# Master thesis Food, Nutrition and Health 2010



# "Child undernutrition in the Far-West Terai of Nepal"

Researcher: Hanne Borgen

Supervisor: Sigrun Henjum

Department of Health, Nutrition and Management



#### **ABSTRACT**

#### **Background**

Child undernutrition remains a major health problem in Nepal. Nearly fifty percentages of children below 5 years of age are undernourished. The causes of child undernutrition are multifactorial, embracing aspects within the fields of dietary intake and food insecurity, health and care.

#### **Objective**

The aim with this study was to assess the prevalence of undernutrition and identify causes of undernutrition among children below 5 years of age in the Far West Terai of Nepal.

#### Methodology

A cross- sectional study was conducted in the Far West Terai of Nepal in 2009. A two-staged cluster sampling was used and 1500 children (0-59 months) from 1500 household were included. Anthropometric measurements (weight, height, MUAC) were performed. A pre-coded questionnaire was used to collect information of socio economic status, infant and young child feeding, disease, coping mechanisms related to food security, and prevention and control of diseases.

#### Results

In total 35 %, 35% and 16% of the children below five years were stunted, underweight and wasted, respectively. Of the children below 6 months, 77% were exclusively breastfed and the majority was breastfed for up to two years. The dietary diversity and meal frequency was inadequate. Only 8% of the children aged 6-11 months received food from at least 4 groups and 60% of the children aged 9-23 months were given at least 3 meals a day. Thirty eight percent had been sick, and fever (77%), cough (31%) and diarrhoea (11%) were the most prevalent diseases. The nutritional care during the illness was poor, 88% were fed less and 76% were given less liquid. One third of the households were using coping mechanisms which might indicate that they were food insecure. Multivariate regression analysis showed that households headed by the mother, households where the mother worked more than 8 hours a day and household belonging to a low caste and households with crop farming as the main source of income, had higher levels of stunting than other households, These variables explained 24 % of the variation in stunting.

#### Conclusion

According to the WHO classification of undernutrition, the prevalence of wasting and underweight is very high and the prevalence of stunting is high. There has been improvement in breastfeeding practices; however the complementary feeding is still inadequate. In addition the level of disease is high and the children do not receive appropriate care during illness. Despite high levels of breastfeeding and exclusive breastfeeding, programs which aim to improve these practices should be continued and more emphasis should be given to the quality and the quantity of complementary food.

#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

The present thesis work was carried out during the period of 2009- 2010. The survey was a collaboration project between His Majesty Government of Nepal, United Children's Fund (UNICEF), World Food Program (WFP) and Nepali Technical Assistance Groups (NTAG).

First of all I want to express my gratefulness to UNICEF- Nepal for giving me the chance to take part in their research. Several people have contributed to this work and deserve my gratitude. Special thanks go to the section leader Mr. Pankaj Mehta and to my supervisor Mr. Pragya Mathema for giving me advice and support during my stay in Nepal. My thanks also go to Zivai Murira and other colleagues in UNICEF for good collaboration and important inputs while preparing the survey, and valuable assistance during the writing process. I also would like to thank Nepali Technical Assistance Group (NTAG) and the World Food Program (WFP) for close collaboration beforehand and during the survey.

Special thanks go to Ms. Sigrun Henjum my supervisor from Akershus University Collegue. I am very grateful for your advice and encouragement. I also want to thank Ingrid Barikmo, Liv Elin Torheim and Arne Oshaug for your comments and support. My thanks go to my good friend Linden Rayton for reading and correcting my thesis.

I would like to thank my family, friends and fellow students who have encouraged me, contributed to and supported my study and made my years as a student the most enjoyable time.

Hanne

#### **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

ACF Action contre la Faim

ARI Acute respiratory infections

EPI Expanded Program for Immunization

FAO Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations

FCHV Female Community Health Volunteer

GDI Gender-related Development index

GNI Gross National Income

HDI Human Development Index

HFIAS Household Food Insecurity Access Scale

HKI Helen Keller International

IDP Internally Displaced People

IFPRI International Food Policy Research Institute

IMR Infant Mortality Rate

INFHS India National Family Health Survey

IYCF Infant and Young Child Feeding

MoHP Ministry of Health and Population

NCHS National Centre for Health Statistics

NDHS Nepal Demographic and Health Survey

NTAG Nepali Technical Assistance

PPS Probability Proportional to Size

SMART Standardized Monitoring and Assessment of Relief and Transitions

UCPN- M Communist Party of Nepal – Marxist

UML United Marxist- Leninist

UNICEF United Nations Children's Fund

VDC Village Development Committee

WFP World Food Program

WHO World Health Organisation

# **TABLE OF CONTENTS**

1.1. Undernutrition       1         1.2. Literature review       3         CHAPTER 2: BACKGROUND       8         2.1. Country Profile       8         2.2. Health and nutrition situation in Nepal       12         2.3. The study area: The Far West Terai       13         CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND OBJECTIVES       15         CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY       17         4.1. Study design       17         4.2. The fieldworkers       18         4.3. Data collection tools       19         4.4. Statistical analysis       24         CHAPTER 5: RESULTS       25         5.1. Socio economic status of the household       25         5.2. Nutritional status of the children       27         5.3. Infant and young feeding practices       30         5.4. Disease       33         5.5. Coping mechanisms related to household food insecurity       37         5.7. Determinants of stunting       39         CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION       42         6.1. Evaluation of the results       42         6.2. Evaluation of the sample and method       46         6.3. Conclusions and further recommendations       53         CHAPTER 8: APPENDICES       62         Appendix 1: Description of th	CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
CHAPTER 2: BACKGROUND.       8         2.1. Country Profile       8         2.2. Health and nutrition situation in Nepal       12         2.3. The study area: The Far West Terai.       13         CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND OBJECTIVES       15         CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY       17         4.1. Study design       17         4.2. The fieldworkers       18         4.3. Data collection tools       19         4.4. Statistical analysis       24         CHAPTER 5: RESULTS       25         5.1. Socio economic status of the household       25         5.2. Nutritional status of the children       27         5.3. Infant and young feeding practices       30         5.4. Disease       33         5.5. Coping mechanisms related to household food insecurity       37         5.7. Determinants of stunting       39         CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION       42         6.1. Evaluation of the results       42         6.2. Evaluation of the sample and method       46         6.3. Conclusions and further recommendations       53         CHAPTER 8: APPENDICES       62         Appendix 1: Description of the variables used       63         Appendix 2: Wealth index       66 <th>1.1. Undernutrition</th> <th>1</th>	1.1. Undernutrition	1
2.1. Country Profile       8         2.2. Health and nutrition situation in Nepal       12         2.3. The study area: The Far West Terai.       13         CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND OBJECTIVES       15         CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY       17         4.1. Study design       17         4.2. The fieldworkers       18         4.3. Data collection tools       19         4.4. Statistical analysis       24         CHAPTER 5: RESULTS       25         5.1. Socio economic status of the household       25         5.2. Nutritional status of the children       27         5.3. Infant and young feeding practices       30         5.4. Disease       33         5.5. Coping mechanisms related to household food insecurity       37         5.7. Determinants of stunting       39         CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION       42         6.1. Evaluation of the results       42         6.2. Evaluation of the sample and method       46         6.3. Conclusions and further recommendations       53         CHAPTER 8: APPENDICES       62         Appendix 1: Description of the variables used       63         Appendix 2: Wealth index       66	1.2. Literature review	3
2.2. Health and nutrition situation in Nepal.       12         2.3. The study area: The Far West Terai.       13         CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND OBJECTIVES       15         CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY       17         4.1. Study design       17         4.2. The fieldworkers       18         4.3. Data collection tools       19         4.4. Statistical analysis       24         CHAPTER 5: RESULTS       25         5.1. Socio economic status of the household       25         5.2. Nutritional status of the children       27         5.3. Infant and young feeding practices       30         5.4. Disease       33         5.5. Coping mechanisms related to household food insecurity       37         5.7. Determinants of stunting       39         CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION       42         6.1. Evaluation of the results       42         6.2. Evaluation of the sample and method       46         6.3. Conclusions and further recommendations       53         CHAPTER 7: LITTERATURE LIST       54         CHAPTER 8: APPENDICES       62         Appendix 1: Description of the variables used       63         Appendix 2: Wealth index       66	CHAPTER 2: BACKGROUND	8
2.3. The study area: The Far West Terai.       13         CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND OBJECTIVES       15         CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY       17         4.1. Study design       17         4.2. The fieldworkers       18         4.3. Data collection tools       19         4.4. Statistical analysis       24         CHAPTER 5: RESULTS       25         5.1. Socio economic status of the household       25         5.2. Nutritional status of the children       27         5.3. Infant and young feeding practices       30         5.4. Disease       33         5.5. Coping mechanisms related to household food insecurity       37         5.7. Determinants of stunting       39         CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION       42         6.1. Evaluation of the results       42         6.2. Evaluation of the sample and method       46         6.3. Conclusions and further recommendations       53         CHAPTER 7: LITTERATURE LIST       54         CHAPTER 8: APPENDICES       62         Appendix 1: Description of the variables used       63         Appendix 2: Wealth index       66	2.1. Country Profile	8
CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND OBJECTIVES       15         CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY       17         4.1. Study design       17         4.2. The fieldworkers       18         4.3. Data collection tools       19         4.4. Statistical analysis       24         CHAPTER 5: RESULTS       25         5.1. Socio economic status of the household       25         5.2. Nutritional status of the children       27         5.3. Infant and young feeding practices       30         5.4. Disease       33         5.5. Coping mechanisms related to household food insecurity       37         5.7. Determinants of stunting       39         CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION       42         6.1. Evaluation of the results       42         6.2. Evaluation of the sample and method       46         6.3. Conclusions and further recommendations       53         CHAPTER 7: LITTERATURE LIST       54         CHAPTER 8: APPENDICES       62         Appendix 1: Description of the variables used       63         Appendix 2: Wealth index       66	2.2. Health and nutrition situation in Nepal	12
CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY       17         4.1. Study design       17         4.2. The fieldworkers       18         4.3. Data collection tools       19         4.4. Statistical analysis       24         CHAPTER 5: RESULTS       25         5.1. Socio economic status of the household       25         5.2. Nutritional status of the children       27         5.3. Infant and young feeding practices       30         5.4. Disease       33         5.5. Coping mechanisms related to household food insecurity       37         5.7. Determinants of stunting       39         CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION       42         6.1. Evaluation of the results       42         6.2. Evaluation of the sample and method       46         6.3. Conclusions and further recommendations       53         CHAPTER 7: LITTERATURE LIST       54         CHAPTER 8: APPENDICES       62         Appendix 1: Description of the variables used       63         Appendix 2: Wealth index       66	2.3. The study area: The Far West Terai	13
4.1. Study design       17         4.2. The fieldworkers       18         4.3. Data collection tools       19         4.4. Statistical analysis       24         CHAPTER 5: RESULTS       25         5.1. Socio economic status of the household       25         5.2. Nutritional status of the children       27         5.3. Infant and young feeding practices       30         5.4. Disease       33         5.5. Coping mechanisms related to household food insecurity       37         5.7. Determinants of stunting       39         CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION       42         6.1. Evaluation of the results       42         6.2. Evaluation of the sample and method       46         6.3. Conclusions and further recommendations       53         CHAPTER 7: LITTERATURE LIST       54         CHAPTER 8: APPENDICES       62         Appendix 1: Description of the variables used       63         Appendix 2: Wealth index       66	CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND OBJECTIVES	15
4.2. The fieldworkers       18         4.3. Data collection tools       19         4.4. Statistical analysis       24         CHAPTER 5: RESULTS       25         5.1. Socio economic status of the household       25         5.2. Nutritional status of the children       27         5.3. Infant and young feeding practices       30         5.4. Disease       33         5.5. Coping mechanisms related to household food insecurity       37         5.7. Determinants of stunting       39         CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION       42         6.1. Evaluation of the results       42         6.2. Evaluation of the sample and method       46         6.3. Conclusions and further recommendations       53         CHAPTER 7: LITTERATURE LIST       54         CHAPTER 8: APPENDICES       62         Appendix 1: Description of the variables used       63         Appendix 2: Wealth index       66	CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY	17
4.3. Data collection tools       19         4.4. Statistical analysis       24         CHAPTER 5: RESULTS       25         5.1. Socio economic status of the household       25         5.2. Nutritional status of the children       27         5.3. Infant and young feeding practices       30         5.4. Disease       33         5.5. Coping mechanisms related to household food insecurity       37         5.7. Determinants of stunting       39         CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION       42         6.1. Evaluation of the results       42         6.2. Evaluation of the sample and method       46         6.3. Conclusions and further recommendations       53         CHAPTER 7: LITTERATURE LIST       54         CHAPTER 8: APPENDICES       62         Appendix 1: Description of the variables used       63         Appendix 2: Wealth index       66	4.1. Study design	17
4.4. Statistical analysis       24         CHAPTER 5: RESULTS       25         5.1. Socio economic status of the household       25         5.2. Nutritional status of the children       27         5.3. Infant and young feeding practices       30         5.4. Disease       33         5.5. Coping mechanisms related to household food insecurity       37         5.7. Determinants of stunting       39         CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION       42         6.1. Evaluation of the results       42         6.2. Evaluation of the sample and method       46         6.3. Conclusions and further recommendations       53         CHAPTER 7: LITTERATURE LIST       54         CHAPTER 8: APPENDICES       62         Appendix 1: Description of the variables used       63         Appendix 2: Wealth index       66	4.2. The fieldworkers	18
CHAPTER 5: RESULTS       25         5.1. Socio economic status of the household       25         5.2. Nutritional status of the children       27         5.3. Infant and young feeding practices       30         5.4. Disease       33         5.5. Coping mechanisms related to household food insecurity       37         5.7. Determinants of stunting       39         CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION       42         6.1. Evaluation of the results       42         6.2. Evaluation of the sample and method       46         6.3. Conclusions and further recommendations       53         CHAPTER 7: LITTERATURE LIST       54         CHAPTER 8: APPENDICES       62         Appendix 1: Description of the variables used       63         Appendix 2: Wealth index       66	4.3. Data collection tools	19
5.1. Socio economic status of the household       25         5.2. Nutritional status of the children       27         5.3. Infant and young feeding practices       30         5.4. Disease       33         5.5. Coping mechanisms related to household food insecurity       37         5.7. Determinants of stunting       39         CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION       42         6.1. Evaluation of the results       42         6.2. Evaluation of the sample and method       46         6.3. Conclusions and further recommendations       53         CHAPTER 7: LITTERATURE LIST       54         CHAPTER 8: APPENDICES       62         Appendix 1: Description of the variables used       63         Appendix 2: Wealth index       66	4.4. Statistical analysis	24
5.2. Nutritional status of the children       27         5.3. Infant and young feeding practices       30         5.4. Disease       33         5.5. Coping mechanisms related to household food insecurity       37         5.7. Determinants of stunting       39         CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION       42         6.1. Evaluation of the results       42         6.2. Evaluation of the sample and method       46         6.3. Conclusions and further recommendations       53         CHAPTER 7: LITTERATURE LIST       54         CHAPTER 8: APPENDICES       62         Appendix 1: Description of the variables used       63         Appendix 2: Wealth index       66	CHAPTER 5: RESULTS	25
5.3. Infant and young feeding practices       30         5.4. Disease       33         5.5. Coping mechanisms related to household food insecurity       37         5.7. Determinants of stunting       39         CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION       42         6.1. Evaluation of the results       42         6.2. Evaluation of the sample and method       46         6.3. Conclusions and further recommendations       53         CHAPTER 7: LITTERATURE LIST       54         CHAPTER 8: APPENDICES       62         Appendix 1: Description of the variables used       63         Appendix 2: Wealth index       66	5.1. Socio economic status of the household	25
5.4. Disease       33         5.5. Coping mechanisms related to household food insecurity       37         5.7. Determinants of stunting       39         CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION       42         6.1. Evaluation of the results       42         6.2. Evaluation of the sample and method       46         6.3. Conclusions and further recommendations       53         CHAPTER 7: LITTERATURE LIST       54         CHAPTER 8: APPENDICES       62         Appendix 1: Description of the variables used       63         Appendix 2: Wealth index       66	5.2. Nutritional status of the children	27
5.5. Coping mechanisms related to household food insecurity	5.3. Infant and young feeding practices	30
5.7. Determinants of stunting	5.4. Disease	33
CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION       42         6.1. Evaluation of the results       42         6.2. Evaluation of the sample and method       46         6.3. Conclusions and further recommendations       53         CHAPTER 7: LITTERATURE LIST       54         CHAPTER 8: APPENDICES       62         Appendix 1: Description of the variables used       63         Appendix 2: Wealth index       66	5.5. Coping mechanisms related to household food insecurity	37
6.1. Evaluation of the results	5.7. Determinants of stunting	39
6.2. Evaluation of the sample and method	CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION	42
6.3. Conclusions and further recommendations 53  CHAPTER 7: LITTERATURE LIST 54  CHAPTER 8: APPENDICES 62  Appendix 1: Description of the variables used 63  Appendix 2: Wealth index 66	6.1. Evaluation of the results	42
CHAPTER 7: LITTERATURE LIST	6.2. Evaluation of the sample and method	46
CHAPTER 8: APPENDICES	6.3. Conclusions and further recommendations	53
Appendix 1: Description of the variables used63 Appendix 2: Wealth index66	CHAPTER 7: LITTERATURE LIST	54
Appendix 2: Wealth index	CHAPTER 8: APPENDICES	62
	Appendix 1: Description of the variables used	63
Appendix 3: Questionnaire used in the survey67	Appendix 2: Wealth index	66
	Appendix 3: Questionnaire used in the survey	67

# **LIST OF TABLES**

Table 1: Country profile of Nepal	9
Table 2: Variables used in the study, organized according to UNICEF conceptual	
framework on the causes of undernutrition	23
Table 3: Socio economic status of the household	25
Table 4: Percentage distribution of stunting, wasting and underweight in children 0-59	
months according to age	27
Table 5: Mid - Upper Arm Circumference <sup>1</sup>	28
Table 6: Infant and young child feeding practices among children 0-23 months	30
Table 7: Proportion of households that had used different coping mechanisms related to	
food insecurity 4 weeks prior to the study	37
Table 8: Univariate and multivariate regression analysis	39
Table 9: Description of the variables used in the analysis	63

# **LIST OF FIGURES**

Figure 1: UNICEF conceptual framework (UNICEF, 1990)
Figure 2: The Nepali caste pyramid [61]
Figure 3: Map of Nepal and the study areas [3]
Figure 4: Conceptual framework of the causes of undernutrition. Adopted from UNICEF
conceptual framework (1990)
Figure 5: Percentage distribution of stunting (HAZ) <sup>1</sup> , wasting (WHZ) <sup>2</sup> and underweight
(WAZ) <sup>3</sup> in children 0-59 months according to sex
Figure 6: Stunting, wasting and underweight in children 0-59 months according to age
(n=1484)
Figure 7: Percentage of infants and young children 0-23 months who are exclusively
breastfed and receiving complementary food
Figure 8: Percentage distribution of disease among children 0- 59 months two weeks
preceding the study
Figure 9: Nutritional care of children during illness (0-59 months)
Figure 10: Health seeking behaviour (0-59 months)
Figure 11: Percentage of children 0-59 who received vitamin A capsules, deworming
tablets, DPT- HepB vaccination or measles vaccination among children 0-59 months 36
Figure 12: Percentage distribution of the number of coping mechanisms that were used in
the household
Figure 13: Prediction model: variables that predict the probability of children 0-59
months being stunted

#### **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

#### 1.1. Undernutrition

Child undernutrition is a global burden. Worldwide, more than 1 billion people are undernourished [1] and undernutrition contributes to more than 30% of all deaths in children below five years [2]. Undernutrition includes being stunted (low height for age), wasted (low weight for height) and underweight (low weight for age). The causes of undernutrition are multifactorial and embrace inadequate dietary intake and diseases, food insecurity, inadequate care, unhealthy environment and inadequate health services [2].

Nepal is one of the countries with the highest level of stunting in the world. Nearly 50% of the children below 5 years are stunted [3]. Due to the financial crisis and frequently natural disasters, several nutrition surveys have been conducted in the Mid and Far West Nepal since 2008. In 2009, UNICEF conducted surveys in six districts in the Mid and Far West of Nepal: I took part in the survey and used the data from two of the districts in my master thesis. Together with colleagues, I was responsible for developing a questionnaire, training of the fieldworkers and the follow up in the field.

The aim with this study was to assess the prevalence of undernutrition and identify causes of undernutrition among children 0-59 months in the Far West Terai region of Nepal. The UNICEF conceptual framework on the causes of malnutrition was the basis for analysis.

The results from this survey have been presented to UNICEF Nepal. The Government of Nepal has proposed a universal child cash transfer program in the West and Far West of Nepal. The aim with this programme is to improve the nutritional status in young children. The data in my thesis will be used as baseline for this program.

#### 1.2. Literature review

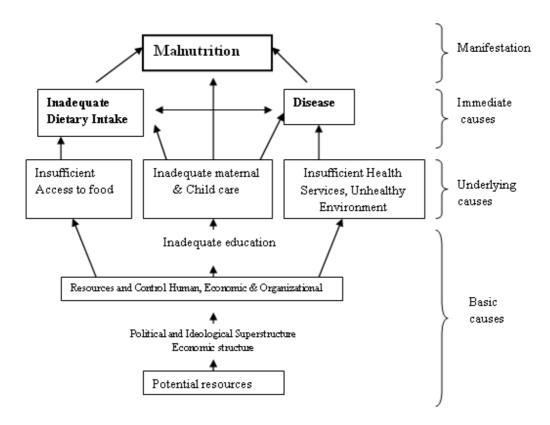
#### 1.2.1. Undernutrition

Malnutrition and undernutrition are often used interchangeably. As "malnutrition" includes both overnutrition and undernutrition [2], "undernutrition" will be used in this thesis. Undernutrition includes being stunted (low height for age), wasted (low weight for height) and underweight (low weight for age) [4]. The growth of the infants and children is related to socio economic environment in which they live. Children from developing countries grow more slowly and achieve a shorter adult height than those from wealthier regions [5]. Wasting is a measure of thinness. A wasted child has suffered from substantial weight loss, usually as a consequence of acute food shortage and/or diseases [6]. Undernutrition is influenced by both the height and the weight of the child, and reflects body mass relative to chronological age [7].

Undernutrition has serious affect on the child, the family and the development of the country. An undernourished child is more likely to be sick and die [8]. Further, undernutrition can lead to stunted growth [9], impaired cognitive and behaviour development [4], poor school performance and lower working capacity and lower income [11]. Undernutrition slows economic growth and leads to higher levels of poverty. Undernutrition restraints the society to meet its fully potential through loss in productivity, cognitive capacity and through increased cost in health care [10].

The following conceptual framework has been field tested by UNICEF in the 1980s and launched in 1990 as a basis for the UNICEF strategy for the improvement of nutrition of women and children [11] (figure 1).

Figure 1: UNICEF conceptual framework (UNICEF, 1990)



The UNICEF conceptual framework (Figure 1) shows that malnutrition is an outcome of causes at different levels: immediate, underlying and basic causes in a hierarchical manner. Factors at one level affect the factors at other levels. According to Urban Jonsson, strategies to prevent and control malnutrition should aim to attach all causes simultaneously [12]. The causes of malnutrition can be analyzed according to the different levels such as the international level, the national level, the local and the household level. Food intake might be inadequate and put the individual in higher risk of getting ill. However, frequent illness episodes also affect the appetite and the ability to absorb nutrients. Access to food, adequate care of children and women, and access to basic health services together with a healthy environment, are necessary conditions to obtain nutritional well-being [12]. Education influences the effectiveness of resources employed to achieve ideal nutrition. These resources include the availability, control, management of resources that might have an affect on economic, social, political, technological and cultural factors [12]. Other causes might be lack of tools or technology and limited knowledge and skills and inability to use the resources available [13].

#### 1.2.2. Inadequate dietary intake

Breast milk contains all the nutrients that a child needs for optimal growth, development and health [14]. It is recommended that children are exclusively breastfed up to 6 months of age [15]. Exclusive breastfeeding means that no other foods or liquids are necessary during the first 6 months [16]. Children who are exclusively breast fed are less likely to die [19] and are more protected against illnesses like respiratory infections [17] and diarrhoea [21], compared to children who are not exclusively breastfed. Breastfeeding on demand should be continued up to 2 years of age and beyond, as a supplement to the complementary food [18].

Complementary foods should be introduced when breastfeeding no longer gives the energy and nutrients that the child needs for optimal development and growth. According to World Health Organization (WHO), "timely" introduction of complementary feeding is at the age of 6 months. The food should be "adequate", meaning that it should contain enough energy, protein and micronutrients. It is important that the food is hygienically stored and prepared to ensure that the food is "safe". Finally, the child needs to be properly fed, meaning that the food should be given according to the child's signals of appetite and satiety [18]. A diet containing a diverse range of foods gives a higher intake of energy and micronutrients [23-28]. Dietary Diversity Score (DDS) is used to predict the nutritional status of an individual and to measure improvement in diets over time. All food groups that have been eaten over a period of time are calculated and given a DDS [29-30]. WHO recommends that a child aged 6-23 months receives at least four out of seven food groups. This would mean that the child is likely to eat at least one animal-source food and at least one fruit or vegetable each day in addition to staple foods (grain, root or tuber). The frequency of meals should increase with the child's age. Breastfed children aged 6-8 months should be fed with complementary food at least 2 times a day. Breastfed children aged 9-23 months should be fed at least 3 times a day. Non- breastfed children aged 6-23 months should be given complementary food at least 4 times a day [19].

#### 1.2.3. Disease

An undernourished child has a weaker immune system which makes him/her more vulnerable to sickness, and also to fatality from such common childhood illnesses as diarrhoea, measles and pneumonia [1, 32].

#### 1.2.4. Insufficient household food security

Food security is defined as a state in which "all people at all times have both physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life" [21]. Food insecurity, occurs whenever food supplies are limited or uncertain [22]. In situations where there is increased unemployment and declining wages, people find ways to cope. Some households choose to migrate or change to other income generating activities. Others will sell livestock assets or borrow money or food. In order to save money they will first reduce spending on durable goods. When food insecurity is high, households are forced to reduce spending on food. As a result, the diet may change from expensive- and nutrient- rich food- to calorie- rich and energy-dense foods [23].

#### 1.2.5. Inadequate maternal and child care

According to Engle, "Care" can be divided into six categories: a) care for the women, b) breastfeeding and feeding of young children, c) psychosocial stimulation of children and support for their development, d) food preparation and food storage practices, e) hygiene practices and f) care for children during illness [24]. An important factor whether an illness becomes life threatening to the child is the caretaker's knowledge of appropriate care during illness and health seeking behaviour. When a child is sick, he or she needs more fluid. Children below 6 months should receive more breast milk [20], and children above 6 months of age should receive more liquid (breast milk or other types of liquid) and complementary foods [19]. Many caretakers do not recognize the early signs of disease. In addition, distance to health service, cost of the service and the quality of the service are factors which inhibit the caretaker to use the healthcare available in the community [25].

#### 1.2.6. Insufficient health services and unhealthy environment

High levels of diarrhoeal disorders and acute respiratory infections reflects the poor access to health services and inadequate treatment. Diseases can also be caused by poor hygiene, indoor air pollution or inadequate housing [32]. A large proportion of the deaths of children below 5 years of age are related to communicable and vaccine preventable diseases and some diseases can be prevented. Globally, 10% of deaths and disability- adjusted- life-years (DALYs) among children below five years are caused by micronutrient deficiencies. Vitamin A and zinc deficiency represent the highest health risk among children [19]. In countries with high levels of vitamin A deficiency, the risk of dying of diarrhea, measles and malaria increase with 20-24% compared to other countries [26]. It is also found that vitamin A

deficiency leads to poor growth among children. High coverage of vaccination can reduce deaths among children below 5 years and reduce the burden of illness and disability caused by preventable diseases like night blindness [27]. Twenty four percent did not receive the complete immunization the first year of life in 2007. Children living in the rural areas have the least access to routine vaccination [27].

#### **CHAPTER 2: BACKGROUND**

# 2.1. Country Profile

#### 2.1.1. Geography

Nepal is a landlocked country in the foothills of the Himalayas. The country is surrounded by India in the east, south and west and China in the north [3]. Nepal is divided into three district belts, the mountains in the north, the hills in the middle and the plains of the Terai in the south. Only 7% of the population lives in the mountain zone, which ranges from 4,877- 8,848 meters above sea level. Forty- four percent stays in the hills at 610- 4,876 meters above sea level. The terai zone represents the most populated areas of Nepal. Because of the flat landscape, 48% of the population lives in the Terai [28]. Nepal is further divided into five regions (Eastern, Central, Western, Mid- West and Far- West). Each of these regions is further divided into 14 zones and 75 administrative districts. The districts consist of smaller units called the Village Development Committees (VDCs) [29]. Each VDC are composed of nine clusters [30].

#### 2.1.2. Political situation

Nepal has gone through period of political unrest, insurgency and violence. In 1990, Nepal switched from monarchic rule to multi- party democracy. This shift gave hopes of a better future and improved economic conditions [31]. At the same time, some groups were not satisfied with the government. The criticism concerned the governments' effort to improve the living conditions in the rural areas of Nepal. The result was a ten year long "People's War" led by the Maoist activists. The main objective with the war was to establish a republic and to change the constitution. The Comprehensive Peace Agreement between the Government of Nepal and the Communist Party of Nepal- Maoist (UCPN- M) was signed 21 November 2006. The conflict had a huge impact on affected peoples. Almost 15 000 were killed and 50 000 became Internally Displaced People (IDPs). IDPs could not return to their homes or settle elsewhere in the country [32]. The conflict has caused major physical, psychological, social and economic damage [33]. In 2008, the country was declared a republic and the monarchy was formally abolished [34]. UCPN-M was in power from August 2008 to May 2009. No political consensus led to resignation on 4 May 2009 of Prime Minister Pushpa Kamal Dahal. Only three weeks later, a senior leader of the Communist Party of Nepal United Marxist- Leninist (UML) was elected as Prime Minister. He formed a new coalition with the support of 21 other political parties, but without the Maoist's

participation. UCPN-M refused to join the new coalition and blocked parliamentary proceeding until an agreement allowed them to resume the budget discussion. Due to interruptions, the new constitution is still not finalized [32]. Various marginalized groups carry out protest programmes and strikes to advocate for their agenda. Political instability has caused interruptions and problems for schools, shops and in the transport sector [34]. The protests have led to increased violence and insecurity especially in the Terai region [32].

#### 2.1.3. Poverty and human development

Nepal is classified as a low- income country and is among the poorest and least developed countries in the world. Almost one third of the population are living below the poverty line [3]. The level of poverty is much higher in rural areas (35%) compared to urban areas (10%) [35]. Nepal is among the lowest- ranked countries in the world with only 350\$ per capita gross national income (GDI) [36]. Nepal ranks as number 144 on the human development index (HDI), which is low according to the HDI<sup>1</sup> [37]. During the 1990s, Nepal went through a period of improved economic growth. The current political instability has led to a contradiction in the economy [38]. Tourism has been hardly hit and many young people are going abroad in search for better jobs. Agriculture is the main source of income in Nepal, however, remittance, small scale industry, tourism, and foreign aid are also important components of the economy [35].

#### 2.1.4. Population

**Table 1: Country profile of Nepal** 

Indicator	
Total population <sup>1</sup>	28.2 mill
% Urbanization <sup>2</sup>	16%
People below poverty line (national) <sup>2</sup>	31%
People below poverty line of 1 \$ a day (international) <sup>2</sup>	24%
Life expectancy	
Male <sup>3</sup>	62.9
Female <sup>3</sup>	63.7
Under 5 mortality rate <sup>3</sup>	61/1000 live births

Source: [39], 2[40], 3[3]

\_

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The HDI measures achievements in terms of three indicators: life expectancy, educational attainment and adjusted real income. The countries ranked number one scores highest on all the three indicators. The counts are ranked from a high development index with numbers from 1-55, medium rank development index from 55-141 and a low development index from 142-175.

The population has increased dramatically the last 90 years from 5.6 million in 1911 to 23.1 million in 2001 [28]. Recent data shows that the population size has now reached 28 196 000 people [39] (table 1). Nepal has a young population, where two thirds of the population is below 15 years of age. However, the number of people above 60 years is increasing [35]. The sex ratio shows that there are 988 males per 1000 females [41]

#### 2.1.5. Literacy

Individuals are considered to be literate if they can read and write. In Nepal, about 50% of the population use Nepali as their first language [3]. Only 38% of the Nepali population above 6 years of age is literate. The highest level of literacy is found in the Western region and the lowest in the Mid and Far Western region. People living in urban areas are in general more literate than people in the rural areas [42]. The main causes of illiteracy are low access to schools and exclusion based on caste, ethnicity, gender [43]. The literacy level is higher among the males (52%) compared to the females (24%). The main reason for not going to school is parental prohibition. School is expensive and therefore, education for the males is prioritised [42].

#### 2.1.6. Religion and caste system

In Nepal, the largest religions are Hinduism (86%) and Buddism (9%) [3]. There are 103 ethnic or caste groups in Nepal. People within each caste have their own language and distinct culture [44]. The largest caste groups are Chhreti (16%), Brahmins (13%), Magar (7%), Tharu (7%), Tamang (6%) and Newar (5%) [3].

Figure 2: The Nepali caste pyramid [61]



The Nepali caste pyramid is shown in figure 2. The level of caste describes the political and economic power of the people. The caste is also an indication of employment. The hindu caste system was officially abolished in 1963. Originally, the Brahmins were at the top and the majority of them were priests. The Brahmins were kings and warriors, merchants, peasants and labourers. The indigenous groups and the Janajatis, belonged to the middle rank. The Dalits were at the very bottom and had the lowest social rank. The Dalits were seen as "impure" and "untouchable". Discrimination based on caste still exists, where 205 practices of caste- based discrimination are related to the Dalits. For example, Dalits are denied entry to public places like temples and restaurants and to share water sources with other higher castes. As a result, people from lower castes are poorer, more illiterate, undernourished and have less access to health facilities than people belonging to other casts [45].

#### 2.1.7. Gender inequality

Nepal is ranked 119 out of 175 countries on the Gender-Related Development Index (GDI)<sup>2</sup> [46]. In most castes, women have lower social status and heavier workload than the men. The majority of the women are engaged in agriculture [47]. Due to low education and few training opportunities, the majority of the women are self- employed and have a low income job [46].

-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> GDP: measures achievements in life expectancy, educational attainment and adjusted real income but takes note of inequality in achievement between women and men.

Undernutrition among is high (24%) among the women in Nepal [3]. In addition, many women are suffering from mental illnesses due to early marriage, domestic violence or sexual abuse [34].

#### 2.1.8. Food security

Due to population growth and declining rates of agricultural growth, Nepal has been a food deficit country since 1990's [48]. Districts in the hills and the mountains are especially vulnerable to food insecurity. Forty- one out of 75 districts are categorized as food deficit [35] and 3.7 million people were food insecure in 2009 [33]. Natural disasters have destroyed the infrastructure, especially in the rural areas. As a result, farmers in the remote areas have little access to inputs like seeds and agricultural tools. The food, fuel and financial crisis starting in 2008, worsened the country's food situation. In addition, frequent natural disasters like the winter drought in 2009 lowered production of wheat and barley [49].

## 2.2. Health and nutrition situation in Nepal

#### 2.2.1. The health situation in Nepal

Life expectancy has gone up among the males from 42 years (in 1990) to 62.9 years (in 2006) however is still among the lowest in South Asia. Female, life expectancy has gone up from 40 years (in 1971) to 63.7 years (in 2006) [50]. About one in 25 children dies during the first month. Infant mortality is among the highest in the world and neonatal mortality accounts for 54% of all deaths among children below five years. The ones who survive are vulnerable to diseases like diarrhoea and acute respiratory infectious which are leading causes of death in children below five years of age in Nepal [51].

Other threats to the child's health are vaccine preventable diseases like measles, tetanus and polio. All children below one year are offered the full course of routine immunization during the first year of life [25]. In addition to the routine immunization program, the government has successfully managed to develop a biannual vitamin A supplementation program linked with distribution of deworming tablets [3].

## 2.2.2. Overview of nutrition situation issues in Nepal

Despite some improvements, undernutrition is one of the most important health problems in Nepal [3]. The 2006 Nepal Demographic and Health Study (NDHS) reported stunting, wasting and underweight to be 49%, 13% and 39% respectively. Especially high rates of wasting was found in the Terai (17%), Mid- and Far Western hill districts (16%) and in some

conflict areas in the Terai (21%) [3]. The 2006 NDHS demonstrated that the majority of the children in Nepal were breastfed. Thirty five percent of the children were given breast milk within one hour of birth. The duration of exclusively breastfeeding was inadequate. At 4-5 months of age, only 31% of the children were exclusively breastfed. Three in four of the children aged 6-9 months received complementary food. The dietary diversity of the food was not adequate [3].

# 2.3. The study area: The Far West Terai

The study areas, Kanchanpur and Kailali districts, are both districts in the Far West Terai of Nepal (figure 3). Kanchanpur and Kailali have the same characteristics in culture, health and livelihood [3] and are therefore not separated in the discussion. Kanchanpur borders to Kailali district in the east, Dadeldhura district in the north, and India in the south and west (figure 3). In Kanchanpur, 377 899 people are spread over 60 158 households [52]. Kanchanpur is among the most populated districts in Nepal, with a density of 235 inhabitants/ km² [41]. The other study area, Kailali, is in addition to Kanchanpur and Dadeldhura bordering to Bardiya and Surkhet in the east and Doti in the north. There are 616 697 people living in Kailali [52].

Figure 3: Map of Nepal and the study areas [3]

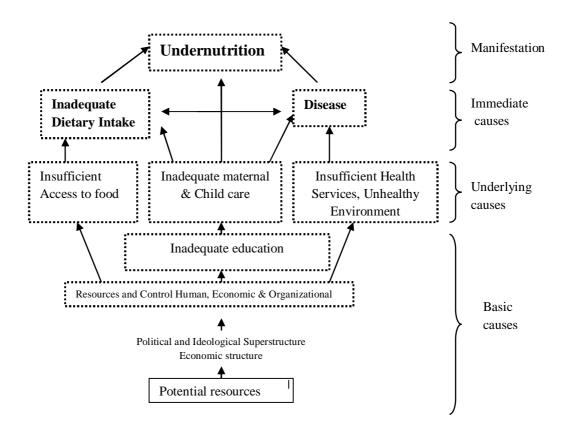
# **NEPAL**



UNICEF- Nepal supports programs in the Far- West Terai. Among the programs are Emergency Wash, HIV& AIDS, Child Protection and WASH. The only Health and Nutrition programs in this area are the Expanded Programme on Immunization and the Vitamin A and Deworming programme [53]. In case of an emergency like floods or a diarrhoea outbreak, medicines like oral dehydration salts (ORS), zinc tablets and mosquito nets to the people in need are provided by UNICEF [54]. Besides the programs of UNICEF, programs like Action Against Malnutrition through Agriculture (AAMA) is currently running in Kailali district. AAMA aims to improve the nutritional status of lactating women and children below two years of age. Their activities include workshops about micro- nutrient rich foods and how it can be grown in their own garden. They also teach about breastfeeding, complementary feeding, nutritional care during illness, maternal nutrition and hygiene [55].

#### **CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND OBJECTIVES**

Figure 4: Conceptual framework of the causes of undernutrition. Adopted from UNICEF conceptual framework (1990)



The main theoretical tool used for this survey was a model adopted from the UNICEF conceptual framework (Figure 4). The dotted boxes in figure 4 represent the focus areas of this thesis. The remaining boxes will not be discussed in this thesis.

The aim of the present study will be explored on the basis of the following objectives:

- 1. Determine the socio economic situation of the household
- 2. Assess the nutritional status among children 0-59 months by sex and age
- 3. Assess the dietary intake among children 0-23 months by assessing the breastfeeding practices and the intake of complementary foods
- 4. Describe the most prevalent diseases and care during illness among children 0-59 months
- 5. Assess the households' coping mechanisms related to food insecurity
- 6. Assess the association between stunting and selected background factors

The socio economic status of the household will first be presented in order to get some background information about the household. Thereafter, the nutritional status of the children will be presented. In regard to the underlying causes, both disease and inadequate dietary intake will be addressed. Breastfeeding and feeding of young children are defined as important elements of the concept of "care". However, in the present study, breastfeeding and young child feeding will be discussed in regard to inadequate dietary intake. Among the underlying causes, coping mechanisms related to food security, care during illness and prevention of diseases are the main issues discussed. Regarding the last objective, stunting was chosen to be the dependent variable because it is the most prevalent form for undernutrition in Nepal. Stunting represents poor growth and have serious impact on the health of the child. Association between stunting and variables that are assumed to have long-term impact on stunting will be identified.

#### **CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY**

#### 4.1. Study design

A cross- sectional study was carried out by UNICEF and other partners in the Far- West Terai of Nepal in September 2009.

#### 4.1.1. Sampling procedure

In the present study, a two staged cluster sampling was employed. Nutrisurvey software was used to calculate the sample size using the latest available data on undernutrition. Thirty clusters within each district and 25 households within each cluster was visited. Within the household, one child below five years was randomly selected. Additional 5 clusters were randomly selected, but were only used if there were not enough children in the selected clusters. Total sample size in the present survey was 1500 households representing 1500 children.

In the first stage, clusters<sup>3</sup> were randomly selected based on Probability Proportional to Size (PPS) using the Nutrisurvey software. In the second stage, the households within each cluster were selected using random systematic sampling procedure. A household was defined as persons routinely sharing food from the same cooking pot and living in the same household. Arriving in the field, the enumerators got an updated list of all the households in the cluster from the leader of the cluster. The sampling interval was found by dividing the total number of households in the cluster by the total number of households required. The first household was randomly selected within the sampling interval by drawing a random number between 1 and the sampling interval. Within the household, all children below 5 years of age that are living in the household were listed and one child was randomly selected. The next household was found by adding the sampling interval to the first household that was selected. This process continued until 25 households were visited [56].

17

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Clusters are the same as wards. Clusters will be used throughout this thesis

#### 4.1.2. Inclusion criteria and particular cases

In this study, the mother was considered to be the key respondent. If the household members were not present when the survey team visited the household, the team had to return to the household. Each household could be visited up to three times in an effort to identify household members unless logistical constraints prohibited the amount of time spent in a cluster. A household was skipped and not replaced if the members of the household had left the house permanently or were not expected to return before the survey team had left the cluster. Abandoned or empty houses were not counted as households because they did not meet the definition of a household.

#### 4.1.3. Ethical consideration

Research clearance was obtained from the Ministry of Health and Population (MoHP) and the district leaders in Kailali and Kanchanpur. All eligible subjects were informed about the study before they were asked to participate in the survey. Informed oral consent from the parents of the children in the study was given since many of them were illiterate. Assurance was made that participation was voluntary and that there would be no negative consequences if they decided not to participate in the survey.

#### 4.2. The fieldworkers

#### 4.2.1. Training of the fieldworkers

Nepali Technical Assistance Group (NTAG) was contracted to do the data collection. The fieldworkers attended three days training. Representatives from World Food Program (WFP), UNICEF and Nepali Technical Assistance Group (NTAG) were participating in the training. Two days of the training were spent on discussion of the objectives of the study, the sampling procedure, the questionnaire and anthropometric measurements. On the third day of the training, the enumerators got practical experience in the field. The field exercise included testing of the sampling procedure, the questionnaire and the anthropometric measurements. In total, 40 enumerators did the data collection with two people in each team. There were both male and female enumerators and all of them were Nepalese. The majority of the enumerators had collected data in previous surveys led by NTAG.

#### 4.2.2. Working in the field

The enumerators started the data collection at about 8 am and finished at 16 pm. The interview and the anthropometric measurements lasted for about 45 minutes. Each

questionnaire was checked by the team leader. Anthropometric information was faxed to UNICEF- Nepal for preliminary analysis.

#### 4.3. Data collection tools

#### 4.3.1. Anthropometry

Anthropometric measurements (height, weight and MUAC) were obtained from all children below 5 years of age. The weight was taken using a Uniscale and recorded to the nearest 0.1kg. The weight of the child was measured when he/she was standing on the Uniscale, nude or with a minimum of clothes. If the child was not able to stand on the scale by her/his own, the mother's weight was taken first and then, mother's weight while carrying the infant was taken. The child's weight was found by subtracting the mother's weight from mother's weight while carrying the child. The scales were checked for accuracy before taken to the field. The height board was at least 130 cm long and made of hardwood. The height was recorded to the nearest 0.1cm. The height was taken in a lying position for children with a height less than 85 cm. The children with a height above 85 cm were measured in standing position. Mid arm upper circumference (MUAC) was measured on children aged 6-59 months. MUAC of the left arm was taken and recorded to the nearest mm. The enumerator located the mid-point between the shoulder and the tip of the elbow with the arm bent. The measurement was taken at this mid point with the arm extended and relaxed. A cut- off 115 mm was used to distinguish the well nourished with the children that were severely wasted (also called severely acute malnourished) [57]. MUAC, height and weight were taken twice and the mean was calculated. The statistic program, EPI info, did the same calculation in order to check for accuracy. An event calendar was used to state the age as accurate as possible. Age was written down with "day/month/year" and "age in months". The date was converted to months and compared with "age in months" for consistency. The Nepali date was converted into English date.

The severity of undernutrition was assessed using three indicators: weight-for- age, weight-for- height and height-for – age. The new growth standard developed by the World Health Organization was used [58]. Z- scores for stunting, wasting and underweight were obtained using Nutrisurvey software. Stunting, wasting and underweight were transformed to categorical variables following. The children falling below -2 z-scores were classified as stunted, wasted or underweight. Children with z-scores above -2 were categorized as not stunted/ wasted/underweight. Children with z-score below -3 z- score were categorized as

severely stunted/wasted/underweight. The ones with z-scores above -3 were coded categorized as not severely stunted/wasted/underweight.

#### 4.3.2. Structured questionnaire

Face to face structured interviews were conducted by a team of trained enumerators in the national language Nepali. The questionnaire was developed in English and translated into Nepalese, the main language spoken in the area. The questionnaire contained 121 questions which were precoded. The particular questions will be referred to as a "Q" and a number whenever attention is directed to the particular question. For the majority of the questions, the respondents were told to give only one answer. However multiple answers were also possible (Q70 and Q89). All of the questions had fixed categories, however the category "other" was used if the listed alternatives were inappropriate do describe the respondent's opinion or behaviour.

The questionnaire included six parts: A) and B) Socio- economic status, C) Coping mechanisms, D) Infant and young child feeding, E) Prevention and control of diseases and F) Anthropometric measurements (appendix 3). The different sections of the questionnaire will now be described, however only questions which were relevant for this thesis will be discussed.

#### A+ B) Socio economic status

Questions concerning socio- economic status of the household were addressed in Q1 to Q18. The questions were based on a questionnaires from DHS [3] and Concern Worldwide [59]. The socio economic indicators included head of household (Q1), caste (Q2), the number of children living in the household (Q5) and level of education (Q6- Q7). In addition, information about the construction materials of the house (Q8-Q9), rooms in the house (Q10), total area of land (Q11-Q12), domestic animals (Q13- Q14), assets (Q17), and transport facilities (Q18) were obtained. Based on these indicators a wealth index was developed. Cut off values were developed and new variables containing yes/no responses were employed (see appendix 2 for details about the development of the wealth index). As in DHS [3], a wealth index of five categories was developed (lowest, second, middle, fourth and highest wealth category). The lowest wealth category included households that responded "no" on all of the socio economic variables. The second wealth category included households that scored "yes" on one or two of the variables. The third wealth category included households

responding "yes" on three or four of the selected variables. The fourth wealth category included households that reported "yes" on five or six of the variables. The highest wealth category included households which reported "yes" on seven or more of the variables included in the wealth index. In addition, the types of livelihoods (Q28) were obtained and used to describe the socio economic status of the household.

#### C) Coping mechanisms

Food security was addressed by asking about the households' use of coping mechanisms (Q31-Q54). Coping mechanisms are used to assess the household's vulnerability in relation to food and economy during times of hardship [60]. In the present questionnaire, coping mechanisms like reduction in the size of meals (Q31), reduction in the number of meals (Q33), spending of their savings on food (Q37), collection of wild foods (Q39), restricted consumption by adults (Q41), consumption of seed stocks (Q43), whether the children have been taken out of school to work (Q45), begging for food (Q47), borrowing food (Q49), out migration (Q51), sale of land (Q52), sale of household assets (Q53) and sale of agricultural assets (Q54) were included. The questions were based on previous food security surveys held by World Food Program (WFP) [61] and the Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) [62]. Like the HFIAS questionnaire, a 4 weeks recall period was employed to assess the coping mechanisms in the present study [62]. In the thesis, only coping mechanisms with yes/no categories were included. Based on Q31-Q54, two categories (food secure and food insecure households) were developed. The households which had not experienced any of the 13 food security related questions were categorized as food secure households. The household which responded that they had experienced one or more of the conditions were categorized as food insecure.

#### D) Infant and young child feeding

In the present survey, breastfeeding and feeding of young children was assessed using the Infant and Young child feeding (IYCF) indicators developed by WHO [15]. The DHS was used as the basis for the question formulation [3] (see appendix 1 for definition of the variables). The questions included exclusive breastfeeding (Q73), breastfeeding (Q69, Q64, Q68) and complementary feeding (Q78-Q80). The majority of the questions were asked with a 24 hour recall period. The only exception was the question regarding "ever breastfed" (Q64) and "how long after birth did you start breastfeeding" (Q68). Additional questions

from the DHS [3] were added to the questionnaire, like reasons for not breastfeeding (Q70) and liquid given immediately after birth (Q63).

#### E) Prevention and control of diseases

Prevention and control of diseases among children were covered in Q88-Q104. The mother was asked to report the type of illness(es) that the child had 2 weeks prior to the study (Q89), nutritional care during illness (Q90-92) and health seeking behaviour (Q96). Further information about the coverage of vitamin A capsules (Q98), deworming tablets (Q99) and vaccination (Q103-Q104) was obtained. These questions were based on questions from Concern-Worldwide [59] and DHS [3].

#### F) Anthropometry

The last part of the questionnaire contained questions regarding anthropometry (Q105-Q121). This section included child's age (Q111), sex (Q112), height (Q118-Q119), weight (Q116-Q117) and MUAC (Q114-Q115).

# 4.3.3. Dependent and independent variables

Table 2: Variables used in the study, organized according to UNICEF conceptual framework on the causes of undernutrition

Causal	Problem	Variable of measurements <sup>1</sup>				
	Undernutrition	<-2 weight for height				
MANIFESTATION	Undernutrition	<-2 height for age				
		<-2 weight for age				
		Stunting (z- score) <sup>2</sup>				
		Exclusive breastfeeding				
	Inadequate dietary intake	Breastfeeding				
IMMEDIATE CAUSES		Complementary foods				
	Disease	Type of illness				
	Inadequate maternal and child	Nutritional care when the child was sick				
	care	Health seeking behaviour when the child was				
UNDERLYING CAUSES		sick				
	Insufficient health service,	Vaccination				
	unhealthy environment	Vitamin A supplements and Deworming tablets				
	Insufficient food security	Coping strategies				
		Head of the household				
	Education, resources and	Number of children below 5 years in the				
BASIC CAUSES	control of resources (human,	household				
	economic and organizational)	Caste				
		Mothers' education level				
		Fathers' educational level				
		Maternal work				
		Hours spent on work by the mother				
		Livelihood				
		Wealth index				

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The majority of the variables were categorical

Table 2 gives an overview of the dependent and independent variables that were used in the analysis. Undernutrition (stunting, wasting and underweight) was the dependent variable, and the other variables were independent variables.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Stunting was continuous but only used in objective number 6.

## 4.4. Statistical analysis

Data was entered into EPI INFO and transferred to SPSS 16 (The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) for analysis. Microsoft Excel 2003 was used to create the graphs and histograms. In SPSS, frequency checks were run for missing values. Extreme values were checked with the questionnaire. Wasting with z- scores below -5 SD and above +5 SD, stunting with z- score lower than -6 SD and above 6 SD, and underweight with z- scores below -6 SD and above 5 SD, where counted as outrange values and excluded from the analysis [63].

Independent-samples t-test was used to test for associations between age and undernutrition because age was found to be normally distributed. Stunting was not normally distributed, therefore, the median was presented. In order to test for association between two or more categorical variables, the Chi-Square test and Pearson rho test was used [64]. Categorical data was presented as percentage and number in each category (See table 2). In the analysis, a 5% significance level was used to test for association and differences (two- sided). Stunting was the dependent variable in a two-step model using linear regression analysis. Linear regression analyses were used for assessing the association between stunting and selected long term variables like vaccination status, food security index, and socio economic status. All covariates showing linear association (p<0.1) were included in a preliminary model. Multivariate analysis was used to verify if the identified determinants remained significant after controlling for confounding factors. Variables contributing to the variation in the model (p<0.1) were included in the final model. Dummy variables were developed when the categorical variables had more the two categories. Analysis of the residuals was performed in order to examine how well the model predicted the dependent variable. In the final model interactions between the independent variables were checked for.

# **CHAPTER 5: RESULTS**

## 5.1. Socio economic status of the household

Table 3: Socio economic status of the household (n=1500)

Socio economic indicator	%	(n)
Children below 5 living in the household (n=1500)		
1 child	60	(898)
2 children	32	(486)
More than 2 children	8	(114)
Head of the household ( $n=1500$ )		
Father	35	(633)
Grandfather	42	(531)
Mother	9	(132)
Grandmother	9	(132)
Other	5	(72)
$Caste(n=1500)^{1}$		
Low caste: Dalit	17	(250)
Middle caste: Disadvantage janajatis	43	(658)
High caste: Relatively advantaged janajatis/upallow jatis	40	(592)
Education: father(n=1499)		
None	16	(242)
Primary level	4	(52)
Lower secondary/informal	24	(352)
Secondary level	42	(629)
Higher secondary	9	(135)
Intermediate and above	5	(79)
Education: mother(n=1499)		
None	35	(527)
Primary level	18	(268)
Lower secondary/informal	15	(228)
Secondary level	26	(393)
Higher secondary	4	(62)
Intermediate and above	2	(21)
Livelihoods $(n=1497)^2$		
Crop farming/ livelihood farming	45	660
Remittance/assistance programs		669
Regular employment/trade business	20	309
Casual wage labour/other employment	29	277
Casual wage labout/other employment	16	339
Mother with paid work (n=1498)		
Yes	18	(270)
No	82	(1128)
Hours spent on paid work by the mother $(N=267)^4$	_	(1.4)
0,5- 3,5 hours	5	(14)
4-7,5 hours	32	(86)
More than 8 hours	63	(167)
Wealth index <sup>3</sup>	_	(4.00)
Lowest	7	(109)
Second	39	(581)
Middle	34	(513)
Fourth	16	(242)
Highest	4	(55)

<sup>1</sup> Three categories of castes were developed based on the Nepali caste pyramid

 $<sup>2\</sup> Livelihood: the\ households'\ main\ source\ of\ income.\ 4\ main\ categories\ of\ livelihoods\ were\ developed.$ 

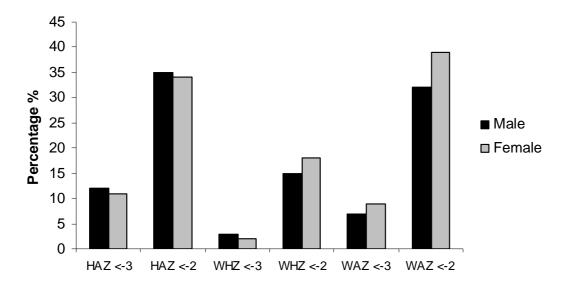
<sup>3</sup> Wealth index was based on socio economic variables (see appendix 2). Lowest wealth: reported "no" on all of the variables. Second: reported "yes" on 1-2 of the socio economic variables. Middle: reported "yes" on 3-4 of the socio economic variables. Fourth: reported "yes" on 5-6 of the variables. Highest: reported "yes" on  $\geq 7$  of the variables.

Information about the socio economic status of the household is presented in Table 3. Eight percent (n=114) of the households had more than two children below 5 years. Seventy-seven percent (n=1164) of the households were headed by the father or the grandfather of the child. Seventeen percent belonged to the Dalit group. Forty three percent (n=658) belonged to the disadvantaged janajatis and disadvantaged non dalit caste group. Forty percent belonged to the relatively advantaged group or the upallow caste. The father of the child was more likely to have education (84%, n=1257) compared to the mother of the child (65%, n=972). The level of education was higher among the fathers, where 42% (n=629) had completed secondary level compared to 6% (n=393) of the mothers. Households of low caste were less likely to have parents with education compared to higher casts (<.001). Among the mothers with education, 9% (n=128) were dalits and 56% (n=844) were non dalits (<.001). Eighteen percent of the women had paid work (n=270) and 63% (n=167) of the women worked more than 8 hours a day. In the Far West Terai, the main source of income was farming (crop or livelihood farming) (45%, n=669). Twenty percent (n=309) reported that the main source of income was remittance or support from assistance programs. The wealth quintile showed that a high proportion of the households (73%, n=1094) belonged to the second or middle wealth index. Only 4 % (n= 55) of the households were of the highest wealth category.

#### 5.2. Nutritional status of the children

A total number of 1500 children were included in the survey. The mean ( $\pm$  SD) age of children was  $28\pm$  15 months and slightly more children in the sample were male (54%, n=692). The percentage distribution of stunting, wasting and underweight according to sex is presented in figure 5. The percentage distribution of stunting, wasting and underweight according to age is presented in table 4 and figure 6.

Figure 5: Percentage distribution of stunting  $(HAZ)^{1}$ , wasting  $(WHZ)^{2}$  and underweight  $(WAZ)^{3}$  in children 0-59 months according to sex (n=1484)



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Height for age z- score (< -3SD and <-2 SD).

Table 4: Percentage distribution of stunting, wasting and underweight in children 0-59 months according to age (n=1484)

	Stunting (HAZ)			Wasting (WHZ)			Underweight (WAZ)		
Age (months)	<-3 z- score % (n)	<-2 z- score % (n)	Median score (SD) <sup>1</sup>	<-3 z- score % (n)	<-2 z- score % (n)	Median score (SD) <sup>2</sup>	<-3 z-score % (n)	<-2 z- score % (n)	Median score (SD) <sup>3</sup>
0-5	1 (1)	9 (11)	-0.2	3 (3)	14 (16)	-0.7	3 (3)	10 (11)	-0.6
6-11	7 (10)	19 (29)	-1.0	1 (2)	12 (8)	-1.1	7 (10)	27 (41)	-1.3
12-23	11 (38)	32 (11)	-1.4	5 (16)	23 (78)	-1.2	9 (31)	34 (116)	-1.7
24-35	13 (49)	40 (151)	-1.7	2 (8)	15 (57)	-1.2	9 (34)	39 (147)	-1.8
36-47	16 (51)	42 (137)	-1.8	1 (2)	15 (48)	-1.0	8 (26)	42 (134)	-1.8
48-59	10 (18)	44 (81)	-1.9	2 (3)	14 (25)	-1.2	6 (10)	39 (71)	-1.8
Total	11 (167)	35 (520)	-1.6	2 (34)	16 (242)	-1.7	8 (114)	35 (520)	-1.1

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Median of HAZ (continuous), p<. 05

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Weight for height z-score (< -3SD and <-2SD).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Weight for age z-score (<-3 SD and <-2SD).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Statistically differences (p<.05) between underweight (<-2 SD) and sex.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Median of WHZ (continuous)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Median of WAZ (continues), p<.05

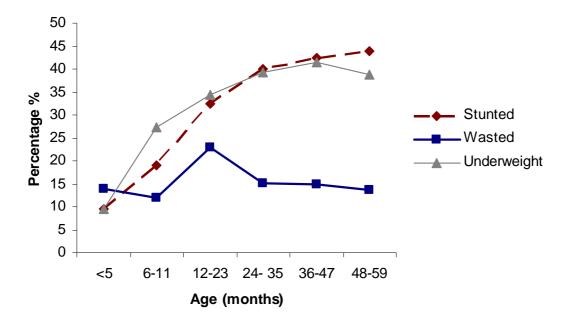


Figure 6: Stunting, wasting and underweight in children 0-59 months according to age (n=1484)

## **5.2.1. Stunting**

Approximately 35% (n=520) of the children were stunted (<-2 SD height for age) and 11% (n=167) were severely stunted (<-3 SD height for age) (table 4). There was no significant difference between males and females in stunting. The mean (SD) age in months of the stunted children was 32.0 (13.5) and 25.7, (15.7), p<0.01, of the non-stunted children. Children aged 48-59 months (44%, n=81) had the highest level of stunting. Severe stunting increased with age and was highest among the children aged 36 to 47 months (16%, n=51) (table 4 and figure 6).

## 5.2.2. Wasting

Sixteen percent (n=242) were wasted (<-2SD weight for height) and 2% (n=34) were severely wasted (<-3 SD weight for height) (table 3). No significant difference was found between sex and wasting. There was no significant differences in mean (SD) age in months among the children who were wasted 26.9, (14.5) and those who were not wasted 28.1 (15.4), p= 0.26.

 Table 5: Mid - Upper Arm Circumference¹

 MUAC ≤115 mm
 1% (n=10)

 MUAC>115 mm
 99% (n=1373)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Children with a MUAC ≤ 115 mm are categorized as severely malnourished/ severe wasted

Table 5 shows that the majority (99%, n=1373) of the children had a Mid- Upper- Arm Circumference (MUAC) which was above the cut off level of 115 mm. Only 1% of the children (n=10) were below the cut off.

## 5.2.3. Underweight

Thirty- five percent (n=520) of the children were underweight (<-2 SD weight for age) and 8 % (n=114) were severely underweight (<-3 SD weight for age) (table 3). Underweight (<-2 SD) was more prevalent among the female children (38%, n=265), compared to the male children (32%, n=255) (p=.008) (figure 4). The mean (SD) age in months of the children with underweight was 30.9 (13.9) compared to the non- underweight children 26.4 (15.7), (p<0.01). Table 4 and figure 6 show that the highest prevalence of underweight was found among the children aged 36 to 47 months (42%, n=134). The highest prevalence of severe underweight was found among the children aged 12 to 35 months (18%, n=65).

# 5.3. Infant and young feeding practices

Table 6: Infant and young child feeding practices among children 0-23 months (n=1500)

Variables	%	(n)
Exclusive breastfeeding		
Exclusive breastfeeding: 0-5 months (n=113)	77	(87)
Breastfeeding		
Ever breastfed the child (n=609)	99.8	(608)
Initiating of breastfeeding $(n=610)^{1}$ Within 1 hour after birth	68	(414)
Given other liquid than breast milk immediately after birth (n=584)	5	(29)
Types of liquids other than breast milk given immediately after birth (n=29)		
Honey	48	(14)
Sugar water	3	(1)
Ghee	3	(1)
Water	0	(0)
Other liquid given	44	(13)
Continued breastfeeding at 1 year(n=114) <sup>2</sup>	98	(112)
Continued breastfeeding at 2 years (n=125) <sup>3</sup>	95	(118)
Reasons given for stop breastfeeding (n=12)		
New pregnancy	36	(4)
Not enough breast milk	9	(1)
Child refused	9	(1)
Start using contraceptives	0	(0)
Workload	0	(0)
Child ill/weak	0	(0)
Nipple/breast problems	0	(0)
Weaning age/ started to give complementary food	0	(0)
Other reasons	55	(6)
Age- appropriate breastfeeding $(n=613)^4$	91	(548)

Complementary food	%	(n)
Introduction of complementary foods <sup>5</sup>		
0-2 months (n=56)	0	(0)
3-5 months (n=56)	14	(8)
6-8 months (n=79)	80	(63)
9-11 months (n=72)	97	(70)
12-23 months (n=341)	96	(328)
Meal frequency <sup>6</sup>		
6-8 months receiving at least 2 meals a day (n=63)	70	(44)
9-23 months receiving at least 3 meals a day (n=396)	60	(228)
6-23 non breastfed receiving at least 4 meals a day (n=10)	50	(5)
Dietary diversity (n=506)		
Grain, roots and tubers	93	(458)
Legumes and nuts	62	(305)
Dairy products	42	(205)
Flesh foods	8	(37)
Egg	4	(17)
Vitamin A rich fruit and vegetables	19	(95)
Other fruits and vegetables	13	(63)
Minimum dietary diversity ≥ 4 food groups <sup>7</sup>		
6 -11 months (n=134)	8	(12)
12 -17 months (n= 156)	15	(25)
18 -23 months (n=177)	20	(36)
Liquid given from a bottle with a nipple (n=608)	6	(35)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Put the child to the breast within 1 hour after birth <sup>2</sup> Children aged 12-15 months who were breastfed <sup>3</sup> Children aged 20-23 months who were breastfed

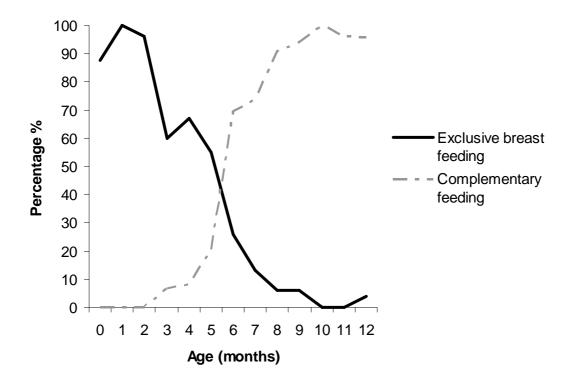
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Age appropriate feeding: Infants 0-5 months of age who received only breast milk during the previous day and children 6-23 months who received breast milk, as well as solid, semi- solid or soft solid foods, during the previous day

<sup>5</sup>Complementary food: solid, semi- solid or soft foods

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Minimum meal frequency for children aged 6-8 months (2 times), 9-23 months (3 times) and 6-23 months (4 times)

WHO recommend that children aged 6-23 months receive food from at least 4 food groups out of 7 food groups (grains/roots/ tubers, legumes/nuts, dairy products, flesh foods, eggs, vitamin A rich fruits and vegetables, other fruits and vegetables)

Figure 7: Percentage of infants and young children 0-23 months who are exclusively breastfed and receiving complementary food (n=613)



## 5.3.1. Exclusive breastfeeding

Table 6 shows that 77% (n=87) of the children below 6 months were exclusively breastfed. The prevalence of exclusive breastfeeding was high during the first two months of age, but decreased rapidly from 2-6 months of age. Among the children aged 5 months, 55% (n=16) were exclusively breastfed (figure 7).

#### 5.3.2. Breastfeeding

Nearly all of the children below 2 years had been breastfed at some time (99.8%, n=608). Sixty- eight percent (n=414) of the children were put to the mothers breast within one hour after the birth. Five percent (n=29) received foods or liquids other than breast milk immediately after birth. Among these children, 48% (n=14) were fed with honey. The reasons for stop breastfeeding were new pregnancy (33%, n=4), not sufficient breast milk (8%, n=1) and that the child refused to drink breast milk (8%, n=1) (Table 6).

## 5.3.3. Complementary feeding

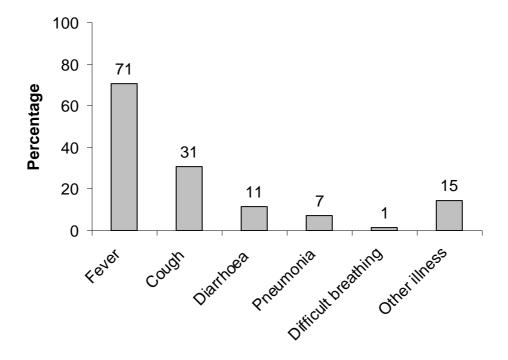
Fourteen percent (n=8) of the children 3-5 months of age received complementary food, and 80 % (n=63) of the children aged 6 to 8 months received complementary food (Table 6).

Among the breastfed children aged 6-8 months, 70% (n=44) were fed according to the recommendation of at least 2 meals a day. Among the breastfed children 9-23 months, 60% (n=228) were given the at least 3 meals a day. Among the non- breast fed children aged 6-23 months, 50% (n=5) received at least 4 meals a day. The most common types of complementary food were grains, roots and tubers (93%, n=458), legumes and nuts (62%, n=305) and dairy products (42%, n=205). Only 8% (n=12) of the children aged 6 to 11 months were given food from at least four out of seven food groups. Among children 18- 23 months, 20 % (n=36) of the children were fed according to the recommendations of four food groups a day (Table 6).

#### 5.4. Disease

# 5.4.1. Percentage distribution of disease among children 0-59 months of age

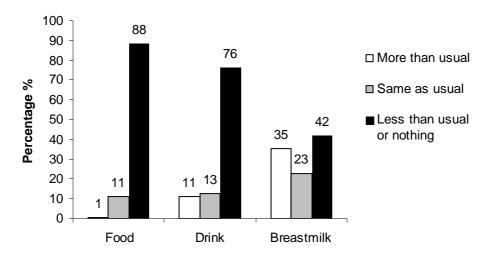
Figure 8: Percentage distribution of disease among children 0-59 months two weeks preceding the study (n=574)



The percentage distribution of disease among children 0-59 months is presented in figure 8. Thirty- eight percent (n=574) of the children below 5 years had been sick. Among the sick children, seventy- one percent (n=406) had fever, 11% (n=65) had diarrhoea and 31% (n=177) had cough. No significantly differences were found between sex and disease.

## 5.4.2. Nutritional care of children during illness (0-59 months)

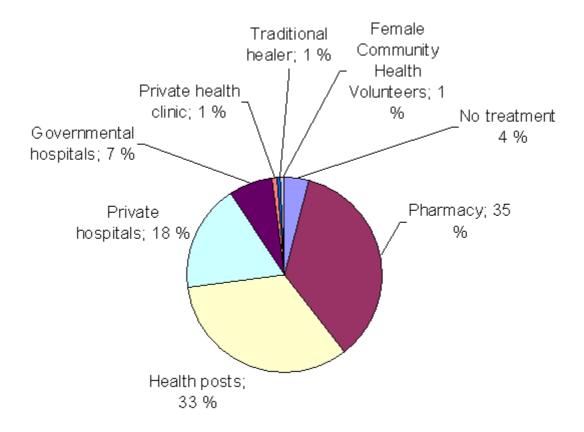
Figure 9: Nutritional care of children during illness (0-59 months)



The nutritional care of children (0-59 months) during illness is presented in figure 9. Eighty-eight percent received less food than usual or nothing during the illness period (88%, n=476). Seventy six percent (n=414) received less amount of liquid than usual or nothing. Among the breastfed children (0-23 months), 35% (n= 86) were breastfed more than usual and 42% (n=108) were breast fed less than usual or given nothing. There was no significant difference between sex and nutritional care during illness.

## 5.4.3. Health seeking behaviour during illness (0-59 months)

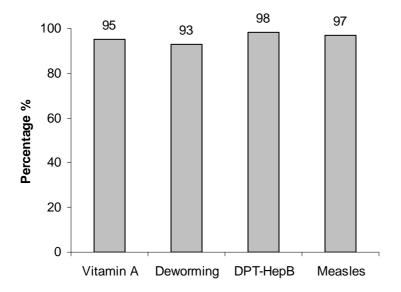
Figure 10: Health seeking behaviour (0-59 months) (n=444)



The health seeking behaviour during illness is shown in figure 10. Ninety six percent (n=431) of the sick children were taken for treatment. No significantly difference was found between sex and the health seeking behaviour. Thirty six percent was brought to the pharmacy (n=156) and 33% (n=147) were brought to the health post. One percent (n=2) of the children were brought to traditional healers.

#### 5.4.4. Prevention of diseases

Figure 11: Percentage of children 0-59 who received vitamin A capsules, deworming tablets, DPT- HepB vaccination or measles vaccination among children 0-59 months (n=1500)



The percentage of children who received vitamin A capsules, deworming tablets, DPT- HepB vaccination and measles vaccinations is shown in figure 11. The majority of the children above 6 months received vitamin A capsules (95%, n=1202) and most of the children above 12 months (93%, n=1046) received deworming tablets 6 months prior to the study. The figure also shows that 98% (n=1439) of the children aged 0-59 months had received DPT- HepB (diphtheria, pertussis and tetanus Hepatitus B). Ninety- seven percent (n= 1237) of the children above 9 months had received the measles vaccination.

# 5.5. Coping mechanisms related to household food insecurity

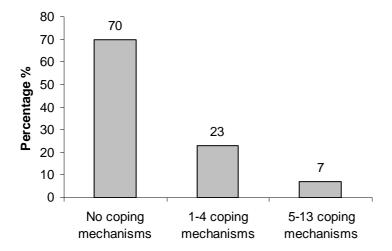
Table 7: Proportion of households that had used different coping mechanisms related to food insecurity 4 weeks prior to the study

Different coping mechanisms <sup>1</sup>	%	(n)	
Have to eat smaller meals? (n=1500)	11	(170)	
Have to eat fewer meals a day? (n=1500)	11	(158)	
Spend savings on food? (n=1500)	16	(240)	
Collect wild food due to shortage of food? (n= 1500)	4	(66)	
Restricted adult food intake? (n=1499)	10	(137)	
Consume seed stocks held for the next season? (n=1488)	6	(75)	
Taken children out of school to work? (n=1496)	1	(15)	
Beg for food? (n=1499)	5	(76)	
Borrowed food? (n=1500)	20	(297)	
Outmigration (n=1500)	3	(44)	
Sold land? (n=1490)	0	(0)	
Sold agricultural assets? (n=1495)	1	(21)	
Sold household assets? (n=1500)	1	(10)	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The respondent was asked if the household had used any of the 13 coping mechanisms (yes/no) due to food shortage

The proportions of households that had used any of the different coping strategies related to food insecurity are shown in Table 7. Eleven percent (n=170) of the households had reported to have eaten smaller meals and 11% (n=158) had eaten fewer meals the last month due to food shortage. Every fifth (n=294) household had borrowed food the last month.

Figure 12: Percentage distribution of the number of coping mechanisms that were used in the household (n=1500)



Based on the different coping mechanisms in table 7, a new index with three categories of coping mechanisms was developed. Figure 12 shows that 70% (n=1051) of the households did not use any of the coping mechanisms and 23 % (n=337) had used 1-4 coping mechanisms. Seven percent (n=112) had used at least five of the selected coping mechanisms. No households used all of 13 coping mechanisms.

# 5.7. Determinants of stunting

Multivariate analyses were used to identify which factors that explained the variation in stunting (Table 8).

Table 8: Univariate and multivariate regression analysis: the probability of being stunted (n=1498). Beta (B) and 95% Confidence Interval (95% CI).

	Univariate			Multiva		
Variable	В	95% CI	P- value	В	95% CI	P- value
Disease prevention						
Vitamin A 1	06	-0.36,-0.24	.677			
Measles <sup>2</sup>	73	1,-0.46	.000*	70	-1.42,0.02	.058
Deworming tablets <sup>3</sup>	08	33, 0.18	.175			
DPT- HepB <sup>4</sup>	88	-1.43, -0.32	.002*	23	-2.51,2.06	.845
Food security						
Food security index <sup>5</sup>	.33	0.19, 0.47	.000*	.17	-0.21,0.54	.392
Socio economic status						
One child below 5 years <sup>6</sup>	05	027,0.01	.039*	.178	-0.49,0.13	.260
Education <sup>7</sup>						
Father with education	.21	0.03,0.39	.022*	12	-0.51,0.28	.558
Mother with education	.22	0.08, 0.35	.002*	06	-0.41, 0.28	.714
Maternal work						
Mother with paid work <sup>8</sup>	18	0.35,-0.01	.039*	67	-2.98, 1.64	.569
Mother work more than 8 h/day 9	51	-0.81,-0.21	.001*	47	-0.80, -0.15	.004*
Head of household						
Mother	Referen	ce				
Father	08	-0.21, 0.06	.255	.60	0.09, 1.10	.022*
Grandfather	.25	0.11, 0.38	.000*	.89	0.32,1.45	.002*
Grandmother	.01	-0.22,0.24	.952	.90	0.12,1.67	.024*
Other	01	-0.31,0.30	.952	.20	-0.65,1.07	.633
Caste						
Low caste	Referen	ce				
Middle Caste	38	0.25,0.51	.000*	.52	0.11,0.93	.013*
High caste	06	-0.20,0.07	.348	02	-0.51, 0.46	.926

Livelihood						
Crop farming	Reference	ce				
Remittance, assistance programs	31	-0.47,-0.15	.000*	.07	-0.45,0.59	.797
Regular employment	.26	0.09,0.43	.002*	.46	0.01,0.90	.045*
Casual employment and other	18	-0.36,0.00	.050*	.12	-0.37,0.61	.619
Wealth index						
Lowest Wealth	Reference	ce				
Middle Wealth	28	-0.41, -0.15	.000*	.19	-0.30,0.70	.445
Second Wealth	.15	0.02,0.29	.030*	.45	-0.11,1.01	.113
Fourth Wealth	.43	0.25,0.60	*000	.69	-0.02,1.39	.056
Highest Wealth	.46	0.11,0.81	.009*	.10	-0.22,2.44	.102
R <sup>2</sup>					0.24= 24%	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Vitamin A: 0 =no, 1=yes

Predictions for stunting were assessed in multiple regression models (Table 8). Variables that were significantly associated with stunting were identified. All variables showing linear association with stunting were entered into a preliminary model. In the final model variables that significantly added the variation were included: Households where the mother was working more than 8 hours/day had higher levels of stunting than households where the mother was working less than 8 hours/day -0.47 (CI: -0.80- -0.15). Households headed by the father, the grandfather or the grandmother, had respectively 0.60 (CI: 0.09- 1.10), 0.89 (CI: 0.32- 1.45) and 0.90 (CI: 0.12—1.67) z-score lower stunting than household headed by the mother. Households from the middle caste group had 0.52 z-score (CI: 0.11-0.93) lower stunting than households from the lowest caste group. Households which depended on regular employment had 0.46 z-score (CI: 0.01-0.90) lower stunting than households that depended on farming. These variables explained 24 % of the variation in stunting (figure 13).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Measles: 0= no, 1=yes

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Deworming tablets: 0=no, 1=yes

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> DPT- HepB: 0=no, 1=yes

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Food security index: 0 =food insecure, 1= food secure. Food insecure= used more than one coping mechanism.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Children the household: 0= less than 2 children below 5 years, 1= at least 2 children below 5 years

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Education: 0= no education, 1= education

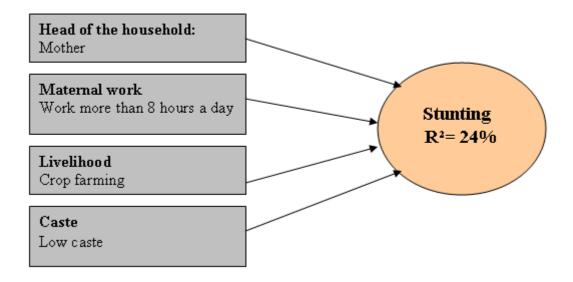
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Mother paid work: 0=no, 1=yes

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Mother work more than 8h/day: 0= no, 1=yes

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> Due to multiple categories, dummy variables were created. The presence of the variable gives score 1. All dummy variables were compared with the reference category.

 $<sup>^{11}</sup>$  \* = Significant, p<.05

Figure 13: Prediction model: variables that predict the probability of children 0-59 months being stunted



#### **CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION**

This discussion is divided into two sections. In the first section, results from the present study are discussed and compared with previous studies in Nepal and other low income countries. In the second section issues concerning the sample, study design, sampling procedure and data collection instruments will be discussed.

### **6.1.** Evaluation of the results

#### 6.1.1. Socio economic status of the household

This study confirmed that the main source of income in the Terai was farming [65]. According to the wealth index, most people were categorised as middle income households. However, a higher proportion of the households belonged to the higher castes.

### 6.1.2. Undernutrition

Undernutrition continues to be a major problem in Nepal. In the present study, 35%, 16% and 35% were stunted, wasted and underweight, respectively. According to WHO classification index, the levels of stunting was categorized as high (30-39.9%), and wasting ( $\geq 15\%$ ) and underweight ( $\geq 30\%$ ) were very high [66]. At the national level, the 2006 Nepal Demographic and Health Survey (NDHS) showed that 49% and 11% were stunted and underweight respectively. The present study showed lower prevalence of stunting and underweight compared to data from the 2006 NDHS. The prevalence of wasting had increased from 13% in 2006 [3] to 16% in the present study (2009). The 2006 NDHS showed that 43% were stunted, 20% were wasted and 41% were underweight in the Far West Terai [3]. Comparing the nutritional status in the Far West Terai in 2006 with present study in 2009, the nutritional situation among children below five years has improved. In the present study, the only difference in sex was found in underweight, where girls were more likely to be underweight than boys. These findings confirms previous findings from NDHS 2006 [3]. In NDHS 2002, girls were more stunted and underweight than the boys [67]. The present study showed that stunting and underweight increased with age. This results are in concordance with previous national studies from Nepal [3, 67] and India [68]. In the present study, wasting was highest (23%) among the children aged 12-23 months. However, other studies from Nepal [3] and India [68] have shown that children below 12 months have highest prevalence of wasting.

There are several possible explanations for high levels of wasting in the present study. First, the survey was employed in September when malaria is a particular threat. Second, Terai is particular vulnerable to political instability like strikes. This might affect the household's access to food. Third, poor hygiene and polluted drinking water might have caused disease like diarrhea and led to weight loss. And last, the health of the mother is likely to have an important effect on her child's nutritional situation. NDHS 2006 showed that the proportion of women that were moderately and severely wasted were higher in the Far West Terai (except from the central terai) compared to other subregions in Nepal [3]. Other studies have found that that the mother's nutritional status before and during pregnancy affects the health of the unborn child [83-84].

## 6.1.3. Inadequate dietary intake

#### **Exclusive Breastfeeding**

In the present study, 77% of the children below 6 months were exclusively breastfed the day prior to the study. The prevalence of exclusive breastfeeding was high compared to results from previous NDHS [3, 67]. In 2001, 68% were exclusively breastfed, and only 53% were exclusively breastfed in 2006 [3, 67]. The proportion of children being exclusive breastfed was higher than what was found in Asia (41%) and Africa (32%) [2].

#### **Breastfeeding**

The present study confirmed that breastfeeding is nearly universal in Nepal [3]. The percentage who initiated breastfeeding within one hour of birth (68%) was similar to previous findings from the Far-Western Terai (63%) but lower than the national level (35%) [3]. The proportion of mothers who initiated breastfeeding within one hour of birth was higher in the present study compared to studies from Asia (31%) and Africa (47%) [2].

In a country where undernutrition is high, appropriate breastfeeding practices are especially important. There are several possible explanations for high levels of breastfeeding and exclusive breastfeeding in Nepal. First, high levels of breastfeed children might be due to public campaigns which aim to educate the mothers about infant and young child feeding practices. Second, the mothers might be knowledgeable about child care because she has visited the Female Community Health Volunteers (FCHVs) or other health services. The FCHVs supports the women during pregnancy and gives advice about child health [69]. Third

women decide to breastfeed because it is cultural accepted and valued. A survey from Makawampur district in Nepal found that grandmothers supported early initiation of breastfeeding [70]. At last, lack of money might encourage the mother to breastfeed the child because she cannot find any other way to feed the child.

## **Complementary feeding**

This study showed that 14% mothers introduced complementary feeding before the child turned 6 months. The same feeding pattern was found in NDHS 2006 [3]. The proportion of children who received complementary food at 6-8 months was slightly higher in the present study (80%) compared to in the 2006 NDHS (72%) (children aged 6-9 months were assessed in 2006 NDHS) [3]. The proportion of children introduced to complementary food at 6-8 months of age was higher in the present study than in India (55%) [68] and in a survey which included several developing countries in Asia and Africa (58%) [2].

In the present study, 70% of the children aged 6-8 months and 60% of the children aged 9-23 months of age were fed the minimum times of complementary foods. Higher meal frequency was found in 2006 NDHS, where 84% of the children aged 6-23 months in the Far Western region received the minimum of meals a day [3]. In a national study from India, only 42% of the children aged 6-23 months received the minimum times of meals a day [68]. In the present study, the variety of food was not adequate. Many children had a Dietary Diversity Score (DDS) that was below four, meaning that the child received food from less than four food groups. The majority of the children aged 6-23 months received grains, roots and tubers, however few children received flesh foods. The low DDS confirms the findings from 2006 NDHS where only 36% of the breastfed children received the minimum of food groups (at least three food groups). Among the non breastfed children, 27% received food from the minimum of food groups (at least four food groups) [3]. Another study from Nepal found that only 12% of the children received foods from 5-7 food groups [71]. Studies have shown that the dietary diversity is lowest in Asia, intermediate in Africa and highest in Latin America [89-95]. There are several possible explanations for the poor diversity in the diet. The 2008/ 2009 winter drought might have caused poor summer harvest in the Terai. In addition, frequent rainfall, flooding and landslides might cause food shortage because of damage to the crops. There are also reasons to believe that the international food crisis which resulted in higher food prices forced the households to reduce the variety of food [33].

#### 6.1.4. Disease

In the present study, 38% of the children were sick 2 weeks prior to the study. The prevalence of fever (71%) was much higher than what has been reported of the Far West Terai of Nepal (13%) in 2006 NDHS [3]. The high prevalence of fever in this area might be due to malaria. Kanchanpur and Kailali are considered to be malaria affected districts and the transmission [72] is a particular threat in September when the survey was employed [73]. Another possible explanation for the high levels of child illnesses might be due to HIV and AIDS which are higher in the Terai region compared to other parts of Nepal [74]. Illness becomes particular threat to the child's health if the care that is given is inadequate. The present study found that 88% were fed less during the illness and 76% were given less food. The nutritional care during illness was far better in a survey from Bardiya in 2008 [59] where 38% were fed less or not given any food and 35% were given less or no liquids during the illness period. In the study from Bardiya, only information about care during diarrhea was assessed. Care during illness also includes health seeking behavior. In the present survey, 36% of the children were brought to the pharmacy to seek advice, treatment or to buy medications. Few children where brought to the governmental hospitals (8%). The mothers' decision to take the child to the pharmacy and not the governmental hospitals is determined by many factors. The respondent might take the child to the pharmacy for treatment because she did not perceive the illness as "serious enough" to visit the governmental hospitals. Other explanations for going to the pharmacy are long distance or high cost of treatment at the governmental hospitals. In our study only 1% of the sick children were brought to a traditional healer for treatment. A study from Kanchanpur found that a sick child would get traditional home treatment. If the treatment did not help, the child was brought to a traditional healer. If neither of these options helped, they would visit the Female Community Health Volunteer (FCHV) [30].

## 6.1.5. Coping mechanisms related to household food insecurity

A third of the households were food insecure in the present study. To borrow food and to spend savings on food were the most common practices. Within the Far- Western regions, the Hill and the Mountain districts are more food insecure than the Terai districts [75]. The difference within the Far West region might be due to higher food prices and poorer crops and frequent nature disasters [75]. The people living in Terai have better access to roads and markets, and therefore better access to food and health care [3].

## 6.1.6. Determinants of stunting

The UNICEF conceptual framework was used to determine the causes of stunting in the survey districts. The present survey reconfirms that stunting is due to a complex interaction of multiple factors like caste, head of household, livelihood, economy and the work burden of the mother. Our findings are in concordance with another survey from the Terai region (Bara and Rautahat district) [100]. This survey found that district, age, place of residence, household income, breast- feeding practices, and some food items were significant with stunting among children 3-10 years of age [100]. Similar determinants have also been found in a study by Lisa C. Smith and Lawrence Haddad [76]. They analyzed different underlying factors in 63 low- income countries that contributed to a reduction in child malnutrition (underweight) in the period 1970- 1995. They found that women's education, per capita food availability, women's status relative to men's and the quality of countries' health environment were important determinants of child malnutrition [76].

# 6.2. Evaluation of the sample and method

## 6.2.1. The sample

The sample size of the study was found to be adequate. There were an equal proportion of girls and boys in the sample and the age was normally distributed.

## 6.2.2. The study design

A cross sectional study is collection of data from a specific population at a single point in time [77]. The main advantage with a cross sectional design is that it is relatively quick and cheaper than other types of study designs. The data makes it possible to detect prevalence and associations between variables. The main weakness with cross sectional study design, is that it is not possible to detect cause –effect relationship between the variables [77].

## 6.2.3. Sampling procedure

In the present study, the clusters were randomly chosen, and the households were randomly chosen within the clusters. The present survey is representative for the nutritional situation of children in the Far West Terai of Nepal, however can not be generalized to the whole Nepali population. Using a simple random sampling at the population level would give a sample with higher representativity. Simple random sampling is used where there is an up-dated list of all individuals or households in the population. The households are randomly chosen using a random number from the list of individuals or households. In the present study, a simple random sampling was not chosen because no list of individual or households were available

[56]. To reduce the cost of the survey, the Expanded Program for Immunization (EPI) method could have been employed. The EPI method has been widely used in rapid cluster sampling surveys where an up-to date household sampling frame is not available. The centre of the cluster is found and a bottle or pencil is spun to find the direction to walk. From there the households are randomly chosen. When they reach the edge of the cluster, the same procedure is repeated. The method has been criticized because it is not a probability sample, does not allow for population movement since the last survey and does not ensure objectivity in the households which are chosen [78].

## 6.2.4. The instruments strengths and weaknesses

The anthropometric measurements are associated with both random and systematic errors. Systematic errors influence the validity and random errors influence the reliability. The results are reliable if they with repeated measurements, or with measurements taken under identical circumstances, give the same results [79]. The validity of a measurement is defined by which degree the measured value reflects the characteristics it is intended to measure [80].

## **Anthropometric measurements**

Anthropometric measurements are used to detect the individual's growth and are an expression of health, nutritional status, and well-being [81]. The enumerators received the same practical training with written and oral explanation on how to do the anthropometric measurements. The anthropometric measurements were done according to standardized procedures developed by The World Health Organization (WHO) and United Children's Fund (UNICEF). There are therefore reasons to believe that all enumerators were measuring the child the same way, and that the reliability of the study was high. Cut off values developed by WHO was used to exclude outrange values [63]. The cleaning process revealed that 1.1% (n=16) of the observations of underweight and wasting and 0.1% (n=2) of the observations of wasting were out of range. These cases were excluded from the analyses. The height was taken in a standing or lying position depending on the child's height. Systematic errors might have occurred if the height was wrongly read from the height board throughout the whole survey. Random errors might have occurred if the height was measured wrong on a particular child. This could easily have happened if the child protested and refused to be measured. To increase reliability, the height of the child was measured twice by two enumerators. To increase the validity, Uniscales were calibrated before the study started. Since some of the anthropometric measurements were dependent on age, knowing the exact

age was essential. The mother of the child reported the child's birth date and age in months. To validate the information from the mother, the birth date was checked with the vaccination card.

As the enumerators followed standard procedures for the anthropometric measurements, it is likely that the anthropometric data had high external validity. The internal validity was high because the results were interpreted according to the new WHO growth standard from 2006. The main disadvantage using the new WHO growth standard is the fact that it is not possible to compare the results with studies using the old International Centre for Health Statistics/World Health Organization (NCHS/WHO) reference. The different methods have shown to give different levels of stunting, wasting and underweight [82]. There has been a discussion about the impact of altitude on the growth of the child. Some studies showed that people living at high altitude are more stunted than the ones living on lower altitude [83-86]. Other studies have not found any clear association between altitude and growth [87-89]. WHO state that children who live under optimum conditions follow the same growth curve the first 5 years. The growth curve is based on children which are appropriate breastfed and given adequate complementary feeding and the necessary vaccinations. In addition, the growth standard is based on mother of children who did not smoke during pregnancy or after the child was born [90]. Peter Svedberg argued that the current anthropometric indicators (stunting, wasting, underweight) can overlap and lead to inaccurate prevalence of undernutrition [91]. A child can be underweight and stunted at the same time and the prevalence of undernutrition is highly dependent on which of the indicators that are used. He has developed a new index called the Composite Index of Anthropometric Failure (CIAF). The CIAF includes all individuals who are wasted, stunted or / and overweight [91].

## The structured questionnaire

A structured standardized face- to face interview was used because the literacy among the respondents was low. The questions are asked in order and in a set manner to ensure no variation between the interviews [92]. Structured standardized interview is less time-consuming than using in- depth interviews. Further, it is easier to train enumerators to do structured interview because each question has a common meaning [93]. A structured questionnaire made it possible to do quantitative analysis and assess different causes of undernutrition related to socio economic status, infant and young child feeding, disease, food security and health care. In order to get an in-depth understanding on these issues,

triangulation of methods could have been employed. Using qualitative method like focus groups in addition to structured questionnaire could have yield new ways of understanding undernutrition and increased the validity of the data [94]. Due to limited of time and resources, structured questionnaire was used as the main research tool in this survey. To meet the required sample size it was necessary to engage several enumerators. The enumerators were from all over Nepal. They knew the language (Nepali) and the culture however they did not have any relation to the districts other than the survey work.

The validity of the questionnaire depends on three matters: error from the enumerator, the respondent, and error from the questionnaire [93].

A face to face interview is likely to give high response rate because enumerator could motivate the respondent to fully and accurately answer the questions, and misunderstandings could be clarified. However, due to inadequate training, interviewer bias might have occurred. Only 13 out of 40 enumerators attended a 3 days training in Kathmandu before they went to the field. The rest were trained by Nepali Technical Assistance Group (NTAG) or other enumerators. Due to inadequate training, the enumerators might not have insufficient knowledge about the meaning of different terms used in the questionnaire. The enumerators might try to use their own wording, however the meaning of the question might change [92]. Higher reliability and validity would have been accomplished if the whole group was trained at the same time before going to the field.

In the present study, recall bias occurred if the respondent failed to answer correctly on the question due to poor memory. To reduce recall bias, the mother was used as the main respondent because she was most likely to remember details about infant and young child feeding practices and issues regarding the health of the child. Recall bias was also reduced using a short recall period like 24 hours and 2 weeks recall period. To further reduce recall bias, the interview was held in their homes where some of the questions could be checked with the responses given, for example construction of the household and assets ownership. In the present survey, bias might have occurred because family members or neighbors would want to join in the discussion. A situation like this might have important implications for the data that is obtained. "Social desirability" is a phenomenon where the respondent answers according to what would give respect or credibility instead of giving the true answer [95]. Sensitive questions are particular vulnerable for the effect of social desirability [96]. There is

a chance that the mother underestimated the use of coping mechanisms or reported more appropriate child feeding patterns than what was actual the case. To reduce bias due to social desirability, effort was made to keep neighbors and family members away during the interview.

The study aimed to assess causes of undernutrition based on the UNICEF conceptual framework. It was challenging to decide what elements to include in the questionnaire. As undernutrition has multifactorial causes, only questions which were considered to have most impact on undernutrition were included in the questionnaire. To ensure high validity, the majority of the questions were taken from questionnaires which have been validated like the Demographic Health Survey (DHS), Concern Worldwide [59], Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) [62], Coping Strategy Index (CSI) [60] and surveys from the World Food Program (WFP) [61]. In addition, people from WFP, UNICEF and NTAG gave their comments on the questionnaire which is likely to increase the validity of the study. Adjustments were made to ensure that the questionnaire was culturally acceptable and met the objectives of the survey. The questionnaire was translated to Nepali by experienced translators from NTAG and UNICEF and tested in the field during the training. However, due to time constraints no pilot survey or validity test was employed. To increase the reliability of the questionnaire, a repeated test of the questionnaire could have been employed on the same respondents. There might be systematic or random errors in the questionnaire due to mistakes by the enumerator. Defined categories in the questionnaire minimized this type of error. In addition, each questionnaire was cross checked before it was handed over to NTAG for data entering.

The different parts in the questionnaire will now be discussed in further detail in relation to relevant literature. Strengths and weaknesses related to the assessment of, socio economic status, infant and young child feeding, disease and coping mechanisms of the household will be the focus in this part of the discussion.

## Socio economic status of the household

In the present study, no information about the income of the household was collected. Several indicators were asked in order to get an overview of the socio economic situation. These questions included of the household like the number of children below five years in the household, head of household, caste, education and livelihoods, and household information

which were incorporated into the wealth index. The scores were summed and a wealth index of five categories was developed (appendix 2). This wealth index has not been validated and might be biased because the animals and assets were treated as they were of equal value and not given a score based on its value. Alternatively, the assets of each household were given a weight or factor score generated through the Principal Component Analysis (PCA). This method makes it possible to compare the socio economic status with other countries [97]. The method used in the present study was appropriate because the categories were adjusted to the socio- economic situation in the districts, through the use of average score.

## Infant and young child feeding

The results from the survey indicated that the breastfeeding practices in Nepal were satisfying according to the recommendations given by World Health Organization (WHO) [15]. However, as discussed earlier, the breastfeeding patterns, particularly exclusive breastfeeding, was not in concordance with other national studies from Nepal [3, 67]. The mother might have misunderstood the meaning of exclusive breastfeeding. Another study from Nepal found that water was not considered fluid, and therefore a child receiving only water in addition to breast milk was still considered as being exclusively breastfed [59]. This misunderstanding would mainly be due to inadequate training and the enumerator's wrong or poor explanation of meaning of the term "exclusively breastfed". The infant feeding indicators, especially exclusive breastfeeding, have been discussed in terms of validity. WHO recommends to exclusively breastfeed the child up to the age of 6 months. Using a 24 hours recall period to assess exclusive breastfeeding gives less recall bias, is easier and less time consuming than a longer recall period [98]. However, some argue that a 24 hour recall period is not adequate to measure exclusive breastfeeding [99]. The argument is based on the fact that the prevalence of exclusive breastfeeding is high during the first months, and decrease up to four and five months. Therefore, a high prevalence of exclusive breastfeeding does not give a true picture of the actual breastfeeding practice. It has been suggested that an indicator which measure exclusive breastfeeding since birth is more appropriate than using a 24 hour recall [99].

In order to assess the variety of the complementary food, a Dietary Diversity Score (DDS) was employed. A DDS was convenient and easy to use in a survey which included many questions. A child aged 6-23 months should receive a diet with foods from at least four out of seven food groups [15]. Studies from several low income countries have validated the DDS

based on 7 food groups and found that it is the best predictor of micronutrient density in the food [100-105]. Therefore, oil and fats were excluded from the recommended food groups [15]. A weakness with this type of DDS, was the fact that no details about the amount of foods eaten was collected.

#### Disease

The mother was requested to report the types of diseases that the child had two weeks prior to the study. Studies have found that a recall period of 2 weeks underestimates the true disease rates. It has been suggested that a shorter recall periods of 3 days would yield more accurate data of the disease pattern [106-108]. A recall period of 2 weeks was employed in the present study in order to compare the results with DHS.

## Coping mechanisms

The households' food security can be assessed using variety of indicators for example caloric acquisition and dietary diversity [109]. In the present study, coping mechanisms were used to assess the food security situation of the household. Coping mechanisms have been validated in several studies [60, 62]. Still, there is no consensus on which coping mechanisms that are the best predictors of food insecurity. Specific coping mechanisms do not always reflect the same severity of food insecurity across cultures. Further, all coping mechanisms are not equally accepted in the community [62]. To increase the validity of the questions related to coping mechanisms help advice was given from experienced people from WFP. It is found that the recall period that is employed to assess food insecurity has high impact on the results. A recall period of 12 months, 6 months, 30 days and 7 days has been used assess food security [60, 62]. Like the HFIAS, a four weeks recall period was employed in the present study. This recall period was appropriate in the present study the coping mechanisms that had been used recently were of interest. In the present study, a household was categorized as food insecure if they had used any of the selected coping mechanisms. This is a very strict way of categorizing. The prevalence of food insecurity might have been overestimated. Alternatively, each coping mechanisms could be given a weight depending on the severity of the mechanism. Based on the sum score, a house is characterised as food secure or food insecure [62]. The prevalence of food insecurity is likely to be correct due to the severity of the coping mechanisms included in the questionnaire.

#### 6.3. Conclusions and further recommendations

The aims of the present study were to asses the prevalence of undernutrition and identify causes of undernutrition among children below five years in the Far West Terai of Nepal. This study demonstrated that undernutrition continues to be a serious problem in the Far West Terai. Thirty- five percent of the children were stunted, 16% were wasted and 35% were underweight. Though there has been a declined rate of stunting and underweight, the rate of wasting has gone up since 2006. According to WHO classification of severity of undernutrition, the stunting rate was classified as high, and wasting and underweight were classified as very high. Stunting and underweight increased with age. The only difference in sex was found in underweight, where girls had higher chance of being underweight than the boys.

The complementary feeding was timely introduced, however the quality and quantity was inadequate. The prevalence of disease was high and was likely to be caused by inadequate care during illness. In regard to the households coping mechanisms related to food security, one third of the households were using coping mechanisms which might indicate that they were food insecure. The most common coping mechanism was to borrow food or spend savings on food. Finally, the multiple regression models showed that households where the mother worked more than 8 hours a day, where the mother was the head of the households, belonged to low caste, and households where the main source of income was farming had higher levels of stunting than other households. These variables explained 24 % of the variation in stunting.

Despite high levels of breastfeeding and exclusive breastfeeding, programs which aim to improve these practices should be continued. In addition, more emphasis should be given to the quality and the quantity of complementary food. There is also a strong need to continue to validate food security indicators and to address new coping mechanisms.

## **CHAPTER 7: LITTERATURE LIST**

- 1. Habicht, J.-P., *Malnutrition kills directly, not indirectly.* The Lancet, 2008. **371**(9626): p. 1749-1750.
- 2. UNICEF, *Tracking progress on child and maternal nutrition: a survival and development priority.* 2009, United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF): New York.
- 3. Ministry of Health and Population (MOHP) [Nepal], N.E., and Macro International Inc, *Nepal Demographic and Health Survey 2006*. 2007, Ministry of Health and Population, New ERA, and Macro International Inc: Kathmandu, Nepal.
- 4. UNICEF, *Progress for children*. 2006, United Nations Children's Fund: New York.
- 5. Van de Poel, E., et al., *Socioeconomic inequality in malnutrition in developing countries*. Bull World Health Organ, 2008. **86**(4): p. 282-91.
- 6. UNICEF, *Strategy to reduce maternal and child undernutrition*. 2003, United Children's Fund East Asia and Pacific Regional Office: Bangkok.
- 7. ACC/SCN, 5th Report on the World Nutrition Situation. 2004, United Nations. Administrative committee on Coordination/ sub- Committee on Nutrition.
- 8. Tomkins, A., & Watson, F., *Malnutrition and infection: A review, ACC/SCN*. 1989, Clinical Nutrition Unit, Centre for Human Nutrition, London School of Hygiene and tropical Medicine, Paper no.5.
- 9. Martorell, R., L.K. Khan, and D.G. Schroeder, *Reversibility of stunting:*epidemiological findings in children from developing countries. Eur J Clin Nutr,
  1994. **48 Suppl 1**: p. S45-57.
- 10. UNICEF and WFP, *Global Framework for Action*. 2006, United Nations Children's Fund & World Food Program.
- 11. UNICEF, *The state of the world's children*. 1998, United Children's Fund: New York.
- 12. Jonsson, U., *Towards an improved strategy for nutrition surveillance*. Food and Nutrition Bulletin, 1995. **16**(2): p. 102-111.
- 13. Jamison, D.T., Feachem, R.G., Makgoba, M.W., Bos, E.R., Baingana, F.K., Hofman, K.J., Rogo, K.O., ed. *Disease and Mortality in Sub- Saharan Africa*. 2 ed. 2006, The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development/ The World Bank: Washington. 387.
- 14. WHO, *Global Strategy for Infant and Young Child Feeding*. 2003, World Health Organization: Geneva.

- 15. WHO, Indicators for assessing infant and young child feeding practices Part I: Definitions. 2008, World Health Organization: Geneva.
- 16. WHO, *Training course on child growth assessment*. 2008, World Health Organization: Geneva.
- 17. Chantry, C.J., Howard, C.R., Auinger, P., Full breastfeeding duration and associated decrease in respiratory tract infection in US children. Pediatrics, 2006. **117**(2): p. 425-32.
- 18. WHO, Complementary feeding. Report of the global consultation. Summary of guiding principles. 2002, World Health Organization: Geneva.
- 19. WHO, *Infant and young child feeding: Model Chapter for textbooks for medical students and allied health professionals.* 2009, World Health Organization: Geneva. p. 1-111.
- 20. Brown, K.H., et al., Effects of common illnesses on infants' energy intakes from breast milk and other foods during longitudinal community-based studies in Huascar (Lima), Peru. Am J Clin Nutr, 1990. **52**(6): p. 1005-13.
- 21. FAO, Rome Declaration on World Food Security and World Food Summit Plan of Action. World Food Summit 13-17 November 1996. 1996, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations: Rome.
- 22. FAO, *The State of Food Insecurity in the World 2001*. 2002, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations: Rome.
- 23. FAO, *The state of Food insecurity in the World: Economic crisis- impacts and lessons learned.* 2009, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations: Rome.
- 24. Engle, P.L., P. Menon, and L. Haddad, *Care and Nutrition: Concept and Measurement*. World Development, 1997. **27**(8): p. 1309-1337.
- 25. UNICEF. *Children: Early years*. [cited 2010 09.05]; Available from: http://www.unicef.org/nepal/5461.htm.
- 26. WHO. *Micronutrient deficiencies*. 2010 [cited 2010 07.05]; Available from: <a href="http://www.who.int/nutrition/topics/vad/en/index.html">http://www.who.int/nutrition/topics/vad/en/index.html</a>.
- WHO, UNICEF, and W. Bank, *State of the world's vaccines and immunization*.2009, World Health Organization: Geneva.
- 28. Pantha, R. and R.B. Sharma, *Chapter 2: Population size, growth and distribution*. 2002, CBS: Kathmandu.
- 29. Rai, K.S., et al., *Infectious Diseases and Malnutrition Status in Nepal: an Overview.*Mal J Nutr, 2002. **8**(2): p. 191-200.

- 30. ACF, Nutritional anthropometric survey: children from 6 to 59 months. Kanchanpur district. 2008, Action Contra la Faim Katmandu.
- 31. Singh, S., Impact of long-term political conflict on population health in Nepal. CMAJ, 2004. **171**(12): p. 1499-501.
- 32. UN, Nepal Humanitarian transition appeal 2010. 2010, United Nations: Geneva.
- 33. WFP, Situation Summary. Nepal Food Security Bulletin, 2009(25).
- 34. UNICEF, Assessment of Child Protection Concerns of Children in Terai Districts 2009, United Nations Children's Fund: Katmandu.
- 35. WHO, *WHO Country Cooperation Strategy 2006-2011: Nepal.* 2007, World Health Organization: Kathmandu.
- 36. UN, *Nepal : Mid year review 2009, Humanitarian transition appeal.* 2009, United Nation: Kathmandu.
- 37. UNDP. *Human Development Report 2009, Nepal, The Human Development Index-going beyond income.* 2009 [cited 2010 10.02]; Available from: <a href="http://hdrstats.undp.org/en/countries/country\_fact\_sheets/cty\_fs\_NPL.html">http://hdrstats.undp.org/en/countries/country\_fact\_sheets/cty\_fs\_NPL.html</a>.
- 38. Maltsoglou, I. and K. Tanguchi, *Poverty, Livestock and Household Typologies in Nepal.* 2004, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO): Rome, Italy. p. 1-48.
- 39. UNICEF. *Nepal: Background*. 2007 [cited 2010 02.02]; Available from: <a href="http://www.unicef.org/infobycountry/nepal\_nepal\_background.html">http://www.unicef.org/infobycountry/nepal\_nepal\_background.html</a>.
- 40. WHO. Country profiles of Environmental Burden of Disease Public Health and the Environment Geneva 2009 Nepal. 2009a [cited 2010 10.03]; Available from: <a href="http://www.who.int/quantifying\_ehimpacts/national/countryprofile/nepal.pdf">http://www.who.int/quantifying\_ehimpacts/national/countryprofile/nepal.pdf</a>.
- 41. CBS, *Population Census 2001*. 2001, Central Bureau of Statistics: Kathmandu.
- 42. CBS, *Nepal Living Standards Survey 2003/2004: Statistical report volume one*. 2004, Central Bureau of Statisitcs: Kathmandu.
- 43. UNDP, *Nepal Human Development Report 2009: state transformation and human development*. 2009, United Nations Development Programme: Kathmandu.
- 44. WHO. *Education Training and Support*. 2009 [cited 2010 15.03]; Available from: <a href="http://www.searo.who.int/en/Section1243/Section1374/Section1426\_5832.htm">http://www.searo.who.int/en/Section1243/Section1374/Section1426\_5832.htm</a>.
- 45. The World Bank and DFID-Nepal, *Unequal citizens: gender, caste and ethnic exclusion in nepal. Summary.* 2006, The World Bank and Department For International Development: Kathmandu.

- 46. UNDP, *Nepal Human Development Report 2004: Empowerment and Poverty Reduction*. 2004, United Nations Development Programme: Kathmandu.
- 47. FAO, *Bridging the gap: FAO's programme for gender equality in agriculture and rural development.* 2009, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations: Rome.
- 48. MoAA, MFC, and FAO, *Crop and Food Security Assessment*. 2009, Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives, The World Food Programme and Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Naitons: Kathmandu.
- 49. FAO. FAO Initiative on Soaring Food Prices: Nepal. 2010 [cited 2010 12.03]; Available from: <a href="http://www.fao.org/isfp/country-information/nepal/en/">http://www.fao.org/isfp/country-information/nepal/en/</a>.
- 50. CBS. *Population Profile of Nepal*. 2007; Available from: <a href="http://www.cbs.gov.np/Population/Population%20Profile%20of%20Nepal.pdf">http://www.cbs.gov.np/Population/Population%20Profile%20of%20Nepal.pdf</a>.
- 51. UN, Situation Update: Mid Western Region Diarrhoea Outbreak. 2009, United Nations: Kathmandu.
- 52. UN. Collection and Compilation of District Profiles: Baseline data through secondary source, Kailali district. 2005; Available from: <a href="http://www.un.org.np/health/district-profiles/data/far-western/kailali.htm">http://www.un.org.np/health/district-profiles/data/far-western/kailali.htm</a>.
- 53. UNICEF, *UNICEF Supported Projects in Districts of Nepal.* 2009, United Children's Fund: Katmandu
- 54. UNICEF, *UNICEF Humanitarian Action Report 2009*. 2009, United Nations Children's Fund: Kathmandu.
- 55. Haselow, H., et al., *Action Against Malnutrition through Agriculture Nepal.* 2009, Helen Keller International and Nepali Technical Assitance Group: Kathmandu
- 56. SMART, Measuring Mortality, Nutritional Status, and Food Security in Crisis Situations: SMART METHODOLOGY. Version 1. 2006.
- 57. WHO and UNICEF, WHO child growth standards and the identification of severe acute malnutrition in infants and children. 2009, The World Health Organization and United Nations Children's Fund New York and Geneva.
- 58. WHO, WHO Child Growth Standards: Length/height-for-age, weight-for-age, weight-for-length, weight-for-height and body mass index-for-age. Methods and development 2006, World Health Organization: Geneva.
- 59. Concern-Worldwide, *Nutritional survey report: Bardiya district Nepal.* 2008, Concern- Worldwide: Kathmandu

- 60. Maxwell, D. and R. Caldwell, *Coping strategies Index: Field Methods Manual.* 2008, WFP, USAID, CARE, TANGO, FIC.
- 61. WFP, 2009 winter drought pushes 2 million towards hunger, in Food Security

  Monitoring and Analysis System. 2009, The World Food Programme: Kathmandu.
- 62. Coats, J., A. Swindale, and P. Bilinsky, *Household Food Insecurity Access Scale*(HFIAS) for measurement of food access: Indicator Guide. Version 3. 2007, Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance Project: Washington.
- 63. WHO, WHO Anthro 2005 for Personal Computers: software for assessing growth and development of the world's children. 2006, World Health Organization: Geneva.
- 64. Altman, D.G., *Practical statistics for medical research*. 1999, London: Chapman & Hall/CRC.
- 65. WFP, *Flood- affected areas- the situation 4 months later*. 2008, United Nations World Food Programme: Katmandu.
- 66. WHO, *Physical Status: The Use and Interpretation of Anthropometry*. 1995, World Health Organization: Geneva.
- 67. Ministry of Health [Nepal], N.E., and ORC Macro, *Nepal Demographic and Health Survey 2001*. 2002, Family Health Division, Ministry of Health; New ERA; and ORC Macro: Calverton, Maryland, USA.
- 68. International, I.I.f.P.S.I.a.M., *National Family Health Survey (NFHS-3), 2005–06: India: Volume I.* 2007, IIPS: Mumbai.
- 69. USAID and MoHP, *An Analytical Report on National Survey of Female Community Health Volunteers in Nepal.* 2007, USAID: Kathmandu.
- 70. Masvie, H., *The role of Tamang mothers-in-law in promoting breast feeding in Makwanpur District, Nepal.* Midwifery, 2006. **22**(1): p. 23-31.
- 71. Arimond M, R.M., *Dietary Diversity Is Associated with Child Nutritional Status: Evidence from 11 Demographic and Health Surveys.* Journal of Nutrition, 2004

  134(10): p. 2579-85.
- 72. WHO. *Malaria Situation in SEAR Countries: Nepal.* 2009 [cited 2010 19.03]; Available from: <a href="http://www.searo.who.int/EN/Section10/Section21/Section340.htm">http://www.searo.who.int/EN/Section10/Section21/Section340.htm</a>.
- 73. IRIN. *Nepal: Gearing up for malaria season*. 2008 [cited 2010 18.03]; Available from: <a href="http://www.irinnews.org/Report.aspx?ReportId=78725">http://www.irinnews.org/Report.aspx?ReportId=78725</a>.
- 74. UNAIDS and WHO, *AIDS epidemic update*. 2009, United Nations program on HIV/AIDS & World Health Organization: Geneva.

- 75. WFP, *Food Security Alert: Far- and Mid- West Hills and Mountains*. 2008, United Nations World Food Programme: Kathmandu.
- 76. Smith, L.C. and L. Haddad, *Overcoming child malnutrition in developing countries:*past achievements and future choices. 2000, International Food Policy Research
  Institute (IFPRI): Washington.
- 77. Frank- Spohrer, G.C., ed. *Community nutrition applying epidemiology to contemporary practice*. 1996, An Aspen Publication: Maryland:USA.
- 78. Milligan, P., A. Njie, and S. Bennett, *Comparison of two cluster sampling methods* for health surveys in developing countries. Int J Epidemiol, 2004. **33**(3): p. 469-76.
- 79. Thelle, D., *Innføring i Epidemiologi*. 1998: Cappelen akademiske forlag. 167.
- 80. Carmines, E.G. and R.A. Zeller, eds. *Reliability and validity assessment*. Quantitative Applications in the Social Sciences. 1979, Sage University paper: Newbury Park:CA.
- 81. Fenn, B. and M.E. Penny, *Using the new World Health Organisation growth standards: differences from 3 countries.* J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr, 2008. **46**(3): p. 316-21.
- 82. De Onis, M., et al., Comparison of the World Health Organization (WHO) Child Growth Standards and the National Center for Health Statistics/WHO international growth reference: implications for child health programmes. Public Health Nutr, 2006. 9(7): p. 942-7.
- 83. Haas, J., *Prenatal and Infant Growth and Development*,, in *Man in the Andes*, *Multidisciplinary Study of High Altitude Quechua*, P.T. Baker and M.A. Little, Editor.

  1976, PA: Dowden, Hutchinson and Ross: Little, Stroudsburg. p. 161-179.
- 84. Beall, C.M., et al., *The effects of high altitude on adolescent growth in southern*Peruvian Amerindians. Hum Biol, 1977. **49**(2): p. 109-24.
- 85. Frisancho, A.R. and P.T. Baker, *Altitude and growth: a study of the patterns of physical growth of a high altitude Peruvian Quechua population.* Am J Phys Anthropol, 1970. **32**(2): p. 279-92.
- 86. Mueller, W.H., et al., *A multinational Andean genetic and health program: growth and development in an hypoxic environment.* Ann Hum Biol, 1978. **5**(4): p. 329-52.
- 87. Pawson, I.G., *Growth characteristics of populations of Tibetan origin in Nepal.* Am J Phys Anthropol, 1977. **47**(3): p. 473-82.
- 88. Clegg, E.J., et al., *The growth of children at different altitudes in Ethiopia*. Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci, 1972. **264**(864): p. 403-37.

- 89. Frisancho, A.R., G.A. Borkan, and J.E. Klayman, *Pattern of growth of lowland and highland Peruvian Quechua of similar genetic composition*. Hum Biol, 1975. **47**(3): p. 233-43.
- 90. WHO, Backgrounder 2: Why are new WHO Child Growth Standards needed? 2006, World Health Organization: Geneva.
- 91. Svedberg, P., ed. *Poverty and undernutrition: theory, measurement and policy.* 2000, Oxford India Paperbacks: New Delhi.
- 92. Crawford, I.M., *Maketing Research and Information Systems* 1997, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations: Rome.
- 93. Bechhofer, F. and L. Paterson, eds. *Principles of Research Design in the Social Sciencesis*. 2000, Routledge: London. 172.
- 94. Jick, T.D., *Mixing qualitative methods: Triangulation in action*. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1979. **24**(4): p. 602-611.
- 95. Fisher, R.J., *Social desirability bias and the validity of indirect questioning*. The journal of Consumer Research, 1993. **20**(2): p. 303-315.
- 96. Brace, I., ed. *Questionnaire design: How to plan, structure and write survey material for effective market research.* 2004, Market research in practice: Mumbai.
- 97. Rutstein S.O. and K. Johnson, *DHS Comparative Reports No. 6: The DHS Wealth Index*. 2004, ORC Macro: Calverton, Maryland.
- 98. FANTA, Developing and validating simple indicators of dietary quality and energy intake of infants and young children in developing coutries: summary of findings from analysis of 10 data sets. Working group on Infant and Young Child Feeding Indicators. 2006, Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance Project: Washington.
- 99. Aarts, C., et al., *How exclusive is exclusive breastfeeding? A comparison of data since birth with current status data.* Int J Epidemiol, 2000. **29**: p. 1041 1046.
- 100. Suri, V., et al., Developing and Validating Simple Indicators of Complementary Food Intake and Nutrient Density for Infants and Young Children in Developing Countries: Final Report for India. Report Submitted to the World Health Organization. 2006.
- 101. Pachon, H. and E.A. Frongillo, Developing and Validating Simple Indicators of Complementary Food Intake and Nutrient Density for Infants and Young Children in Developing Countries: Report on Analysis of Data from Brazil. Report submitted to the WHO. 2006.
- 102. Moursi, M., Developing and Validating Indicators of Nutrient Density and Energy
  Intake for Infants and Young Children in Developing Countries: Madagascar Report.

- 2006, Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance (FANTA) Project/Academy for Educational Development (AED).
- 103. Hotz, C., Validating Simple Indicators of Food Intake and Nutrient Density for Infants and Young Children: Malawi. Report submitted to the World Health Organization. 2006.
- Dewey, K.G., et al., Developing and Validating Simple Indicators of Complementary
   Food Intake and Nutrient Density for Breastfed Children in Developing Countries.
   2005, Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance, Project/Academy for Educational
   Development (AED): Washington D.C.
- 105. Creed-Kanashiro, H., et al., *Development and Validation of Indicators of Nutrient Density, Nutrient Adequacy and Energy Intake for Infants and Children in Developing Countries.* 2006, Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance (FANTA)

  Project/Academy for Educational Development (AED): Washington D.C.
- 106. Feikin, D.R., et al., Evaluation of the optimal recall period for disease symptoms in home-based morbidity surveillance in rural and urban Kenya. Int J Epidemiol, 2010.39(2): p. 450-8.
- 107. Rudan, I., et al., *Global estimate of the incidence of clinical pneumonia among children under five years of age*. Bull World Health Organ, 2004. **82**(12): p. 895-903.
- 108. Kosek, M., C. Bern, and R.L. Guerrant, *The global burden of diarrhoeal disease, as estimated from studies published between 1992 and 2000.* Bull World Health Organ, 2003. **81**(3): p. 197-204.
- 109. Hoddinott, J., *Choosing outcome indicators of household food security*. International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI), 1999.

## **CHAPTER 8: APPENDICES**

Appendix 1: Description of the variables

Appendix 2: Wealth index

Appendix 3: The questionnaire used in the survey

## **Appendix 1: Description of the variables used**

Table 9: Description of the variables used in the analysis

Indicator	Inclusion	Description of the variable
	criteria	
Early initiation of	<24 months	% put to the breast within one hour of birth.
breastfeeding		
	<6 months	% breast fed exclusively with breast milk, expressed or from the wet
Exclusive		nurse, the previous day. The child was allowed to receive ORS,
breastfeeding		drops, syrups (vitamins, minerals and medicines).
Continued	12-15 months	% fed with breast milk the previous day
	12-13 monuis	% led with breast fillik the previous day
breastfeeding at 1		
year	6.0	
Introduction of	6-8 months	% who received solid, semi-solid or soft foods during the previous
complementary		day. The child is allowed to drink breast milk and any food or liquid
foods		including non- human milk and formula.
		% Receive foods from at least 4 food groups the previous day
Minimum dietary	6-23 months	
diversity		1) Grains, roots and tubers,
		2) Legumes and nuts
		3) Dairy products
		4) Flesh foods
		5) Eggs
		6) Vitamin A rich fruits and vegetables
		7) Other fruits and vegetables
Minimum meal	6-23 months	% Receive complementary foods the minimum of times or more the
frequency		previous day
	6-8 months	2 meals a day
	9-23 months	3 meals a day
	6-23 months	4 meals a day
Children ever	<24	% ever breastfed.
breastfed		
Children	20-23 months	% fed with breast milk the previous day.
breastfeeding at 2		
years		

Age Appropriate   6-23
G-23   % Given complementary foods
Prenatal feeding  0-23   Multiple response   Multiple response   Multiple response   Among the ones who did not breastfed the day prior to the study, what was the reason for stop breastfeeding.  Disease  0-59   Wultiple response   Multiple Among the ones who did not breastfed the day prior to the study, what was the reason for stop breastfeeding.  Type of illness   0-59   Multiple Among the children which had been sick, % of children that had fever, cough, diarrhoea, pneumonia, difficult breathing and other illnesses  Nutritional care during illness   Among the children which had been sick, % receiving more, same, or less than usual/or nothing at all.  Health seeking   0-59   Among the children which had been sick, % of the children which were taken to pharmacy, health posts, private hospitals, governmental
Reasons for stop breastfeeding0-23 PresponseMultiple PresponseAmong the ones who did not breastfed the day prior to the study, what was the reason for stop breastfeeding.Disease0-59% of children being sick two weeks prior to the studyType of illness0-59Multiple responseAmong the children which had been sick, % of children that had fever, cough, diarrhoea, pneumonia, difficult breathing and other illnessesNutritional care during illness0-59Among the children which had been sick, % receiving more, same, or less than usual/or nothing at all.Health seeking behaviour0-59Among the children which had been sick, % of the children which were taken to pharmacy, health posts, private hospitals, governmental
Reasons for stop breastfeeding0-23 Multiple responseAmong the ones who did not breastfed the day prior to the study, what was the reason for stop breastfeeding.Disease0-59% of children being sick two weeks prior to the studyType of illness0-59Multiple responseAmong the children which had been sick, % of children that had fever, cough, diarrhoea, pneumonia, difficult breathing and other illnessesNutritional care during illness0-59Among the children which had been sick, % receiving more, same, or less than usual/or nothing at all.Health seeking behaviour0-59Among the children which had been sick, % of the children which were taken to pharmacy, health posts, private hospitals, governmental
breastfeeding response what was the reason for stop breastfeeding.  Disease 0-59 % of children being sick two weeks prior to the study  Type of illness 0-59 Multiple Among the children which had been sick, % of children that had response fever, cough, diarrhoea, pneumonia, difficult breathing and other illnesses  Nutritional care during illness less than usual/or nothing at all.  Health seeking behaviour 0-59 Among the children which had been sick, % of the children which behaviour server taken to pharmacy, health posts, private hospitals, governmental
Disease 0-59 % of children being sick two weeks prior to the study  Type of illness 0-59 Multiple response fever, cough, diarrhoea, pneumonia, difficult breathing and other illnesses  Nutritional care during illness 0-59 Among the children which had been sick, % receiving more, same, or less than usual/or nothing at all.  Health seeking 0-59 Among the children which had been sick, % of the children which behaviour were taken to pharmacy, health posts, private hospitals, governmental
Type of illness  O-59   Multiple   Among the children which had been sick, % of children that had response   fever, cough, diarrhoea, pneumonia, difficult breathing and other illnesses  Nutritional care   O-59   Among the children which had been sick, % receiving more, same, or less than usual/or nothing at all.  Health seeking   O-59   Among the children which had been sick, % of the children which behaviour   were taken to pharmacy, health posts, private hospitals, governmental
Type of illness  O-59   Multiple   Among the children which had been sick, % of children that had response   fever, cough, diarrhoea, pneumonia, difficult breathing and other illnesses  Nutritional care   O-59   Among the children which had been sick, % receiving more, same, or less than usual/or nothing at all.  Health seeking   O-59   Among the children which had been sick, % of the children which behaviour   were taken to pharmacy, health posts, private hospitals, governmental
response fever, cough, diarrhoea, pneumonia, difficult breathing and other illnesses  Nutritional care O-59 Among the children which had been sick, % receiving more, same, or less than usual/or nothing at all.  Health seeking O-59 Among the children which had been sick, % of the children which behaviour were taken to pharmacy, health posts, private hospitals, governmental
Nutritional care during illness  Among the children which had been sick, % receiving more, same, or less than usual/or nothing at all.  Health seeking behaviour  O-59 Among the children which had been sick, % of the children which were taken to pharmacy, health posts, private hospitals, governmental
Nutritional care 0-59 Among the children which had been sick, % receiving more, same, or during illness less than usual/or nothing at all.  Health seeking 0-59 Among the children which had been sick, % of the children which behaviour were taken to pharmacy, health posts, private hospitals, governmental
during illness       less than usual/or nothing at all.         Health seeking       0-59       Among the children which had been sick, % of the children which behaviour         behaviour       were taken to pharmacy, health posts, private hospitals, governmental
Health seeking behaviour  O-59 Among the children which had been sick, % of the children which were taken to pharmacy, health posts, private hospitals, governmental
<b>behaviour</b> were taken to pharmacy, health posts, private hospitals, governmental
hamitale minute hamitale too ditional hadane ECHVs and others to
hospitals, private hospitals, traditional healers, FCHVs and others to
treat the disease
Vitamin A 6-59 % recieved vitamin A
<b>Deworming</b> 12-59 % recieved deworming tablets
<b>DPT- HepB</b> 0-59 % received DPT- HepB
Measles 9-59 % received measles vaccination
Coping mechanisms 0-59 % of the households which had used any of the coping mechanisms 4
weeks prior to the study
- eaten smaller meals
- eaten fewer meals
- spent savings on food
- collected wild food
-consumed seed stock held for the next season
- taken children out of school
- begged for food
- borrowed food
- outmigrated
- sold land
- sold agricultural assets
-sold household assets
Coping mechanisms 0-59 % of the households that were food secure and food insecure

Children below 5	0-59	% of the household having one child, two children or more than two	
years living in the		children below 5 living in the household	
household			
Head of the	0-59	% of households which were headed by the father, mother,	
household		grandfather, grandmother or others	
Caste	0-59	% of households belonging to the dalits, disadvantaged	
		janajatis/disadvantaged non dalit group, and the relatively advantaged	
		janajatis/ uppalow jatis	
<b>Education: father</b>	0-59	% of the fathers with no education, primary level, lower	
		secondary/informal, secondary level, higher secondary and immediate	
		and above	
<b>Education: mother</b>	0-59	% of the mothers with no education, primary level, lower	
		secondary/informal, secondary level, higher secondary and immediate	
		and above	
Livelihoods	0-59	% of the households that reports that the main source of income is:	
		crop farming/ livestock farming, remittance/assistance programs, re,	
		regular employment/ trade/ business/ forest products collection and	
		casual employment/ other sources of livelihood	
Working mother	0-59	% of the households with a mother with paid work	
Hours spend on	0-59	Among the mothers with paid work, % of the mothers working 0.5-	
work by mother		3.5 hours, 4-7.5 hours and more than 8 hours.	

## **Appendix 2: Wealth index**

- *Roof:* The roof was aggregated into two groups: improved roof and unimproved roof. Improved roof was made of for example cement, iron, cardboard or wood planks and got a score of 1. The cheaper version is the unimproved roof, which are made of materials available in the field like thatch, straw and mud and were given a score 0.
- Walls: The walls were divided into two categories: improved and not improved walls. Improved walls were for example finished walls made of cement and wood planks. These types of walls were considered to be of best quality and therefore including the people with high socio economic status and got a score of 1. Unimproved walls like walls made of mud or local materials are used by people with lower socioeconomic status and were given a score of 0.
- *Size of the dwelling:* The size of the dwelling was calculated by dividing total people in the household by number of rooms in the household. Households with 2 persons per room or more, were given a score of 0, and in households where there were less than 2 persons per room were given a score of 1.
- *Land:* The households that owned less than 9000m2 were given score 0, and the households with more than 9000m2 of land were given score 1.
- Animals: Mean was found at the animal variables and 1 was given to household with number of animals above the mean, and 0 was given to households with number of animals below the mean.
- Assets: Used multiple choice, the household ticket out which assets that were available to them. The ones that answered that they had more than 5 assets were classified as better off and given a score of 1, and the ones owning less than 5 assets were classified as worse off and given a score of 0. It is assumed that a poor family has access to some assets, however are still poor (for example cell phone, landline, television, radio). If the household have 5 assets or more, they have assets which are not that usual, and which are more expensive to buy, and the household are then classified as better off.
- *Transport:* The transport facilities were divided into two categories: the household which had a transport facility (categorized 1) and the household without a transport facility (categorized 0).

## Appendix 3: Questionnaire used in the survey

Questionnaire for Nutrition Assessment of children 0-59 months in districts in the Mid and Far West Regions of Nepal

partice Do ye Form Distri	cipation.  ou agree to particip  no.  Interviewer name:  ict code:  VDC of  e of household hea	Da Da Code:	selected child in the house survey? Yes Note of Interview (DD/MM/ Interviewer Code: Ward code: Name of mother:  **ATUS OF THE HOUSE**	YY) On On On One	ode: Chi	e purpose of the		sk for her ent name:
No	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS	CODING	G CATEGORIES				SKIP	VARI ABLE
1.	Who is the head of the household?	1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	□ Father     □ Grandmother     □ Grandfather					
2.	Caste	1. □ Dalit Hill/Tarai  2. □ Disadvantage Janajati/Hill/Tarai  3. □ Disadvantage Non Dalit Tarai Caste Group  4. □ Religious Minorities  5. □ Relatively Advantaged Janajati Upper Caste Group  6. □ Upallow Jati						MCASTE
3.	How many are currently living in this household?	1. 2. 3. 4.	Age group Under 5 years 5-15 years 16-60 years Over 60 years	Male	Female	total		HHSIZE
4.	How many people are living in the house?	people						ТОТНН
5.	How many children are under 5 years?		children					TOTCHILDU5
6.	What is the father's level of schooling?	1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	<ol> <li>□ Primary level</li> <li>□ Lower secondary /informal</li> <li>□ Secondary level</li> </ol>					

		6. ☐ Intermediate and above	
7.	What is the	1. □ None	
	mother's level	2. □ Primary level/Informal education	
	of schooling?	3. □ Lower secondary	
		4. □ Secondary level	EDMOTHER
		5. ☐ Higher secondary	
		6. ☐ Intermediate and above	

No	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS	CODING CATEGORIES	Remarks	SKIP	VARIABLE
3.	What are the main	1. ☐ Thatch/straw			
	materials of the roof?	2. ☐ Wood planks, cardboard			ROOFING
	(observe)	3. ☐ Finished roof (iron, tin, finished			
		wood, cement, ceramic)			
		4. □ Earth/ mud			
		5.			
).	What are the main	□ Simple wall with mud or local			
	materials of the	materials			WALLS
	walls? (observe)	2. ☐ Bamboo or stone with mud,			
		plywood, cardboard			
		3. ☐ Finished walls; cement, brick,			
		stone with cement, wood planks			
		4. □ No outside walls			
		5.			
10.	How many rooms are	1. □ 1 room			ROOMS
	there in your house?	2. □ 2 rooms			
		3. □ 3 rooms			
		4. □ 4 rooms			
		5. □ 5 rooms			
		6. □ 6 rooms			
		7. □ more than 7 rooms			
11.	Do you have your	1. □ Yes			
	own cultivated land?	2. □ No	•	Go to 13	LAND
12.	If yes, what is the	1 Katta			
	total area of land	2. ——Bighas			LANDSIZE
	owned?	3. ——Ropani			
		4 Aana			
		5 Paisa			
		6. ——Dhur			
		7Nali			
		8Mana			

		9. □ Other		
13.	Do you have animals	1. □ Yes		
	(domestic)?	2. □ No —	Go to 15	ANIMALS
14.	If yes, how many?	1. Buffalo		
		2. Cows, bulls		
		3. Horses, donkeys		ANIMNUMB
		4. Goats, sheep		
		5. Chicken, ducks		
		6. Pigs		
		7. Yaks ——		
		8. Others		
15.	Do you have a	1. □ Yes		KITCHGARD
	kitchen garden?	2. □ No	Go to 17	
16.	Which of the	1. □ Tomatoes		GARDVEG
10.	following vegetables	2. □ Onions		G/IRD VEG
	do you grow in your			
	kitchen garden?	3. □ Carrots		
	(multiple answers)	4. □ Pepper		
	(manipie answers)	5. □ Corn		
		6. □ Cucumber		
		7. □ Other		
17.	What of the	1.   Electricity		FACILITIES
	following does your	2. □ A radio		
	household have?	3. □ A television		
	(multiple answers)	4. □ A mobile telephone		
		5. □ A land line telephone		
		6. ☐ A refrigerator		
		7. □ A computer		
		8. □ A heater		
		9. ☐ A sawing machine		
		10. ☐ A tractor		
		11. □ Nothing		
18.	What of the	1. □ Bicycle		TRANSPORT
	following transport	2. □ Rickshaw		
	facilities does your	3. ☐ Motorcycle or motor scooter		
	household have?	4. ☐ Tempo		
	(multiple answers)	5. □ Animal- drawn cart		
		6. □ Car		
		o. □ Car  7. □ Truck		
		8. ☐ Jeep		
		9. □ Bus		
		10. □ Other		
		11. □ Nothing		

WATI	ER, HYGIENE AND SA	NITATION: HOUSEHOLD		
19.	Where do you get your main source of drinking water from?	□ Piped water available at home     □ Tubewell/ Borehole     □ Public tap     □ Dugwell     □ River/stream     □ Spring, pond     □ Rainwater     □ Bought in tanker     □ Well (Kuwa)     □ Other		MAINWATER
20.	Do you treat your water to make it safer?	1. □ Yes 2. □ No	Go to 22	TREATWATER
21.	If yes, how do you treat it?	<ol> <li>Boil</li> <li>Water filter</li> <li>Chlorination (waterguard,piyush, aquatablets)</li> <li>SODIS</li> <li>Strain through cloth</li> <li>Let it stand and settle</li> <li>Other</li> </ol>		HOWTREAT
22.	Do you have toilet facility in your home?	1. □ Yes 2. □ No	Go to	TOILET
23.	What type of toilet facility does this household use?	<ol> <li>  Flush toilet</li> <li>  Pit latrine</li> <li>  Bio gas toilet</li> <li>  Eco toilet</li> <li>  Other</li> </ol>		TOILTYPE
24.	If you have a toilet, does your child use the toilet?	1. □ Yes 2. □ No	Go to 26	CHILDTOILET
25.	If the child does not use the toilet, where did you dispose your child's feces the last time he/ she defecated?	<ol> <li>Dropped into toilet facility</li> <li>Rinse/ washed away in open area</li> <li>Rinsed/ washed away in drainage system</li> <li>Disposed somewhere in yard</li> <li>Buried</li> <li>Did nothing</li> <li>Other</li> </ol>		WHERETOI
26.	What do you use to wash your hands?	1. □ Nothing 2. □ Soap 3. □ Soil 4. □ Plain water 5. □ Ash 6. □ Other		WHATWASH

27.	Do you have soap in	n 1. □ Yes				SOAP		
	the house?	2. □ No						
	(CHECK IT!)							
C: FOOD SECURITY: HOUSEHOLD								
No	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS CO		CODING	G CATEGORIES	SKIP			
28.	What is the househo	old's two main	1.	☐ Crop farming		HINCOME		
	source of income?		2.	☐ Livestock farming				
			3.	☐ Fishing				
			4.	☐ Casual wage labour				
			5.	□ Remittance				
			6.	☐ Trade/ business				
			7.	☐ Assistance programmes (pensions, development aid programmes, etc)				
			8.	□ Regular employment				
				☐ Forest products collection				
20	77 1 1	C 1		Other		DODDOW		
29.	Have you borrowed	money or rood		Yes		BORROW		
	in past 6 months?		2. 🗆	No				
20 II	1 . 0	4 WEDIZ I	HOUG			41		
			our HOUS	EHOLD eaten the following food items,	and what	was the main source of		
each food item consumed?						T		
	Food item	Number of days v		Main food source (where did you get	t from?)	Variable		
		food was eaten las			it from?)	Variable		
01				Insert code from below	it from?)			
01	Rice	food was eaten las			it from?)	HRICE		
02	Rice Maize	food was eaten las			t from?)	HRICE HMAIZE		
	Rice Maize Millet/ Wheat/	food was eaten las			tt from?)	HRICE		
02	Rice Maize Millet/ Wheat/ Barley/ Chino	food was eaten las			tt from?)	HRICE HMAIZE HFLOUR		
02 03 04	Rice Maize Millet/ Wheat/ Barley/ Chino Potato/ yam/ taro	food was eaten las			t from?)	HRICE HMAIZE HFLOUR HPOTATO		
02 03 04 05	Rice Maize Millet/ Wheat/ Barley/ Chino Potato/ yam/ taro Fish/ poultry	food was eaten las			tt from?)	HRICE HMAIZE HFLOUR HPOTATO HFISH		
02 03 04 05 06	Rice Maize Millet/ Wheat/ Barley/ Chino Potato/ yam/ taro Fish/ poultry Meat	food was eaten las			t from?)	HRICE HMAIZE HFLOUR HPOTATO HFISH HMEAT		
02 03 04 05 06	Rice Maize Millet/ Wheat/ Barley/ Chino Potato/ yam/ taro Fish/ poultry Meat Egg	food was eaten las			t from?)	HRICE HMAIZE HFLOUR HPOTATO HFISH HMEAT HEGG		
02 03 04 05 06 07	Rice Maize Millet/ Wheat/ Barley/ Chino Potato/ yam/ taro Fish/ poultry Meat Egg Pulses/ lentil	food was eaten las			t from?)	HRICE HMAIZE HFLOUR HPOTATO HFISH HMEAT HEGG HPULSES		
02 03 04 05 06	Rice Maize Millet/ Wheat/ Barley/ Chino Potato/ yam/ taro Fish/ poultry Meat Egg	food was eaten las			t from?)	HRICE HMAIZE HFLOUR HPOTATO HFISH HMEAT HEGG		
02 03 04 05 06 07 08	Rice Maize Millet/ Wheat/ Barley/ Chino Potato/ yam/ taro Fish/ poultry Meat Egg Pulses/ lentil Green vegetables	food was eaten las			tt from?)	HRICE HMAIZE HFLOUR HPOTATO HFISH HMEAT HEGG HPULSES HVEG		
02 03 04 05 06 07	Rice Maize Millet/ Wheat/ Barley/ Chino Potato/ yam/ taro Fish/ poultry Meat Egg Pulses/ lentil	food was eaten las			t from?)	HRICE HMAIZE HFLOUR HPOTATO HFISH HMEAT HEGG HPULSES		
02 03 04 05 06 07 08	Rice Maize Millet/ Wheat/ Barley/ Chino Potato/ yam/ taro Fish/ poultry Meat Egg Pulses/ lentil Green vegetables Fruits	food was eaten las			tt from?)	HRICE HMAIZE HFLOUR HPOTATO HFISH HMEAT HEGG HPULSES HVEG		
02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09	Rice Maize Millet/Wheat/ Barley/Chino Potato/yam/taro Fish/ poultry Meat Egg Pulses/lentil Green vegetables Fruits Milk (including	food was eaten las			t from?)	HRICE HMAIZE HFLOUR HPOTATO HFISH HMEAT HEGG HPULSES HVEG		
02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09	Rice Maize Millet/ Wheat/ Barley/ Chino Potato/ yam/ taro Fish/ poultry Meat Egg Pulses/ lentil Green vegetables Fruits	food was eaten las			t from?)	HRICE HMAIZE HFLOUR HPOTATO HFISH HMEAT HEGG HPULSES HVEG		
02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09	Rice Maize Millet/ Wheat/ Barley/ Chino Potato/ yam/ taro Fish/ poultry Meat Egg Pulses/ lentil Green vegetables  Fruits  Milk (including powder milk),	food was eaten las			tt from?)	HRICE HMAIZE HFLOUR HPOTATO HFISH HMEAT HEGG HPULSES HVEG		
02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09	Rice Maize Millet/Wheat/ Barley/Chino Potato/yam/taro Fish/poultry Meat Egg Pulses/lentil Green vegetables  Fruits  Milk (including powder milk), yogurt, cheese	food was eaten las			t from?)	HRICE HMAIZE HFLOUR HPOTATO HFISH HMEAT HEGG HPULSES HVEG		
02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09	Rice Maize Millet/ Wheat/ Barley/ Chino Potato/ yam/ taro Fish/ poultry Meat Egg Pulses/ lentil Green vegetables Fruits Milk (including powder milk), yogurt, cheese etc.	food was eaten las	st week		t from?)	HRICE HMAIZE HFLOUR HPOTATO HFISH HMEAT HEGG HPULSES HVEG HFRUIT HMILK		
02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09	Rice Maize Millet/ Wheat/ Barley/ Chino Potato/ yam/ taro Fish/ poultry Meat Egg Pulses/ lentil Green vegetables Fruits Milk (including powder milk), yogurt, cheese etc.	food was eaten las	st week		tt from?)	HRICE HMAIZE HFLOUR HPOTATO HFISH HMEAT HEGG HPULSES HVEG HFRUIT HMILK		
02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09	Rice Maize Millet/ Wheat/ Barley/ Chino Potato/ yam/ taro Fish/ poultry Meat Egg Pulses/ lentil Green vegetables  Fruits  Milk (including powder milk), yogurt, cheese etc. Ghee/ oil/ butter	food was eaten las	st week		t from?)	HRICE HMAIZE HFLOUR HPOTATO HFISH HMEAT HEGG HPULSES HVEG HFRUIT HMILK		

Food s	Food source codes					
1= Ow	n production (crop, animals)					
2= Pur	chase on market, shop etc.					
3= Hu	nting, fishing, gathering					
4= Rec	eived in- kind against labour or against o	ther items				
5= Bor	rowed					
6= Gif	t of food from family/ relatives					
7= Foo	od aid (NGOs, WFP)					
31.	In the past 4 weeks, did you or any	1. □ Yes Go to	SMALLMEAL			
	household member have to eat a	33				
	smaller meal than you felt needed	2. □ No				
	because there was not enough food?					
32.	How often did this happen?	□ Rarely (once or twice in the month)	SMALLMEAL2			
		2. ☐ Sometimes (three to ten times in the past				
		months)				
		3. □ Often (more than ten times the last				
		month)				
		,				
22	7.0	4. □ Everyday	D A GTTPO OD GIAO			
33.	In the past 4 weeks, did you or any	1. □ Yes Go to	PASTFOODSHO			
	other household member have to eat	2. □ No 35				
	fewer meals a day because there was					
	not enough food?					
34.	How often did this happen?	1. □ Rarely (once or twice in the past month)	PASTFOODSHO2			
		2. □ Sometimes (three to ten times in the past				
		month)				
		3. $\Box$ Often (more than ten times in the past				
		months)				
		4. □ Everyday				
35.	In the past 4 weeks, did you or any	1. □ Yes	NOFOOD			
	household members go a whole day	Go to				
	without eating anything because	2. □No 37				
	there was not enough food?					
36.	How often did this happen?	1.   Rarely (once or twice in the past month)	NOFOOD2			
		2. ☐ Sometimes (three to ten times in the past				
		month)				
		3. □ Often (more than ten times in the past				
		month)				
		4. □ Everyday				
37.	In the past 4 weeks, did your	1. □ Yes Go to	SAVINGS			
	household spend savings on food?	2. \( \sum \text{No} \) \( \sum \text{39} \)				
2.2			g.v.mvc.			
38.	How often did this happen?	1. □ Rarely (once or twice in the past month)	SAVINGS2			
		2. □ Sometimes (three to ten times in the past				
		month)				
		3. □ Often (more than ten times in the past				
		month)				
		4. □ Everyday				

39.	In the past 4 weeks, did your household collect wild food due to the shortage of food?	1. □ Yes 2. □No →	Go to	WILD
40.	How often did this happen?	<ol> <li>Rarely (once or twice in the past month)</li> <li>Sometimes (three to ten times in the past month)</li> <li>Often (more than ten times in the past month)</li> <li>Everyday</li> </ol>		WILD2
41.	In the past four weeks, did your household restrict consumption by adults in order for small children to eat?	1. □ Yes 2. □No →	Go to 43	RESTRICT
42.	How often did this happen?	<ol> <li>Rarely (once or twice in the past month)</li> <li>Sometimes (three to ten times in the past month)</li> <li>Often (more than ten times in the past month)</li> <li>Everyday</li> </ol>		RESTRICT2
43.	In the past four weeks, did your household consume seed stocks held for the next season?	1. □ Yes 2. □No	Go to 45	SEEDSTOCK
44.	How often did this happen?	<ol> <li>Rarely (once or twice in the past month)</li> <li>Sometimes (three to ten times in the past month)</li> <li>Often (more than ten times in the past month)</li> <li>Everyday</li> </ol>		SEEDSTOCK2
45.	In the past four weeks, did your household take children out of school to work?	1.	Go to 47	CHILDLABOUR
46.	How often did this happen?	<ol> <li>Rarely (once or twice in the past month)</li> <li>Sometimes (three to ten times in the past month)</li> <li>Often (more than ten times in the past month)</li> <li>Everyday</li> </ol>		CHILDLABOUR2
47.	In the past four weeks, have you begged for food?	1. □ Yes 2. □No	Go to	BEGGING
48.	How often did this happen?	<ol> <li>Rarely (once or twice in the past month)</li> <li>Sometimes (three to ten times in the past month)</li> <li>Often (more than ten times in the past month)</li> <li>Everyday</li> </ol>		BEGGING2
49.	In the past four weeks, have you borrowed food?	1. □ Yes 2. □No	Go to	BORROWFOOD

50.	How often did this happen?	1.	☐ Rarely (once or twice in the past month)	BORROWFOOD2
		2.	☐ Sometimes (three to ten times in the past	
			month)	
		3.	☐ Often (more than ten times in the past	
			month)	
		4.	□ Everyday	
51.	In the past four weeks, did any of	1.	□ Yes	MIGRATE
	your household members out	2.	□ No	
	migrate?			
52.	In the past four weeks, did your	1.	□Yes	SELLLAND
	household sell land?	2.	□No	
53.	In the past four weeks, did your	1.	□Yes	SELLHHASSETS
	household sell your household assets	2.	□No	
	(e.g. jewllery, kitchen, utensils)?			
54.	In the past four weeks, did your	1.	□ Yes	SELLAGASSETS
	household sell agricultural assets	2.	□ No	
	(e.g. tools, seeds, livestock's)?			
55.	What is the main reason for the food	1.	☐ Drought/ irregular rains/ hailstorm	SHORTWHY
	shortage?	2.	□ Floods	
		3.	☐ Landslide/ erosion	
		4.	☐ Crop pest/ disease	
		5.	☐ Livestock disease	
		6.	☐ Lack of loss of employment	
		7.	☐ Human disease/ illness or accident	
			household (HH) member	
		8.	☐ Death of working HH member	
		9.	☐ Food price increase	
		10.	☐ No supply in relevant market	
		11.	☐ Theft/ kidnapping/ fraud	
		12.	□ Conflict/ bandha/ threatening/	
			intimidation	
		13.	□ Fire	
		14.		
			☐ Low price of HH business products	
		16.		
			☐ Other	
		17.	- Omei	
56.	Do you expect food shortage for the	1.	□ Yes	FUTURESHORTAGE
	coming months?	2.	□No	
57.	Do you expect the upcoming harvest	1.	□Yes	FUTUREHARVEST
	to be lower than last year?	2.	□No	

	D: CARE						
	Infant and young child feeding practices: ONLY FOR A CHILD AGED 0-23 months						
No.	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS	CODING CATEGORIES	SKIP	VARIABLE			
58.	Child name			CHILDNAME			
59.	Birth date of the child(dd/mm/year)			CHILDAGE			
60.	Age in months			AGEMONTH			
61.	Sex of the child? (F= female, M= male)	1. □ M 2. □ F		GENDER			
62.	Did you feed the child anything else than breastmilk immediately after birth?	1. Yes 2. No	Go to 64	BORNFOOD			
63.	If yes , what?	□ Honey     □ Sugar water     □ Water     □ Ghee     □ Others		WTBFOOD			
64.	Have you ever breastfed your child?	1. □ Yes 2. □ No	Go to 70	EVERBF			
65.	Is the child still breast fed?	1. □ Yes 2. □ No	Go to 68	NOWBF			
66.	If not currently breastfeeding, for how long did you breastfeed?	Months		DURBF			
67	For how long did you exclusive breast fed you child?	Months		DUREXBF			
68.	How long after birth did you start breast feeding?	1. □ 0-1 hour 2. □ 2-6 hours 3. □ 7-12 hours 4. □ Within 12 hours 5. □ After 2 days 6. □ After 3 days 7. □ Other		STARTBF			
69.	Did the child receive breast milk yesterday?	1. □ Yes 2. □ No	Go to 71	STILLBF			
70.	If you didn't breast fed your child, what was the reason? (multiple answers)	<ol> <li>Workload</li> <li>New pregnancy</li> <li>Not enough breast milk</li> <li>Start using contraception</li> <li>Child ill/ weak</li> <li>Mother ill/ weak</li> </ol>		WHYNOBF			

		7. □ Nipple/breast problem		
		8. □ Child refused		
		9. ☐ Weaning age/ age to stop		
		10. □ Other		
71.	If you breast fed the child yesterday,	Times		FREQDAY
, = .	how many times did you breastfeed			
	yesterday during the daylight hours?			
72.	If you breast fed the child yesterday,	Times		FREQNIGHT
72.	how many times did you breastfeed			TREQUIOTT
	last night between sunset and			
	sunrise?			
72		1.07		EVODE
73.	Did you exclusive breast feed (give	1. □ Yes		EXCBF
	no other liquid or food) your child	2. □ No		
	yesterday?			
74.	Did he/ she drink anything from a	1. □ Yes		BOTTLE
	bottle with a nipple yesterday or last	2. □ No		
	night?			
75.	Since yesterday, has the child	1. □ Yes	Go to	LIQUID
	received anything to drink other than	2. □ No	77	
	breast milk?			
76.	If yes, what was given to drink?	1.   Milk (other than breast milk)		LIQUIDWHAT
		2. □ Plain water		
		3. ☐ Sugar or glucose water		
		4. □ Gripe water		
		5. □ Sugar- salt- water solution		
		6. □ Fruit juice		
		7.   Infant formula		
		8. □ Tea/ infusions		
		9. ☐ Honey		
		10. □ Other		
77.	How old was the child when he/ she			AGECF
	was introduced to solid, semi- solid	——Months		
	or soft solid food (complementary			
	feeding) for the first time?			
78.	Did your child receive solid, semi-	1. □ Yes	Go to	INTROCF
	solid or soft solid food during the	2. □ No	80	
	previous day?			
79.	If yes, how many times did the child	1.		FREQCOMPL
	if jes, now many times are the cime			
	eat solid, semi- solid, or soft foods?	2. □ 2 times		
		2. □ 2 times 3. □ 3 times		
		2. □ 2 times		
		2. □ 2 times 3. □ 3 times		
		2. □ 2 times 3. □ 3 times		

nu ti	ne child eat the followin	g the previous day:				
NO.	FOOD GROUPS	EXAMPLES	1.YES	2.No	,	VARIABLE
01.	Grains, roots and tubers	Bread, chivada, rice, porridge, maize, wheat	1.YES	2.No	•	GRAINROTU
02.	Legumes and nuts	Beans, peas, lentils, nuts, seeds or food made from these	1.YES	2.No	]	LEGNUT
03.	Dairy products	milk, curds, cheese or other milk products	1.YES	1.YES 2.No I		DAIRY
04.	Flesh foods	Pork, lamb, goat, rabbit, wild game, chicken, duck or other birds. Fresh or dried fish. Poultry, liver, kidney, heart and other organ meats or blood based food.	1.YES	2.No		FLESH
05.	Eggs		1.YES	2.No	]	EGG
06.	Vitamin A rich fruits and vegetables	Ripe mangoes, dried amla, Pumpkin, carrots, squash, or sweet potatoes that are orange inside	1.YES	ZES 2.No		VITA FRUIT
07.	Other fruits and vegetables	Other fruits including wild fruits 1.YES 2.N			1	FRUIT
Respo	onsibility of child 0- 59	MONTHS				
81.	Do you do any paid work?	1. □ Yes 2. □ No		Go	to 84	PAIDWORK
82.	If yes, where do you work?	<ol> <li>On the farm belonging to the hounce.</li> <li>On another farm in the area.</li> <li>Office.</li> <li>Market/ streets.</li> <li>Own business (please specify)</li></ol>				WHEREWORK
83.	How long do you work?	<ol> <li>□ 0.5- 3.5 hours</li> <li>□ 4- 7.5 hours</li> <li>□ &gt; 8 hours</li> </ol>				HWORK
84.	When you leave your home to take off to daily activities (work, market, water etc.), what do you usually do with this child?	<ol> <li>Child comes with me every time</li> <li>Child stays at home alone</li> <li>Child stays with mother in law/ g</li> <li>Child stays at home with siblings</li> <li>Child stays at home with siblings</li> <li>Child stays at home with father</li> <li>Other</li> </ol>	older than 15			CARECH

86.	after the child most of the time?	<ol> <li>Mother</li> <li>Mother in law/ grandmother of the baby</li> <li>Father</li> <li>Grandfather</li> <li>Siblings older than 15 years old</li> <li>Siblings younger than 15 years old</li> <li>Other women in the village</li> <li>Other</li> <li>Mother</li> <li>Mother in law/ grandmother of the baby</li> </ol>		CAREFEEDING
		3. □ Father 4. □ Grandfather 5. □ Siblings older than 15 years old 6. □ Siblings younger than 15 years old 7. □ Other women in the village 8. □ Other		
87.	Who usually gives	1.		ADVICECHILD
	advice to the	2. ☐ Mother in law/ grandmother of the baby		
		3. □ Father		
	for this child?	4. ☐ Grandfather		
		5. ☐ Siblings older than 15 years old		
		6. ☐ Siblings younger than 15 years old		
		7. □ Other women in the village		
		8. □ Other		
E: PR	EVENTION AND CON	TROL OF DISEASES: CHILD 0- 59 MONTHS		
			Goto	SICK
E: PR	Has the child been sick	1. □ Yes	Go to	SICK
88.	Has the child been sick the last two weeks?	1. □ Yes 2. □ No	Go to 98	
	Has the child been sick the last two weeks? If yes, what type of	1.		SICK SICKWHAT
88.	Has the child been sick the last two weeks?	1.		
88.	Has the child been sick the last two weeks? If yes, what type of illness was it?	1.		
88.	Has the child been sick the last two weeks? If yes, what type of illness was it?	1.		
88.	Has the child been sick the last two weeks? If yes, what type of illness was it?	1.		
88.	Has the child been sick the last two weeks? If yes, what type of illness was it?	1.		
88.	Has the child been sick the last two weeks? If yes, what type of illness was it? (Multiple answers)	1.		SICKWHAT
88.	Has the child been sick the last two weeks?  If yes, what type of illness was it? (Multiple answers)	1.		SICKWHAT
88.	Has the child been sick the last two weeks?  If yes, what type of illness was it? (Multiple answers)  Was the child given drinks during the	1.		SICKWHAT
88.	Has the child been sick the last two weeks?  If yes, what type of illness was it? (Multiple answers)  Was the child given drinks during the	1.		SICKWHAT
88.	Has the child been sick the last two weeks?  If yes, what type of illness was it? (Multiple answers)  Was the child given drinks during the	1.		SICKWHAT
88.	Has the child been sick the last two weeks?  If yes, what type of illness was it? (Multiple answers)  Was the child given drinks during the	1.		SICKWHAT
88. 89.	Has the child been sick the last two weeks?  If yes, what type of illness was it? (Multiple answers)  Was the child given drinks during the illness?	1.		SICKWHAT
88. 89.	Has the child been sick the last two weeks?  If yes, what type of illness was it? (Multiple answers)  Was the child given drinks during the illness?	1.   Yes     2.   No		SICKWHAT

		5. □ Not eaten anything		
		6. □ Don't know		
92.	If currently	1. ☐ More than usual		ILLBREAST
	breastfeeding, was	2. □ Same as usual		
	breastfeeding	3. □ Less than usual		
	continued during the	4. □ Didn't give		
	time with illness?	5. Not eaten anything		
		6. Don't know		
93.	Did you seek advice or	1. ☐ Yes	Go to	TREATDIS
93.	treatment for the		95	TREATDIS
	illness from any	2. □ No	93	
	source?			
94.	If yes, where did you	□ Private hospital		HEALTHADVICE
,	first seek advice for	2. ☐ Government hospital		
	treatment	3.   Health Post/SHP		
		4. □ PHC		
		6. □ FCHVs		
		7. ☐ Medical		
		8.		
95.	Did you take the child	1. □ Yes	Go to	TREATMENT
	for treatment?	2. □ No	97	
96.	Where did you take for	□ Private hospital		TREATMENTWHERE
90.	the treatment			TREATMENT WHERE
	the treatment	2. ☐ Government hospital		
		3. ☐ Health Post/SHP		
		4. □ PHC		
		5.   Traditional healer		
		6. □ FCHVs		
		7. □ Medical		
		8.		
97.	If you did not bring the	□ Distance to treatment		NOHEALTHFACI
	child for treatment,	2. □ No staff at HF		
	why?	3. □ No drugs		
		4. ☐ Facility staff refuse to treat some patients		
		5. ☐ Facility staff are rude		
		6. □ Facility was closed		
		7.   Have to wait too long for treatment at the facility		
		8.   FCHV handled the treatment adequately		
		9. ☐ Price of treatment		
		10. ☐ No belief in the health facility		
		11. □ Other		

98.	Did your child receive	1. ☐ Yes		VITACHILD
	vitamin A capsule (red	2. □ No		
	capsules) within the	3. Don't know		
	last 6 months(for	3.   Don't know		
	children over 6			
	months)			
99.	Did the child receive	1. □ Yes		WORMCHILD
	de worming tablet	2. □ No		
	within the last 6	3. Don't know		
	months? ( for children	J. Bon tanow		
	above 12 months)			
100.	Is two child logo salt	1. □ Yes		SALT
	(iodized salt) used for	2. □ No		
	cooking?	2		
	(Observe!)			
101.	Did the child ever	1. □ Yes	Go to	VACCINATE
	receive any	2. □ No	105	
	vaccinations to prevent			
	her/ him from getting	3. □ Don't know		
	diseases, including			
	vaccinations received			
	in a national			
	immunization			
	campaign?			
102.	If yes, did the child	1. □ Yes	Go to	DPTHEPB
102.	receive a DPT- HepB,	2. □ No	104	5111.2.2
	that is, an injection	3. Don't know		
	given in the left thigh,	5.   Don't know		
	sometimes given at the			
	same time as polio			
	drops?			
103.	If yes, how many times	Times		DPTHPBTIMES
	was a DPT- HepB			
	vaccination given?			
104.	If yes, did the child	1. □ Yes		MEASLES
	receive a measles	2. □ No		
	injection, that is, a shot	3. □ Don't know		
	in the arm at the age of	3.   Don t know		
	9 months or older, to			
	prevent him/ her from			
	getting measles?			
	<i>g g</i>			
			]	

No	QUESTION	CODING CATEGORIES		VARIABLE
105.	Child name			CNAME
06.	Does (name) have a birth	1. □ Yes, seen		BIRTHCER
	certificate? May I see?	_		
		2. ☐ Yes, not seen	Go to 108	
		3. □ No		
		4. □ Don't know		
	Has (name's) birth	1. □ Yes		BIRTHREG
	registered with the civil	2. □ No →	G . 100	
;	authorities?	3. □ Don't know →	Go to 109	
108.	Why is (name's) birth not	□ Costs too much		NOBIRTH
1	registered?	2. ☐ Must travel too far		
		3. □ Did not know it should be		
		registered		
		4. □ Did not want to pay fine		
		5. □ Does not know where to		
		register		
		6. □ Don't know		
		7. □ Other		
109.	Do you know how to	1. □ Yes		HOWREG
1	register your child's	2. □ No		
1	birth?			
110.	The child's birth			CAGE
	date(dd/mm/yy)			
111.	Age in months			CAGEMONTH
112.	Child's sex	1. □ M		CSEX
		2. □ F		
113.	Oedema	1. □ Yes		OEDEMA
		2. □ No		
114.	MUAC1	. cm		MUAC1
115.	MUAC2	<u>cm</u>		MUAC2
116.	Weight 1	<u>kg</u>		WEIGHT1
117.	Weight 2	<u>kg</u>		WEGHT2
118.	Height 1	<u>. cm</u>		
				HEIGHT1
119.	Height 2	<u>cm</u>		HEIGHTS
120	Is haight mass arms 4 1-4-	1 01		HEIGHT2
	Is height measured lying down or standing up?	<ol> <li>□ Lying down</li> <li>□ Standing up</li> </ol>		HEIGHTHOW
	How many miscarriages	children		CHILDDEATHS
	have you had the last 5			
	years?			