74±2.80 (13.5)	0.087	0.2	0.197
	North Tongu	53	6.06±1.51	5.51±2.67	0.55±2.78 (10.0)	0.156	0.2	0.137
Number of years of practice (years)	<5	109	5.90±1.54	5.01±2.64	0.89±2.71 (17.8)	0.001*	0.3	0.010*
	5-10	69	6.56±2.03	4.74±2.38	1.82±2.30 (38.4)	<0.001*	0.5	<0.001*
	>10	3	7.33±1.53	5.91±2.08	1.42±1.87 (24.0)	0.318	0.5	0.667
Ever had training on Snakebite management?	No	125	5.80±1.77	4.20±2.14	1.60±2.24 (38.1)	<0.001*	0.4	<0.001*
	Yes	56	7.01±1.45	6.52±2.62	0.49±3.09 (7.5)	0.239	-0.1	0.558
Profession	RGN	78	6.47±1.93	4.21±2.08	2.26±2.16 (53.7)	<0.001*	0.4	<0.001*
	Pharmacist	4	6.00±2.94	6.14±3.53	-0.14±2.18 (-2.3)	0.909	0.8	0.213
	Medical doctor	14	7.57±1.01	6.23±2.95	1.34±2.09 (21.5)	0.085	0.4	0.132
	Physician/Medical Assistant	19	6.58±1.47	5.29±2.76	1.29±2.43 (24.4)	0.032*	0.5	0.037*



	CHN/Enrolled nurse	48	5.56±1.38	5.02±2.52	0.54±2.69 (10.8)	0.169	0.2	0.317
	Pharmacy Technician	4	5.75±0.96	7.39±0.68	-1.64±1.27 (-22.2)	0.082	-0.2	0.826
	Midwife	14	4.86±1.99	5.58±3.12	-0.73±2.45 (-12.9)	0.296	0.6	0.018*
Professional group	Nursing/Midwifery	140	6.00±1.79	4.63±2.39	1.37±2.59 (29.6)	<0.001*	0.3	0.002*
	Pharmacy staff	8	5.88±2.03	6.76±2.44	-0.88±1.84 (-13.0)	0.215	0.7	0.065
	Prescribers	33	7.00±1.37	5.69±2.84	1.31±2.50 (23.0)	0.005*	0.5	0.005*
Ever managed snakebite?	No	29	3.97±1.57	3.34±2.42	0.63±2.19 (18.9)	0.134	0.5	0.011*
	Yes	152	6.61±1.47	5.23±2.44	1.38±2.63 (26.4)	<0.001*	0.2	0.042*
Level of confidence of managing snakebite	Not confident	11	2.91±1.76	2.73±2.36	0.18±2.14 (6.6)	0.784	0.5	0.124
	Fairly confident	79	5.21±1.08	4.34±2.35	0.87±2.41 (20.0)	0.002*	0.2	0.126
	Confident	78	7.17±1.00	5.66±2.58	1.51±2.78 (26.7)	<0.001*	-0.01	0.907
	Very confident	13	8.81±0.69	5.77±1.39	3.04±1.65 (52.7)	<0.001*	-0.2	0.630

NPS = Nominal perceived score.; AKS = Actual Knowledge Score; SD = Standard deviation \* Statistically significant

384 **DISCUSSION**

385 The outcome of a disease condition depends on several factors including the human beings  
386 involved in the process; an assertion supported by the Institute of Medicines' definition of health  
387 care quality as the degree to which health care services for individuals and populations increase  
388 the likelihood of desired outcomes and are consistent with current professional knowledge [10].  
389 Snakebites have become an event which claims the lives of between 81,000 and 138,000 persons  
390 annually most of whom are poor persons in developing countries involved in agriculture to produce  
391 food for their nations and for export to bring foreign exchange to their countries [4]. Although  
392 some victims of snake bites seek the services of traditional healers many others seek medical  
393 assistance from orthodox health facilities where provision of quality healthcare service can ensure  
394 the survival of a snakebite victim or eliminate or reduce any post exposure morbidity [6,11].

395  
396 Increased productivity had been reported among professionals that are confident about the work  
397 they do, which ultimately increases the gratification they derive from the job [12]. Lack of  
398 confidence by a healthcare professional can result in feelings of inadequacy, frustration as well as  
399 helplessness which can result in increased medical errors which thereby increases the chance of  
400 health worker related deformity or death occurring [13, 14]. As much as confidence is needed in  
401 the performance of duty, over exaggeration of one's ability is also detrimental. Since  
402 envenomation after a venomous snakebite can quickly affect various body systems and ultimately  
403 leading to death, if management of the victims and possible adverse effects of the anti-snake  
404 venoms are not executed well by a highly knowledgeable and skills health worker, the prognosis  
405 may not be good enough. This study found over exaggeration of knowledge on snakebite  
406 management across various sociodemographic classifications when the actual knowledge scores  
407 on snakebite management was compared with their presumed level of knowledge before the

408 completion of the knowledge assessment section of the questionnaire. The overall knowledge of  
409 health workers on snakebite management in this study was below average [ $10.60 \pm 5.62/22$   
410 (48.2%)]. This poor knowledge of health care professionals on snakebite management seem to be  
411 same irrespective of the level of development of the health sector of countries. Studies from the  
412 United Kingdom and Hong Kong recorded low knowledge on snakebite management which is  
413 same in several developing countries such as Loas PDR, Bangladesh, Cameroon, Nigeria [15 –  
414 20]. Males in this study were significantly more knowledgeable about snakebite management than  
415 their female counterparts who even significantly exaggerated their knowledge level. The lower  
416 knowledge base of females on snakebite management can be attributed to the fear women generally  
417 have for snakes [21]. Michael, et al., (2018) did not however find any association between sex of  
418 respondents and their knowledge level [20]. It is not clear why the females significantly over  
419 exaggerated their knowledge which is in contrast with results of a studies that found men to over  
420 exaggerate their capabilities and were also less honest [22, 23]. In this study, health workers in the  
421 hospitals were significantly less knowledgeable about snakebite management that colleagues in  
422 the lowest level health facility in Ghana, the CHPS zone ( $p < 0.001$ ) who as well exhibited  
423 overestimated confidence of 37.4% compared to the under exaggeration of -25.4% by those  
424 working in the CHPS zones. For health workers in the hospitals, there seem to be a moderate but  
425 significant correlation between the perceived and actual knowledge on snakebite management ( $r$   
426 = 0.5;  $p < 0.001$ ). The disparity in knowledge levels by the higher and lower level health facility  
427 can be due to the more exposed those in CHPS zones are to snakebite issues than those in the  
428 hospitals. This results then places snakebite victims that are sent or referred to these higher-level  
429 health facilities at higher risk of mismanagement. Among the various health professions, the  
430 medical doctors in this study were significantly the most knowledgeable and the nurses least

431 knowledgeable on snakebite management just as reported in some previous similar studies [17,  
432 19]. This is understandable since the medical doctor play the leading role in the management of  
433 all cases in the hospitals. The 21.5% over exaggeration of knowledge by the physician and a higher  
434 and significant (24.4%;  $p = 0.037$ ) over estimation of knowledge by the physician/medical  
435 assistants can be detrimental to their effective management of cases. The nurses who exhibited the  
436 least knowledge level just as in some earlier studies were also the same health professional group  
437 that overestimated their knowledge level the most (53.7%,  $p < 0.001$ ) [17 – 19]. This study found  
438 those who had ever managed or ever been trained on snakebite management to be significantly  
439 more knowledgeable than those never managed a case or had no previous training ( $p < 0.001$ ).  
440 Effect of training or experience on better management of snakebite had also been observed in some  
441 earlier studies in Cameroon, Lao PDR, and Nigeria [17, 19, 20]. Health professionals who had no  
442 training but mostly obtained their skills by observing their senior colleagues rather overestimated  
443 their knowledge level (38.1% vrs 7.5%). On the other hand, respondents who had ever managed  
444 cases although significantly more knowledgeable ( $p < 0.001$ ), also overestimated their knowledge  
445 level (26.4% vrs 18.9%). This over exaggeration of snake management skills for the untrained and  
446 even those who had ever managed snakebite cases can adversely affect management of snakebite  
447 victims as they will be inappropriately more confident as they even administer or manage such  
448 cases wrongly. The effect of high confidence level on the knowledge of respondents was succinctly  
449 exhibited when differences between perceived and actual knowledge scores were analyzed. The  
450 more confidence a health worker expresses, the higher the over estimation of knowledge; those  
451 not confident (6.6%) and very confident (52.7%). Although the overall knowledge on snakebite  
452 management may be low, there were some areas where they showed some good knowledge  
453 especially those about the 20 minutes whole blood count test, anti-snake venom being the only

454 specific antidote for envenomation and the best route for administering being intravascular.  
455 Management of ASV adverse drug reaction (ADR) was rather poorly answered. For more than  
456 half (51.6%) of respondents to opt for hydrocortisone rather than adrenaline (22.0%) as their 1<sup>st</sup>  
457 choice in the management of ASV associated adverse drug reaction is a source of worry. This  
458 result is even better than a study involving only physicians in a developed country such as Hong  
459 Kong, where 57% also opted for hydrocortisone and other antihistamines to manage ASV-induced  
460 anaphylactoid reactions [15]. However, up to 90.8% of health workers in the Laos PDR study  
461 chose adrenaline as their drug of choice for the management of ASV induced adverse drug reaction  
462 [17]. Respondents in this study also exhibited paucity in knowledge on the route of administering  
463 of ASV adverse reaction antidote (19.4%). This poor knowledge on the management of ASV  
464 associated ADR seem to be common among health workers across the world as it was reported in  
465 India and Hong Kong [15, 24]. ASV associated ADRs are common and known to occurs in  
466 between 25% and 62% of victims of snakebite which shows that some morbidity and mortality  
467 of snakebites are may not be due to the envenomation only but also mismanagement of the ADR  
468 associated with its management [25 – 29].

469

470

471 Results of this study being the first in Ghana we believe should make managers of health systems  
472 in Ghana and other developing countries see the need to include snakebite management in the  
473 curriculum of their health training institutions. Again, they will formulate policies that will ensure  
474 more frequent in-service training on snakebite management for all health workers. Governments  
475 should also stock health facilities in rural areas with anti-snake venoms since that was the most  
476 stated limitations most health workers indicated as one that affects their facilities ability to manage

477 such cases. For almost half of respondents have managed between 1 and 5 snakebite cases within  
478 half a year, shows that snakebite is disease in a rural set up as the Tongu districts. This study  
479 however presents some limitations. The study took place in only three out of about two hundred  
480 and sixty districts of Ghana so may not represent the situation across the country. Again,  
481 generalization of the results may not be appropriate since convenience sampling was used in the  
482 selection of the nursing professionals which introduced some biases in the selection of this  
483 category of respondents.

484

## 485 **CONCLUSION**

486 There is a deficit in knowledge in the management of snakebite cases among health care  
487 professionals in the three Tongu districts of the Volta region with a significant number over  
488 estimating their knowledge levels which can lead to mismanagement of victims of snakebite. There  
489 is the need for more in-service training on health professionals on snakebite management and  
490 should also include issues related to the management of adverse drug reactions associated with  
491 anti-snake venoms.

492

## 493 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

494 The data in Microsoft excel and results of analysis in SPSS that were used to support the findings  
495 of this study are available from the corresponding author upon request.

496

## 497 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

498 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest regarding the publication of this paper.

499

## 500 **FUNDING STATEMENT**

501 Funding of the study was by the authors. This research did not receive any specific grant from  
502 funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

503

## 504 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

505 We wish to acknowledge the support of heads of health facilities where the data were collected.

506 We also acknowledge the support given the team of researchers by health workers in the North,

507 Central and South Tongu districts of the Volta region.

508

## 509 **REFERENCES**

510

511 1. Carter L. Where are there no snakes in the world. 2018. Available from

512 <https://www.snakesforpets.com/where-are-there-no-snakes-in-the-world/>.

513 2. Uetz P., Freed, P. & Hošek, J. (eds.) The Reptile Database. 2019. Available from

514 <http://www.reptile-database.org>.

515 3. WHO. Global Snakebite burden. 2018. Available from

516 [https://apps.who.int/gb/ebwha/pdf\\_files/WHA71/A71\\_17-en.pdf](https://apps.who.int/gb/ebwha/pdf_files/WHA71/A71_17-en.pdf).

517 4. WHO. Venomous snakes distribution. 2010. Available from

518 <http://apps.who.int/bloodproducts/snakeantivenoms/database/>

519 5. WHO.. Guidelines for the management of snakebites, 2nd ed. WHO Regional Office for

520 South-East Asia. 2016. Available from <https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/249547>

- 521 6. Majumder D, Sinha A, Bhattacharya SK, Ram R, Dasgupta U, Ram A. Epidemiological  
522 profile of snake bite in South 24 Parganas district of West Bengal with focus on  
523 underreporting of snake bite deaths. Indian journal of public health. 2014 Jan 1;58(1):17.
- 524 7. Sakajiki AM, Ilah GB, Lukman AA, Yakasai AM. Snake bite envenomation seen at a  
525 specialist hospital in Zamfara state, North-Western Nigeria. Annals of Tropical Medicine  
526 and Public Health. 2017 Mar 1;10(2):391.
- 527 8. Punguyire D, Baiden F, Nyuzaghl J, Hultgren A, Berko Y, Brenner S, Soghoian S, Adjei  
528 G, Niyogi A, Moresky R. Presentation, management, and outcome of snake-bite in two  
529 district hospitals in Ghana. The Pan African medical journal. 2014;19(219).
- 530 9. Ghana Statistical Service. Population and Housing Census Summary Results of Final.  
531 2012. Available from  
532 [http://statsghana.gov.gh/gssmain/storage/img/marqueeupdater/Census2010\\_Summary\\_re](http://statsghana.gov.gh/gssmain/storage/img/marqueeupdater/Census2010_Summary_report_of_final_results.pdf)  
533 [port\\_of\\_final\\_results.pdf](http://statsghana.gov.gh/gssmain/storage/img/marqueeupdater/Census2010_Summary_report_of_final_results.pdf).
- 534 10. Wolfe A. Institute of Medicine report: crossing the quality chasm: a new health care system  
535 for the 21st century. Policy, Politics, & Nursing Practice. 2001 Aug;2(3):233-5.
- 536 11. Musah Y, Ameade EP, Attuquayefio DK, Holbech LH. Epidemiology, ecology and human  
537 perceptions of snakebites in a savanna community of northern Ghana. PLoS neglected  
538 tropical diseases. 2019 Aug 1;13(8):e0007221.
- 539 12. Kahr S. Why confidence is important in the healthcare industry. 2019. Available at  
540 [https://transparency.kununu.com/why-confidence-is-important-in-the-healthcare-](https://transparency.kununu.com/why-confidence-is-important-in-the-healthcare-industry/)  
541 [industry/](https://transparency.kununu.com/why-confidence-is-important-in-the-healthcare-industry/)



- 542 13. Poghosyan L, Clarke SP, Finlayson M, Aiken LH. Nurse burnout and quality of care:  
543 Cross-national investigation in six countries. *Research in nursing & health*. 2010  
544 Aug;33(4):288-98.
- 545 14. Cimiotti JP, Aiken LH, Sloane DM, Wu ES. Nurse staffing, burnout, and health care–  
546 associated infection. *American journal of infection control*. 2012 Aug 1;40(6):486-90.
- 547 15. Fung HT, Lam SK, Lam KK, Kam CW, Simpson ID. A survey of snakebite management  
548 knowledge amongst select physicians in Hong Kong and the implications for snakebite  
549 training. *Wilderness & environmental medicine*. 2009 Dec 1;20(4):364-72.
- 550 16. Ahmad Z. A study of the knowledge and attitudes of emergency physicians and plastic  
551 surgeons in the management of snakebites. *European Journal of Plastic Surgery*. 2009 Jun  
552 1;32(3):141-5.
- 553 17. Inthanomchanh V, Reyer JA, Blessmen J, Phrasisombath K, Yamamoto E, Hamajima N.  
554 Assessment of knowledge about snakebite management amongst healthcare providers in  
555 the provincial and two district hospitals in Savannakhet Province, Lao PDR. *Nagoya  
556 journal of medical science*. 2017 Aug;79(3):299.
- 557 18. Ahsan HN, Rahman MR, Amin R, Chowdhury EH. Knowledge of Snake bite management  
558 among health service providers at a rural Community of Bangladesh. *Journal of Current  
559 and Advance Medical Research*. 2017;4(1):17-22.
- 560 19. Taieb F, Dub T, Madec Y, Tondeur L, Chippaux JP, Lebreton M, Medang R, Foute FN,  
561 Tchoffo D, Potet J, Alcoba G. Knowledge, attitude and practices of snakebite management  
562 amongst health workers in Cameroon: Need for continuous training and capacity building.  
563 *PLoS neglected tropical diseases*. 2018 Oct 25;12(10):e0006716.

- 564 20. Michael GC, Grema BA, Aliyu I, Alhaji MA, Lawal TO, Ibrahim H, Fikin AG, Gyaran  
565 FS, Kane KN, Thacher TD, Badamasi AK. Knowledge of venomous snakes, snakebite first  
566 aid, treatment, and prevention among clinicians in northern Nigeria: a cross-sectional  
567 multicentre study. *Transactions of The Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*.  
568 2018 Feb 1;112(2):47-56.
- 569 21. Rakison DH. Does women's greater fear of snakes and spiders originate in infancy?  
570 *Evolution and Human Behavior*. 2009 Nov 1;30(6):438-44.
- 571 22. Byrnes JP, Miller DC, Schafer WD. Gender differences in risk taking: a meta-analysis.  
572 *Psychological bulletin*. 1999 May;125(3):367.
- 573 23. Grosch K, Rau HA. Gender differences in honesty: The role of social value orientation.  
574 *Journal of Economic Psychology*. 2017 Oct 1;62:258-67.
- 575 24. Deshpande RP, Motghare VM, Padwal SL, Pore RR, Bhamare CG, Deshmukh VS, Pise  
576 HN. Adverse drug reaction profile of anti-snake venom in a rural tertiary care teaching  
577 hospital. *Journal of Young Pharmacists*. 2013 Jun 1;5(2):41-5.
- 578 25. Deshmukh VS, Motghare VM, Gajbhiye D, Sv B, Deshpande R, Pise H. Study on acute  
579 adverse drug reactions of antisnake venom in a rural tertiary care hospital. *Asian journal*  
580 *of pharmaceutical and clinical research*. 2014;7(5).
- 581 26. Isbister GK, Brown SG, MacDonald E, White J, Currie BJ. Current use of Australian snake  
582 antivenoms and frequency of immediate-type hypersensitivity reactions and anaphylaxis.  
583 *Medical Journal of Australia*. 2008 Apr;188(8):473-6.
- 584 27. de Silva HA, Ryan NM, de Silva HJ. Adverse reactions to snake antivenom, and their  
585 prevention and treatment. *British journal of clinical pharmacology*. 2016 Mar;81(3):446-  
586 52.

587 28. Shende M, Gawali S, Bhongade K, Bhuskade V, Nandgaonkar A. Studies of adverse drug  
588 reaction profile of anti-snake venom at district general hospital. Indo American Journal of  
589 Pharmaceutical Sciences. 2017 Sep 1;4(9):3033-9.

590 29. Deva Kumar K. *Adverse drug reactions of anti-snake venom among haemotoxic and*  
591 *neurotoxic snake bite: A prospective observational study* (Doctoral dissertation,  
592 Dhanalakshmi Srinivasan Medical College and Hospital, Perambalur).

593

594