PROTOCOL FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF SEVERE ACUTE MALNUTRITION



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ACRONYMS

ART	Anti Retroviral Treatment
BMI	Body Mass Index (Kg weight per height in metres squared – Kg/m^2)
CBC	Community Based Care (OTP plus community mobilisation plus TFU)
CMV	Combined Vitamins and Minerals (used in preparing therapeutic diets)
F75	Therapeutic milk used only in Phase 1 of treatment for SAM
F100	Therapeutic milk used in Transition Phase and Phase 2 of treatment of SAM (for in-patients only)
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IMCI	Integrated Management of Childhood Illness
IU	International Units
MUAC	Mid Upper Arm Circumference
NCHS	National Centre for Health Statistics of USA (anthropometric standards)
NGT	Naso-Gastric Tube
NRU	Nutrition Rehabilitation Unit (same as TFU)
OPD	Out Patient Department (of health facility)
ORS	Oral Rehydration Salt
OTP	Out-patient Therapeutic Programme (treatment of SAM at home)
RDA	Recommended Dietary Allowances
ReSoMal	Oral REhydration SOlution for severely MALnourished patients
RUTF	Ready-to-Use Therapeutic Food
RWG	Rate of Weight Gain
SAM	Severe Acute Malnutrition (wasting and/or nutritional oedema)
SFP	Supplementary Feeding Programme
TB	Tuberculosis
TFU	Therapeutic Feeding Unit (in hospital, health centre or other facility)
TFP	Therapeutic Feeding Programme
W/H	Weight for Height
W/L	Weight for Length

INTRODUCTION

Improving nutrition is essential to reduce extreme poverty. Since the famine of the mid-eighties, the images of severe drought and large scale starvation have become inexorably linked with Ethiopia. Malnutrition can best be described in Ethiopia as a long term year round phenomenon due to chronic inadequacies in food instance combined with high levels of illness. It is not a problem found uniquely during drought years, but a year round chronic problem found in majority of households across all regions of the country.

More than half of all deaths in children have stunting and wasting as the underlying cause: that is, they are too thin or too short for their age because they have not had sufficient type II nutrients (the growth nutrients that are required to build new tissue) to grow properly and many have lost weight. These children would have recovered from other illnesses if they had not been malnourished, but because they are malnourished they die. To this toll must be added the deaths of children with type I nutrient deficiencies (the functional nutrients that are required for the hormonal, immunological, biochemical and other processes of the body to function normally). Thus, most deaths in childhood have some form of malnutrition as the underlying cause.

Stunting is due to chronic malnutrition while wasting and oedema are due to acute malnutrition. Although there is some initial response to treatment using these guidelines, the treatment has to be continued for a sufficiently long time to make it inappropriate to treat stunting according to these guidelines. Other approaches that ensure the long-term improvements in the quality of the family diet are used (e.g. positive deviance programmes and family economic support such as micro-credit) as well as managing the convalescent phase of acute illnesses. The community mobilisation part of these guidelines can usefully provide a starting point for such programmes.

Acute Malnutrition is classified into severe acute malnutrition[1] (SAM) and moderate acute malnutrition (MAM) according to the degree of wasting and the presence of oedema. It is severe acute malnutrition if the wasting is severe (W/H < 70% NCHS median or a low MUAC) or there is oedema. Acute Malnutrition is defined as moderate acute malnutrition if the wasting is less severe (W/H between 70% and 80% NCHS median); oedematous cases are always classified as severe. These guidelines address the treatment of SAM.

In many health facilities the mortality rate from severe malnutrition is at present over 20%; this is unacceptable. If these guidelines are carefully followed the mortality rate should be less than 5%, even in areas with a high prevalence of HIV/AIDS.

Severe malnutrition is both a medical and a social disorder. Successful management of the severely malnourished patients requires that both medical and social problems be recognised and corrected. If the illness is viewed as being only a medical disorder, the patient is likely to relapse when he/she returns home and the rest of the family will remain at risk of developing the same problem. Therefore, successful management of severe malnutrition does not require sophisticated facilities and equipment neither highly qualified personnel. It does, however require that each child be treated with proper care and affection.

With this management the products (F75, F100 and RUTF) and other treatment usually leads to very rapid reversal of the clinical features of SAM. Unfortunately, this entails large movements of electrolytes and water between the various compartments of the body. This temporary electrolyte disequilibrium makes the patients even more vulnerable to misdiagnosis and mismanagement of such conditions as dehydration or severe anaemia that can lead to death from heart failure. Thus, it is very important that the whole guideline is implemented along with the introduction of the therapeutic products, particularly the diagnosis and management of the complications during in-patient care. It is only appropriate to refer SAM patients to facilities where the proper training in the care of the severely malnourished has been accomplished; in particular, the staff in emergency wards need to

[1] The term "protein-energy malnutrition" is no longer used as it is not thought that protein or energy deficiency, per se, are the usual causes of severe acute malnutrition.

understand that the standard treatment of complications given to non-malnourished children can lead to the death if the patient is severely malnourished.

This document outlines the steps and procedures for treating a severely malnourished patient in a Therapeutic Feeding Unit (TFU, hospital or in the community. It is presented in 2 major sections. The first part deals with the age group from six months old to adulthood. The treatment for the infants less than 6 months old has major differences and is presented separately. It revises the May 2004 Guideline for the Management of Severe Acute Malnutrition.

Patients with appetite and no medical complication or those completely recovered from any medical complication can be treated at home on an out-patient basis. More details on out-patient treatment of SAM are included in this document. Community mobilisation, emotional wellbeing and stimulation, HIV/AIDS and malnutrition and health and nutrition information are also presented in more detail in this document. The experience using the current guideline shows that there is significant decline in the mortality rate. We hope that using this revised protocol will reduce further the mortality due to severe malnutrition.

1. IMPLEMENTATION MODALITIES

The principles of management of severe acute malnutrition, whatever the programme setting, are based on 3 phases.

- **Phase 1.** Patients without an adequate appetite and/or a major medical complication are initially admitted to an in-patient facility for Phase 1 treatment. The formula used during this phase (F75) promotes recovery of normal metabolic function and nutrition-electrolytic balance. Rapid weight gain at this stage is dangerous, that is why F75 is formulated so that patients do not gain weight during this stage.
- **Transition Phase.** A transition phase has been introduced for in-patients because a sudden change to large amounts of diet, before physiological function is restored, can be dangerous and lead to electrolyte disequilibrium. During this phase the patients start to gain weight as F100 or RUTF is introduced. The quantity of F100 given is equal to the quantity of F75 given in Phase 1 or an equivalent amount of RUTF. As this is resulting in a 30% increase in energy intake the weight gain should be around 6 g/kg/day; this is less than the quantity given, and rate of weight gain expected, in Phase 2.
- **Phase 2.** Whenever patients have good appetite and no major medical complication they enter Phase 2. Many patients who present with a good appetite are admitted directly into Phase 2. This can occur in both in-patient and out-patient settings. In Phase 2 they are given RUTF (used in both in-patient and out-patient settings) or F100 (used in in-patient settings only) according to look-up tables. Those formulas are designed for patients to rapidly gain weight (more than 8 g/kg/day). The look-up tables are scaled so that the same tables can be used to treat patients of all weights and ages.

Whereas the underlying principles of the protocol remain the same, the ways of implementing the programmes can vary considerably depending upon the numbers of patients that require treatment, the severity of the illness and the facilities available.

- **In-patient**: management of severe malnutrition from hospitals and health centres (ideally only for Phase 1 and Transition Phase).
    - Patients that are admitted can be treated on a **24/24 hour** basis (receiving the diet as in-patients with full medical surveillance and treatment of complications (either 6 or 8 meals per 24 hours are given).
    - Patients can equally be treated on a **Day Care** system (receiving the diet in, 5 or 6 meals during the day).
        - Patients who live or are hosted by family or friends in the immediate neighbourhood of the facility come each morning to receive treatment during the day and return home at night.
        - Those from far away should be able to sleep in the facility in a separate room or a separate local structure (tukul), on beds or mattresses on the floor[2]. Such treatment is called "residential day care". There is no provision of staff or treatment during the night.

For all in-patients, as soon as they regain their appetite and are ready for Phase 2 they should continue treatment as out-patients wherever the carer agrees and an out-patient programme is in place. In exceptional circumstances they can remain in the in-patient/day-care facility for Phase 2.

[2] It is better to avoid cage-beds that prevent mothers sleeping with their children and putting children at risk of hypothermia, emotional stress and interruption of breast feeding; this applies to all facilities.

- **Out-patients.** Out-patient treatment is normally organised from the same facilities that have in-patients. However, out-patient care, in the community, should also be organised from health posts or even non-clinical facilities that are close to the patients' homes. The patients attend on a weekly basis. Most patients can be managed entirely on an out-patient basis; so that there are normally many more out-patients than in-patients. For each in-patient facility there should be several/many satellite out-patient distribution and assessment sites ("OTP sites") close to the community.
- Patients attending the TB and ART programmes should be systematically screened for severe malnutrition and referred to the out-patient programme if they fulfil the admission criteria.
- There needs to be a functioning communication and referral system between the health post/ OTP site and the health centre/ hospital in-patient so that patients can be quickly and easily transferred from the in-patient facility to the out-patient programme as they enter Phase 2 and those out-patients that fail to respond appropriately or who develop a complication can be admitted (temporarily) as in-patients.
- Patients who pass the *appetite test* should normally be directly admitted to the OTP, if the caretaker agrees, without passing through phase 1 and transition phase. Patients that have started treatment as an in-patient, continue as out-patients to complete Phase 2. Out-patient programmes are run on a weekly basis. Exceptions can be made for individual patients living in very remote areas where they can be seen on a fortnightly basis after the initial two visits.
- **Mobile clinics:** when mobile health clinics are operating, especially in an emergency situation, the management of severe acute malnutrition should be incorporated. Screening is done using the MUAC tape and checking for oedema. Patients fulfilling the admission criteria are assessed and given a weekly RUTF ration (if they pass appetite test and medical check). Each week, their weight is taken until they reach their target weight (see table in annex 6). A proper referral system and transport is important for the patients that need in-patient care.

2. ADMISSION CRITERIA

All patients that fulfil any of the criteria in the following table have severe acute malnutrition (SAM).

They should be offered therapeutic feeding in one of the available settings.

AGE	ADMISSION CRITERIA
6 months to 18 years	➢ W/H or W/L < 70%[3] **or** ➢ MUAC < 110 mm with a Length > 65 cm[4] **or** ➢ Presence of bilateral pitting oedema
Adults	➢ MUAC < 170 mm **or** ➢ MUAC < 180 mm with recent weight loss or underlying chronic illness **or** ➢ BMI[5] < 16 with **or** ➢ Presence of bilateral pitting oedema (unless there is another clear cut cause)

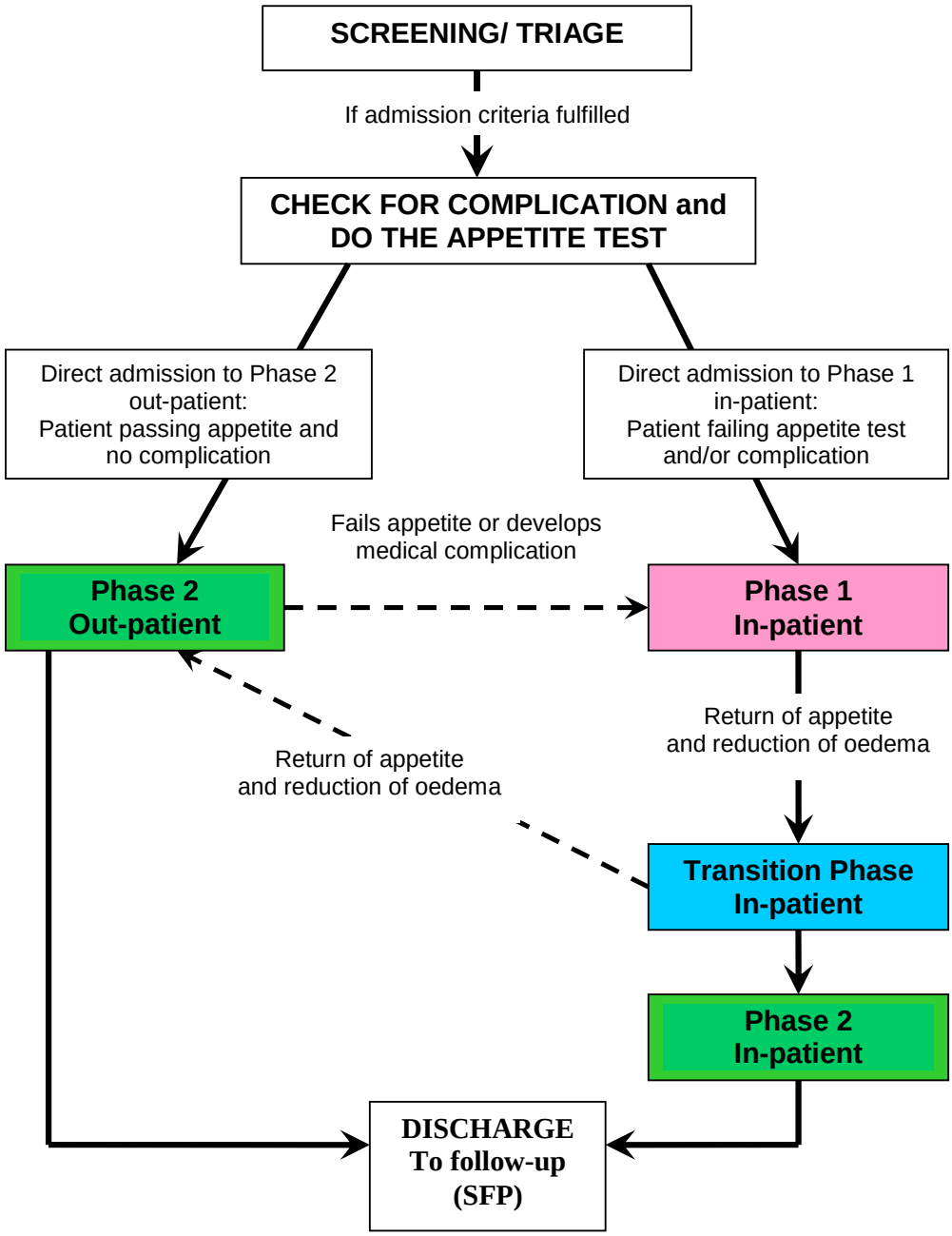
[3] OR less than minus 3 Z-score using the WHO-2005 standards

[4] There is no MUAC cut-off for older adolescent, Weight/Height and presence of oedema are the criteria used for admission

[5] BMI = Body Mass Index = Weight (kg)/ Height $(m)^2$

3. ADMISSION PROCEDURES

This figure shows the schema for the decision making process. First the patient is identified in the community or health structure by anthropometry and looking for oedema. The severely ill are "fast tracked" to treatment by the person doing triage. The appetite test is performed whilst waiting to see the nurse who looks for the presence of medical complications. He/she discusses with the caretaker and decides upon the appropriate treatment options. Those that need in-patient treatment are referred for admission to a TFU; those that can be treated as out-patients are referred the OTP site nearest to their home. The details are described in the next section.



- Screen the patients in the community (MUAC and check for oedema) and the waiting area of the OPD of health facilities (MUAC, weight, height/ length, oedema). And refer the patients to a TFP if they fulfil the criteria for SAM. Every opportunity should be taken to identify patients that require therapeutic feeding for severe malnutrition.
- At the TFP, retake the anthropometric measurements (MUAC at OTP/mobile clinics and both MUAC and W/H at health facilities) and check oedema. Errors during screening occur; the referred patients are given some benefit, but are not enrolled in the programme[6]. There has to be feed-back to the community worker and possible retaining.
- On arrival at the therapeutic feeding programme (OTP, TFU, health centre or hospital), obviously ill children and those that will clearly need in-patient or other medical treatment should immediately be given sugar water[7] and "fast tracked" without having to wait for the rest of the patients to be seen. They have their anthropometry checked and are then referred directly to the nurse-in-charge or to the in-patient facility to start treatment[8].
- For those that do not require "fast tracking" and fulfil the criteria for SAM - perform the Appetite Test. This can usefully be done whilst the patients are waiting to see the nurse/ medical officer. If the appetite test is to be delayed until after the patient has seen the nurse then give a drink of sugar-water. All patients should have something to drink (water or sugar-water) and/or eat (RUTF for during appetite test) shortly after they come to the centre.

The Appetite Test

Why do the appetite test?

- Malnutrition changes the way infections and other diseases express themselves – children severely affected by the classical IMCI diseases, who are malnourished, frequently show no signs of these diseases. However, the major complications lead to a loss of appetite. Most importantly, the signs of severe malnutrition itself are often interpreted as dehydration in a child that is not actually dehydrated. The diagnosis and treatment of dehydration are different in these patients. Giving conventional treatment for dehydration to the severely malnourished is very dangerous.
- Even though the definition and identification of the severely malnourished is by anthropometric measurements, there is not a perfect correlation between anthropometric and metabolic malnutrition. It is mainly metabolic malnutrition that causes death. Often the only sign of severe ***metabolic*** malnutrition is a reduction in appetite. By far the most important criterion to decide if a patient should be sent to in- or out- patient management is the Appetite Test. A poor appetite means that the child has a significant infection or a major metabolic abnormality such as liver dysfunction, electrolyte imbalance, cell membrane damage or damaged biochemical pathways. These are the patients at immediate risk of death. Furthermore, a child with a poor appetite will not take the diet at home and will continue to deteriorate or die. As the patient does not eat the special therapeutic food (RUTF) the family will take the surplus and become

[6] Those patients that have been referred by the community worker but who do not fulfilled the criteria for SAM should either be admitted to the supplementary feeding programme (if it is operational); where there is no SFP they should be given a "protection ration" or one week's supply of RUTF. It is important that they receive some tangible benefit from attending to triage site.

[7] Sugar water is approximately 10% sugar solution – 10g of sugar per 100ml of water

[8] If the in-patient facility is a long way away the transport can lead to serious deterioration of the patient. Admit the patient to OTP, keep the patient quiet and start treatment pending the availability of transport. Fill the transfer form with Unique SAM number and treatment given. Consider not transporting the child if it is thought that the stress of transport will be more detrimental than attempting to resuscitate the child on site or at home.

habituated to sharing.

How to do the appetite test?

1. The appetite test should be conducted in a separate quiet area.
2. Explain to the carer the purpose of the appetite test and how it will be carried out.
3. The carer, where possible, should wash his hands.
4. The carer should sit comfortably with the child on his lap and either offer the RUTF from the packet or put a small amount on his finger and give it to the child.
5. The carer should offer the child the RUTF gently, encouraging the child all the time. If the child refuses then the carer should continue to quietly encourage the child and take time over the test. The test usually takes a short time but may take up to one hour. The child **must not** be forced to take the RUTF.
6. The child needs to be offered plenty of water to drink from a cup as he/she is taking the RUTF.

The result of the appetite test

Pass.

1. A child that takes at least the amount shown in the table below passes the appetite test.
2. The patient is now seen by the nurse to determine if he/she has a major complication (e.g. pneumonia, acute watery diarrhoea, etc.). If s/he has no medical complication, has not got open skin lesions, oedema +++ or both wasting and oedema together then he should normally be treated as an out-patient.
3. Explain to the carer the choices of treatment option and decide *with the carer* whether the child should be treated as an out-patient or in-patient (nearly all carers will opt for out-patient treatment).
4. Give the patient a SAM-unique number and fill in the registration book and OTP treatment chart (see annex 5).
5. Start the Phase 2 treatment appropriate for out-patients (see below)

Fail

1. A child that does not take at least the amount of RUTF shown in the table below should be referred for in-patient care.
2. Explain to the carer the choices of treatment options and the reasons for recommending in-patient care; decide *with the carer* whether the patient will be treated as an in-patient or out-patient.
3. Refer the patient to the nearest TFU for Phase 1 management.
4. At the TFU the patient is given a SAM-unique number and the registration book and multichart are filled (see annex 4).
5. Start treatment of Phase 1, and complications appropriate for in-patients.

- Even if the carer/health worker thinks the child is not taking the RUTF because s/he doesn't like the taste or is frightened, the child still needs to be referred to in-patient care for least a short time. If it is later found that the child actually takes sufficient RUTF to pass the test then they can be immediately transferred to the out-patient treatment.
- The appetite test should always be performed carefully. Patients who fail their appetite tests should always be offered treatment as in-patients. If there is any doubt then the patient should be referred for in-patient treatment until the appetite returns (this is also the main criterion for an in-patient to continue treatment as an out-patient).

- The patient has to take at least the amount that will maintain body weight. A patient should not be sent home if they are likely to continue to deteriorate because they will not take sufficient therapeutic food. Ideally they should take at least the amount that children are given during the transition phase of in-patient treatment before they progress to Phase 2 (good appetite during the test).
- Sometimes a child will not eat the RUTF because he is frightened, distressed or fearful of the environment or staff. This is particularly likely if there is a crowd, a lot of noise, other distressed children or intimidating health professionals (white coats, awe-inspiring tone). The appetite test should be conducted a separate quiet area. If a quiet area is not possible then the appetite can be tested outside.

The following table gives the MINIMUM amount of RUTF that should be taken.

APPETITE TEST

This is the *minimum* amount that malnourished patients should take to pass the appetite test

Plumpy'nut		***BP100***	
Body weight (Kg)	**Sachets**	**body weight (Kg)**	**Bars**
Less than 4 kg	1/8 to ¼	Less than 5 kg	¼ to ½
4 – 6.9	¼ to 1/3	5 -9.9	½ to ¾
7 – 9.9	1/3 to ½		
10 – 14.9	½ to ¾	10 – 14.9	¾ to 1
15 - 29	¾ to 1	15 -29	1 to 1 ½
Over 30 kg	>1	Over 30 kg	> 1 ½

RUTF paste	
body weight (Kg)	**Grams**
3 - 3.9	15 - 20
4 - 5.9	20 - 25
6 - 6.9	20 - 30
7 - 7.9	25 - 35
8 - 8.9	30 - 40
9 - 9.9	30 - 45
10 - 11.9	35 - 50
12 - 14.9	40 - 60
15 - 14.9	55 - 75
25 - 39	65 - 90
40 - 60	70 - 100

- The appetite test must be carried out at each visit for out-patients.
- Failure of an appetite test at any time is an indication for full evaluation and probably transfer for in-patient assessment and treatment.
- During the second and subsequent visits the intake should be very good if the patient is to recover reasonably quickly.

If the appetite is good during the appetite test and the rate of weight gain at home is poor then a home visit should be arranged. It may then be necessary to bring a child into in-patient care

to do a simple "trial of feeding" to differentiate i) a metabolic problem with the patient from ii) a difficulty with the home environment; such a trail-of-feeding, in a structured environment (e.g. TFU), is also frequently the first step in investigating failure to respond to treatment.

After conducting the appetite test the patients are seen by the nurse to determine if the patient is to be treated as an out-patient or in-patient.

If there is a serious medical complication then the patient should be referred for in-patient treatment[9] – these complications include the following:

- Bilateral pitting oedema Grade 3 (+++)
- Marasmus-Kwashiorkor (W/H<70% with oedema or MUAC<11cm with oedema)
- Severe vomiting/ intractable vomiting
- Hypothermia: axillary's temperature < 35°C or rectal < 35.5°C
- Fever > 39°C
- Number of breaths per minute:
  - 60 resps/ min for under 2 months
  - 50 resps/ minute from 2 to 12 months
  - >40 resps/minute from 1 to 5 years
  - 30 resps/minute for over 5 year-olds

    or
  - Any chest in-drawing
- Extensive skin lesions/ infection
- Very weak, lethargic, unconscious
- Fitting/convulsions
- Severe dehydration based on history & clinical signs
- Any condition that requires an infusion or NG tube feeding.
- Very pale (severe anaemia)
- Jaundice
- Bleeding tendencies
- Other general signs the clinician thinks warrants transfer to the in-patent facility for assessment.

Always explain to the carer the choices of treatment option and decide *with the carer* whether the child should be treated as an out-patient or in-patient. The carer may decide to be treated in-patient or out-patient despite the decision and advice of the health worker. In that case it has to be noted as the "carer's choice". Therefore carer's choice may dictate where the patient is admitted (in-patient or out-patient) regardless of the patient's clinical condition.

[9] The same criteria are used for transfer of a child from out-patient treatment to in-patient treatment.

I. Summary of Criteria for admission to in-patient or out-patient care

Factor	In-patient care	Out-patient care
Anthropometry	6 months to 18 years: ➢ W/H or W/L < 70% **or** ➢ MUAC < 110 mm with a Length > 65 cm Adults: ➢ MUAC < 180 mm with recent weight loss or underlying chronic illness **or** MUAC < 170 mm **or** ➢ BMI < 16	
Bilateral pitting oedema	Bilateral pitting oedema Grade 3 (+++) Marasmus-Kwashiorkor	Bilateral pitting oedema Grade 1 to 2 (+ and ++)
Appetite	Failed or equivocal Appetite test	Passes Appetite test
Choice of carer (at any stage of management – the carer is often the best judge of severity)	Carer chooses to start, continue or transfer to in-patient treatment. No suitable or willing carer.	Carer chooses to start, continue or transfer to out-patient treatment Reasonable home circumstances and a willing carer
Skin	Open skin lesions	No open skin lesions
Medical complications	- Severe vomiting/ intractable vomiting - Hypothermia: axillary's temperature <35°C or rectal <35.5°C - Fever > 39°C - Number of breaths per minute: - 60 resps/ min for under 2 months - 50 resps/ minute from 2 to 12 months - >40 resps/minute from 1 to 5 years - 30 resps/minute for over 5 year-olds or - Any chest in-drawing - Extensive skin lesions/ infection - Very weak, lethargic, unconscious - Fitting/convulsions - Severe dehydration based on history & clinical signs - Any condition that requires an infusion or NG tube feeding. - Very pale (severe anaemia), jaundice , bleeding tendencies	Alert with no medical complications

4. ROUTINE MEDICINES

4.1 VITAMIN A

There is an adequate amount of vitamin A in the F75, F100 and RUTF to manage mild vitamin A deficiencies and to replete liver stores of vitamin A during treatment.[10]

* On the day of admission (day 1), give vitamin A for all children except those with oedema or those who received vitamin A in the past 6 months.

* Give vitamin A to every patient on the day of discharge[11] (in-patient care) or at the 4th week of the treatment for those in out-patient care.

II. Vitamin A systematic treatment

Age	Vitamin A IU orally in day 1
6 to 11 months	One blue capsule (100,000 IU = 30,000 µg)
12 months (or 8 kg) and more	Two blue capsules (200,000 IU = 60,000 µg)

4.2 FOLIC ACID

There is sufficient folic acid in F75, F100 and RUTF to treat mild folate deficiency[12].

On the day of admission, one single dose of folic acid (5mg) can be given to children with clinical signs of anaemia.

4.3 OTHER NUTRIENTS

The F75 (and F100, F100diluted, RUTF) that is commercially manufactured, and the feeds that are made locally from the ingredients with added CMV (combined vitamins and minerals) already contain all the other nutrients required to treat the malnourished child. Additional potassium, magnesium or zinc should not be given to the patients. Such a "double dose", one coming from the diet and the other prescribed, is potentially toxic. In particular, additional potassium should never be given with these diets. Even for children with diarrhoea it is not advisable to give additional zinc.

[10] A 10 kg child taking maintenance amounts of F75 (1000 kcal) will receive about 7300 IU (2.2mg) of Vitamin A per day. The RDA (USA) for such a child is 1700 IU (0.5mg) per day.

[11] "Discharge" means discharge from care for severe malnutrition – this is for those children who have completed Phase 2 as an in-patient. It does not mean transfer from an in-patient to out-patient facility to continue treatment.

[12] A 10 kg child taking maintenance amounts of diet will receive about 400 micrograms of folic acid per day. The RDA (USA) for such a child is 80 micrograms per day.

4.4 ANTIBIOTICS

Antibiotics should be given to every severely malnourished patient, even if they do not have clinical signs of systemic infection. Nevertheless, despite the absence of clinical signs, they are nearly all infected, particularly if they require Phase 1 treatment (poor appetite) – these infections are treated blindly.

Small bowel bacterial overgrowth occurs in ***all*** these children (including those with moderate, and some with good appetites). These enteric bacteria frequently are the source of systemic infection by translocation across the bowel wall. They also cause malabsorption of nutrients, failure to eliminate substances excreted in the bile, fatty liver, intestinal damage and can cause chronic diarrhoea. The antibiotic chosen for routine treatment must be active against small bowel bacterial overgrowth.

Because the children with kwashiorkor have free iron in their blood, bacteria that are not normally invasive, such as *Staphlococcus epidermidis* and "exotic bacteria" can cause systemic infection or septicaemia. If stapholcoccus is suspected then an antibiotic active against staphylococcus should also be used.

The position of antibiotic administration to children who pass their appetite tests and go straight to Phase 2 is less clear. They probably do not have a major systemic infection; however, they usually have small bowel bacterial overgrowth and at least these bacteria should be suppressed for optimal response to treatment. Thus, at the moment these children are usually given antibiotics systematically in a similar fashion to those who require Phase 1 treatment initially.

The antibiotic regimen:

- First line treatment: oral amoxicillin[13] (if amoxicillin not available, use oral ampicillin)
- Second line treatment:
  - **add** chloramphenicol (do not stop amoxicillin) or
  - **add** gentamycin (do not stop amoxicillin)
  - or change to amoxycillin/clavulinic acid (Augmentin®) In some in-patient settings where severe infection is common this is used as the first line antibiotic combination.
- Third line: individual medical decision.
- Frequently a systemic anti-fungal (Fluconazole) is added for any patient who has signs of severe sepsis or systemic candidiasis.

Co-trimoxazole is not active against small bowel bacterial overgrowth. It is inadequate for the severely malnourished child. If it is being given for Co-trimoxazole preventive therapy in HIV positive patients, the other antibiotics should be given in addition to the prophylactic co-trimoxazole.

[13] This is recommended as second-line antibiotic by IMCI: it is given to these grossly immuno-compromised patients who are severe enough to be admitted to a treatment programme. Amoxycillin is active against small bowel bacterial overgrowth in most patients. Where this is used as the first line antibiotic, metronidazole does not need to be given.

III. Dosage of Gentamycin, Amoxycillin and Chloramphenicol

Weight range	Gentamycin[1]	Amoxycillin		Chloramphenicol [2]	
	Dosage once per day	(50 – 100 mg/kg/d)		(50mg/kg/d)	
		Dosage – twice per day		Dosage - three times per day	
Kg	In mg	in mg	Cap/tab	in mg	Cap/tab
<5kg	5 mg/kg give once daily IM	125 mg * 2	½ cap.*2	62.5 mg * 3	¼ cap.*3
5 – 10		250 mg * 2	1 cap * 2	125 mg * 3	½ cap * 3
10 – 20		500 mg * 2	2 cap * 2	250 mg * 3	1 caps * 3
20 - 35		750 mg * 2	3 cap * 2	500 mg * 3	2 caps * 3
> 35		1000 mg * 2	4 cap * 2	1000 mg * 3	4 caps * 3

1. The 20mg ampoule (10mg/ml) should be used. It is difficult to measure small volumes with the stronger gentamycin solution

2 Chloramphenicol should never be used in babies less than 2 months of age and with caution in infants less than 6 months of age.

Duration of antibiotic treatment:

- In-patient care: every day during Phase 1 + four more days or until transfer to OTP.
- Out-patient care: for 7 days total. For out-patient care antibiotic syrup is preferred. If it is not available the tablets should be used and cut in half by the staff before being given to the caretakers (for children <5kg).

Administration of antibiotics.

Wherever possible antibiotics should be given orally or by NG tube.

Infusions containing antibiotics should not be used because of the danger of inducing heart failure. Indwelling cannula should rarely be used. The disadvantages of indwelling cannula are:

- They give access to the circulation for antibiotic-resistant bacteria in these immuno-compromised patients; the dressing quickly becomes dirty.
- They often become colonised with Candida and can give rise to fungal septicaemia
- They require fluid or anticoagulants to keep the vein open – but these children have impaired liver function (bleeding tendency) and are very sensitive to fluid overload
- They require skilled health persons to insert, resite and maintain the cannula.
- The administration of IV drugs takes more time, from higher grades of staff, than giving oral drugs.
- IV preparations are much more expensive than oral preparations and the cannula itself is expensive
- Insertion of the cannula is painful and distressing for the child and they frequently need to be re-inserted.
- The cannula restricts the movements of the child and impairs feeding, washing, play and care.
- Extravasation into the tissue or misplacement of the cannula in an artery can cause skin necrosis and other complications (see picture below).



Extravasation into the tissue or misplacement of the cannula in an artery can cause skin necrosis and other complications

4.5 MALARIA

Refer to national guideline for malaria treatment *Malaria, Diagnosis and Treatment Guidelines for Health Workers in Ethiopia,* 2nd edition, Federal Ministry of Health, July 2004. Also see annex 14.

Never give intravenous infusions of quinine to a severely malnourished case within the first two weeks of treatment.

Impregnated bed nets should always be used in malaria endemic regions.

4.6 MEASLES

In in-patient settings, all children from 9 months without a vaccination card should be given measles vaccine both on admission and discharge after Phase 2.[14]

In out-patient settings, all children from 9 months without a vaccination card should be given measles vaccine on the 4th week of treatment (including those that have been initially treated as in-patients).

4.7 DEWORMING

Albendazole or Mebendazole is given at the start of Phase 2 for patients that will remain as in-patients.

For both those transferred from in-patients to Phase 2 as out-patients and those admitted directly to OTP de-worming is given at the 2nd out-patient visit (after 7 days).

Worm medicine is only given to children that can walk.

Age	<1 year	1 to 2 years	>= 2years
Albendazole 400mg	Not given	½ tablet once	1 tablet once
Mebendazole 100mg	Not given	2½ tablet once	5 tablets once

[14] The first measles dose often does not give a protective antibody response. It is given because it ameliorates the severity of incubating measles and partially protects from nosocomial measles. This is usually unnecessary with out-patient treatment. The second or week 4 dose is given to provoke protective antibodies.

IV. Summary table of systematic treatment of patients

	Direct admission to in-patient (Phase 1)	**Direct admission to out-patient (Phase 2)**
Vitamin A	- 1 dose at admission (conditional) - 1 dose on discharge - do not give when transferred to OTP management - it will be given in OTP	- 1 dose on the 4th week (4th visit)
Folic Acid	- 1 dose at admission if signs of anaemia	- 1 dose at admission if signs of anaemia
Amoxicillin	- Every day in Phase 1 + 4 more days in Transition	- 1 dose at admission + give treatment for 7 days at home
Malaria	- According to national protocol	- According to national protocol
Measles (from 9 months old)	- 1 vaccine at admission if no card - 1 vaccine at discharge	- 1 vaccine on the 4th week (4th visit)
Iron	- Add to F100 in Phase 2	- No - iron is already in all RUTF
Deworming	- 1 dose at the start of Phase 2	- 1 dose on the 2nd week (2nd visit)

5. PHASE 1 (In patients only)

Phase 1 treatment is **always** given in an in-patient setting.

These children should be admitted directly to the TFU and not treated in an emergency ward or casualty department for the first 24-48 hours, unless the staff of the emergency ward have had specific training in the management of the complications seen in SAM patients. Experience shows that the rapid staff turnover and workload in emergency wards are such that this is the main place where misdiagnosis, mistreatment and iatrogenic death take place.

The children in Phase 1 should be together in a separate room or section of the ward and not mixed with other patients. When they progress to Transition Phase they physically move to the space where transition patients are treated.

The mother is the primary carer. Nurse assistants do most of the actual "nursing". They weight, measure, mix and dispense feed, give the oral drugs, assess the clinical signs and fill the multichart with all the routine information. The nurse functions as a teacher and supervisor of the assistants to ensure that they are performing these functions correctly and accurately. The nurse also need to give or supervise any intravenous or unusual treatment. The doctor's main duty is to support the nurse and to concentrate upon any patients that fail to respond to treatment or present diagnostic difficulty.

Staff turnover should be minimised and only one staff member should be rotated at any one point of time; the assistants should not be redeployed. Any new staff must be specifically trained in the management of SAM and work for a period under supervision before they are allowed to take charge, work alone or at night with these patients.

The multichart is the primary tool used for in-patient treatment of the malnourished child.

ALL the staff use the same multichart to record all the information needed to manage the malnourished patient – separate charts are **not** used by different categories of staff.

5.1 DIET (F75)

Six or five feeds per day are given for day-care units and where there is few staff at night[15].

Eight feeds per day are given for 24h care units where there are sufficient staff to prepare and distribute the feeds at night.

Where night feeds are problematic then give 6 or 5 feeds during day time only[16].

Eight or more feeds should be given when the larger volume of F75 that is required with a reduced number of feeds provokes osmotic diarrhoea. This is uncommon; as it only applies to a few children the work load for the night staff is greatly reduced when the 8-feeds per day are individually prescribed for those children that really require this regimen. These children need residential care. Very occasionally it is necessary to give the diet continuously by naso-gastric drip.

Breast-fed children should **always** be offered breast-milk before the diet and **always** on demand.

[15] It is better to organize the service so that 5 or 6 feeds are actually given, than to try to give 8 or more feeds per day and find that the night feeds are not supervised or not given at all. With staff shortages and junior staff at night, the latter strategy can lead to systematic underfeeding of the children and incorrect information recorded on the multichart.

[16] Hypoglycaemia is only a risk if the daytime intake is very low.

5.1.1 Diet to use

F75 (130ml = 100kcal) should be given.

5.1.2 Preparation

Add either one large packet of F75 to 2 litres of water or one small packet to 500 ml of water.

Where very few children are being treated smaller volumes can be mixed using the red scoop (20 ml water per red scoop or F75 powder).

(If pre-packaged F75 is not available use one of the recipes given in the annex 11)

5.1.3 Amounts to give

Give the amounts in the table below to each patient.

V. Amounts of F75 to give during Phase 1

Class of Weight (kg)	8 feeds per day ml for each feed	**6 feeds per day ml for each feed**	5 feeds per day ml for each feed
2.0 to 2.1 kg	40 ml per feed	**50 ml per feed**	65 ml per feed
2.2 - 2.4	45	**60**	70
2.5 - 2.7	50	**65**	75
2.8 – 2.9	55	**70**	80
3.0 - 3.4	60	**75**	85
3.5 – 3.9	65	**80**	95
4.0 – 4.4	70	**85**	110
4.5 – 4.9	80	**95**	120
5.0 – 5.4	90	**110**	130
5.5 – 5.9	100	**120**	150
6 – 6.9	110	**140**	175
7 – 7.9	125	**160**	200
8 – 8.9	140	**180**	225
9 – 9.9	155	**190**	250
10 – 10.9	170	**200**	275
11 – 11.9	190	**230**	275
12 – 12.9	205	**250**	300
13 – 13.9	230	**275**	350
14 – 14.9	250	**290**	375
15 – 19.9	260	**300**	400
20 – 24.9	290	**320**	450
25 – 29.9	300	**350**	450
30 – 39.9	320	**370**	500
40 – 60	350	**400**	500

5.1.4 Naso-gastric feeding

Naso-gastric tube (NGT) feeding is used when a patient is not taking sufficient diet by mouth. This is defined as an intake of less than 75% of the prescribed diet (for children about 75 Kcal/ kg/ day).

The reasons for use of an NG tube are:

- Taking less than 75% of prescribed diet per 24 hours in Phase 1
- Pneumonia with a rapid respiration rate
- Painful lesions of the mouth
- Cleft palate or other physical deformity
- Disturbances of consciousness.

Every day, try patiently to give the F75 by mouth before using the NGT. The use of the NGT should not normally exceed 3 days and should only be used in Phase 1.

5.1.5 Feeding technique

The muscle weakness and slow swallowing of these children makes aspiration pneumonia very common. The child should be on the carer's lap against her/his chest, with one arm behind his back. The carer's arm encircles the child and holds a saucer under the child's chin. The child should be sitting straight (vertical). The F75 is given by cup, any dribbles that fall into the saucer are returned to the cup. The child should never be force fed, have his/her nose pinched or lie back and have the milk poured into the mouth.



Meal times should be sociable. The carers should sit together in a semi-circle around an assistant who encourages the carers, talks to them, corrects any faulty feeding technique and observes how the child takes the milk.

The meals for the caretakers should never be taken beside the patient. It is almost impossible to stop the child demanding some of the carer's meal; sharing of the carer's meal with the child can be dangerous. If the carer's meal has added salt or condiment it can be sufficient to provoke heart failure in the malnourished child.

5.2 SURVEILLANCE

- Weight is measured, entered and plotted on the multichart each day.
- The degree of oedema (0 to +++) is assessed each day.
- Body temperature is measured twice per day.
- The standard clinical signs (stool, vomiting, dehydration, cough, respiration, liver size, etc.) are assessed noted in multi-chart each day.
- MUAC is taken each week.
- Length or Height is taken after 21 days (when a new multichart sheet is used)
- A record is taken (on the intake part of the multichart) if the patient is absent, vomits or refuses a feed, and whether the patient is fed by naso-gastric tube or is given IV infusion or transfusion. There are appropriate places for these to be recorded each day.
- Look for signs of primary failure to respond:
    - Failure to regain appetite on Day 4;
    - Failure to start to loose oedema on day 4;
    - Oedema still present on Day 10;
    - Failure to enter to Phase 2 and
    - Gain more than 5 mg/ kg/ day on Day 10.

5.3 CRITERIA TO PROGRESS FROM PHASE 1 TO TRANSITION PHASE

The criteria to progress from Phase 1 to Transition Phase are **both**:

- return of appetite **and**
- beginning of loss of oedema (this is normally judged by an appropriate and proportionate weight loss as the oedema starts to subside) **and**
- no IV line, no NGT.

Children with gross oedema (+++) should wait in Phase 1 at least until their oedema has reduced to moderate (++) oedema. These children are particularly vulnerable.

6. TREATMENT OF COMPLICATIONS

When a patient develops a complication, **always** transfer him/her to Phase 1 for treatment (in-patients are transferred back to Phase 1 and out-patients to facility based treatment).

6.1 DEHYDRATION

6.1.1 Diagnosis of dehydration

Misdiagnosis and inappropriate treatment for dehydration is the commonest cause of death in the malnourished patient.

With severe malnutrition the "therapeutic window" is narrow, so that even dehydrated children can quickly go from having a depleted circulation to over-hydration with fluid overload and cardiac failure. IV infusions are rarely used. In malnutrition (both marasmus and, to a greater extent, kwashiorkor) there is a particular renal problem that makes the children sensitive to salt (sodium) overload. The standard protocol for the well-nourished dehydrated child should **not** be used.

A supply (bucket) of modified ORS or ReSoMal should never be freely available for the caretakers to give to their children whenever they have a loose stool. Although common practice, it is very dangerous for these children. This leads directly to heart failure, as well as failure to loose oedema, re-feeding oedema, and failure to report and record significant problems whilst the diet and phase remains unchanged.

If there is no dehydration, diarrhoea is not treated with rehydration fluids to "prevent" the onset of dehydration. This again leads to over-hydration and heart failure.

6.1.2 Diagnosis of dehydration in the marasmic patient

In marasmus **all** the classical signs of dehydration are unreliable and should **not** be used to make the diagnosis of dehydration in these patients. Thus:

- Marasmic skin normally lies in folds and is inelastic so that the "skin pinch" test is usually positive without there being any dehydration!

  Do NOT use the skin pinch test to diagnose dehydration in malnourished children.

- Marasmic eyes are normally sunken[17] without there being any dehydration.

  Do NOT assume that malnourished patients with sunken eyes have dehydration

Thus, the diagnosis in marasmus is much more uncertain and difficult than in normal children. Incorrect and over-diagnosis is very common and treatment given inappropriately. The consequences of over-hydration are very much more serious.

Do not make a definitive diagnosis of dehydration: if you think the child is dehydrated then make a *provisional* diagnosis and observe the response to treatment before confirming the diagnosis.

The main diagnosis comes from the HISTORY rather than from the examination.

[17] The orbit contains an eye, small muscles and nerves, fat, the lachrymal gland and a venous plexus. In marasmus the fat and lachrymal gland atrophy so that the eyes sink. In dehydration there is contraction of the venous plexus forcing blood out of the orbit so that the eyes sink.

There needs to be:

- A definite history of significant recent fluid loss - usually diarrhoea which is clearly like water (not just soft or mucus) and frequent with a sudden onset within the past few hours or days.
- There should also be a HISTORY of a recent CHANGE in the child's appearance.
- If the eyes are sunken then the mother must say that the eyes have changed to become sunken since the diarrhoea started.
- The child must not have any oedema.

Children with persistent or chronic diarrhoea (without an acute watery exacerbation) are NOT dehydrated and do not need acute rehydration therapy. They have adapted over the weeks to their altered hydration state and should not be rehydrated over a few hours or days.

6.1.3 Diagnosis of shock with dehydration in the marasmic patient

When there is definite dehydration from both the history and examination and:

- a weak or absent radial or femoral pulse **and**
- cool or cold hands and feet

Then, the patient is going into shock. When in addition to the above signs there is also:

- decrease in level of consciousness so that the patient is semi-conscious or cannot be roused

Then this is severe shock.

There are other causes of shock in the severely malnourished child.

In particular, 1) toxic shock[18], 2) septic shock, 3) liver failure and 4) cardiogenic shock. Treatment of cardiogenic shock or liver failure as if the patient has shock due to dehydration is very dangerous and the treatment itself may then lead to death.

6.1.4 Treatment of dehydration in the marasmic patient

Whenever possible, a dehydrated patient with severe malnutrition should be re-hydrated orally. Intra-venous infusions are very dangerous and not recommended unless there is 1) severe shock with 2) loss of consciousness from 3) confirmed dehydration.

The management is based upon accurate measurements of weight – this is the best measurement of fluid balance. The weight should be taken on an infant scale or, for older children a hanging scale to which a basin is attached with rope[19]. The basin hangs close to the ground and is easily cleaned (see picture in annex 1.3). The patients should be weighed naked.

[18] Toxic shock may be caused by traditional medicines, self treatment with other medicine such as aspirin, paracetamol, metronidazole, etc.. Septic shock is a specific type of toxic shock where the damage is caused by overwhelming sepsis. These are frequently associated with liver failure.

[19] Hanging pants, used for surveys should not be used to weigh sick children or those likely to soil the pants and pass infection to the next child.

FROM 6 MONTHS OLD TO ADULTHOOD

BEFORE starting any rehydration treatment:

- WEIGH the child
- MARK the edge of the liver and the costal margin on the skin with an indelible marker pen.
- RECORD the respiration rate

In addition the following can be recorded if the staff has the necessary skill

- RECORD the heart sounds (presence or absence of gallop rhythm) in the notes
- RECORD the pulse rate in the notes

The malnourished child is managed entirely by

- Weight changes and
- Clinical signs of improvement and
- Clinical signs of over-hydration

FLUID BALANCE is measured at intervals by WEIGHING the child.

- Give re-hydration fluid until the weight deficit (measured or estimated) is corrected.
- Stop as soon as the child is "re-hydrated" to the target rehydrated-weight.
- Additional fluid is not given to the malnourished child with a normal circulatory volume to "prevent" recurrence of dehydration.
- Normally much less ReSoMal is sufficient to restore adequate hydration in malnourished than normally nourished children (e.g. a total of 50ml per kg body weight - 5% body weight).
- Start with 5ml/kg every 30 minutes for the first two hours orally or by naso-gastric tube and then adjust according the weight changes observed. If there is continued weight loss then increase the rate of administration of ReSoMal by 10ml/kg/hour. Weigh the child each hour and assess his/her liver size, respiration rate and pulse.
- After rehydration usually no further treatment is given; however, for malnourished children from 6 to 24 months, 30ml of ReSoMal **can** be given for each watery stool that is lost. The standard instructions to give 50-100ml for each stool should **not** be applied – it is dangerous.
- As the child gains weight, during re-hydration there should be definite clinical improvement and the signs of dehydration should disappear; if there is no improvement with weight gain then the initial diagnosis was wrong and rehydration therapy stopped.

MAKE A MAJOR REASSESSMENT AT TWO HOURS

If there is continued weight loss *then*:

- Increase the rate of administration of ReSoMal by 10ml/kg/hour
- Formally reassess in one hour

If there is no weight gain then:

- Increase the rate of administration of ReSoMal by 5ml/kg/hour
- Formally reassess in one hour

If there is weight gain and:

- *Deterioration of the child's condition with the re-hydration therapy*,
    - the diagnosis of dehydration was definitely wrong. Even senior clinicians make mistakes in the diagnosis of dehydration in malnutrition.

- Stop and start the child on F75 diet.

- *No improvement in the mood and look of the child or reversal of the clinical signs*,
  - then the diagnosis of dehydration was probably wrong
  - either change to F75 or alternate F75 and ReSoMal.
- *Clinical improvement, but there are still signs of dehydration*
  - continue with the treatment until the appropriate weight gain has been achieved.
  - Either continue with ReSoMal alone or F75 and ReSoMal can be alternated.
- *Resolution of the signs of dehydration*,
  - stop re-hydration treatment and start the child on F75 diet.

Target weight for rehydration with watery diarrhoea

- If the child has been in under treatment for SAM and there is a pre-diarrhoeal weight when the diarrhoea starts:
  - if there has been no weight loss with the diarrhoea, rehydration treatment should not be given.
  - if there has been weight loss, the actual fluid loss is equal to the weight loss and the target rehydration-weight is the pre-diarrhoeal weight. Treatment should not be given to increase the weight beyond the pre-diarrhoeal weight. "Prophylactic" administration of ReSoMal to prevent recurrence of dehydration is not given.
- If the patient is newly admitted, it is extremely difficult to judge the amount of fluid that has been lost in the child with marasmus. Because of the narrow therapeutic window and the danger of going from under-hydration to over-hydration, the estimated weight deficit should be very conservative. It is better and much less dangerous to slightly under-estimate the amount of weight deficit than to over-estimate the weight deficit.
  - In practice, the weight loss is generally 2% to 5% of body weight.
  - Do not attempt to increase body weight by more than 5% in conscious children.
  - If there is weight gain of up to 5% of body weight with rehydration the truly dehydrated child will show dramatic clinical improvement and be out of immediate danger from death due to dehydration; treatment can then be continued with F75.

During re-hydration breastfeeding should not be interrupted. Begin to give F75 as soon as possible, orally or by naso-gastric tube. ReSoMal and F75 can be given in alternate hours if there is still some dehydration and continuing diarrhoea. Introduction of F75 is usually achieved within 2-3 hours of starting re-hydration.

6.1.5 Treatment of shock from dehydration in the marasmic patient

If there is definite dehydration (a history of fluid loss, a change in the appearance of the eyes) and the patient has **all** of the following:

- Semi-conscious or unconscious and
- Rapid weak pulse and
- Cold hands and feet

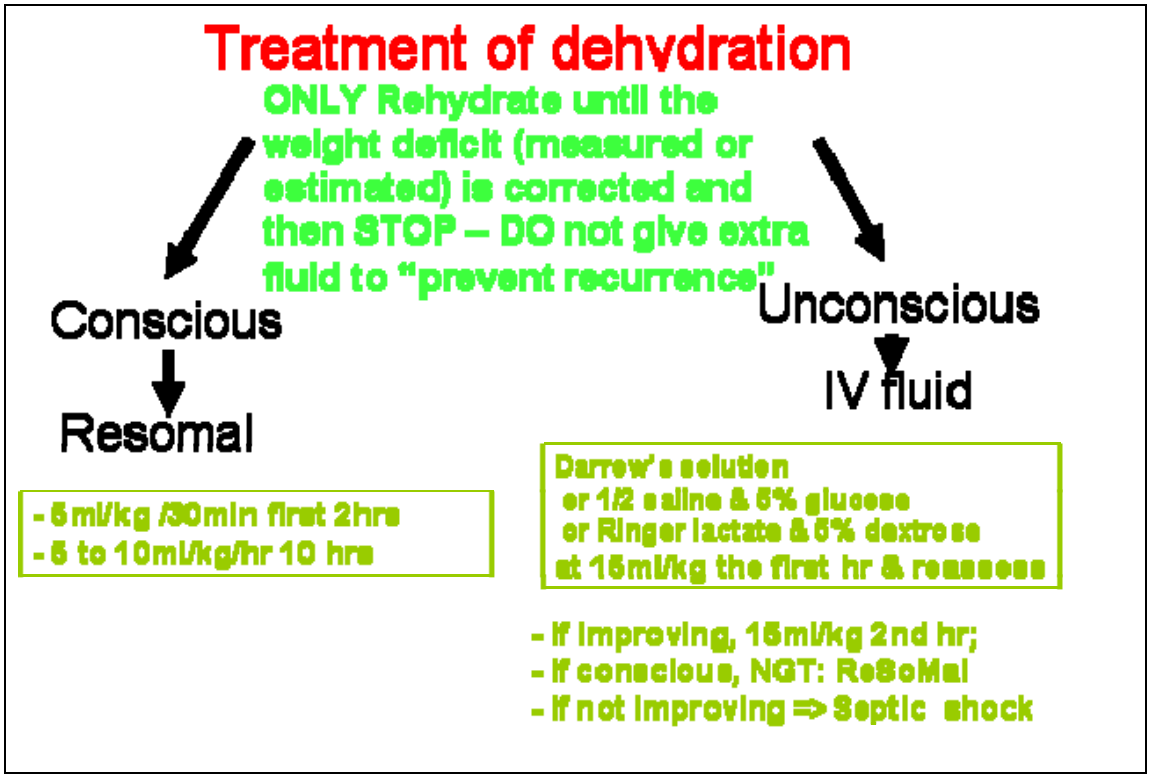
Then the patient should be treated with intravenous fluids. The amounts given should be half or less of that used in normally nourished children.

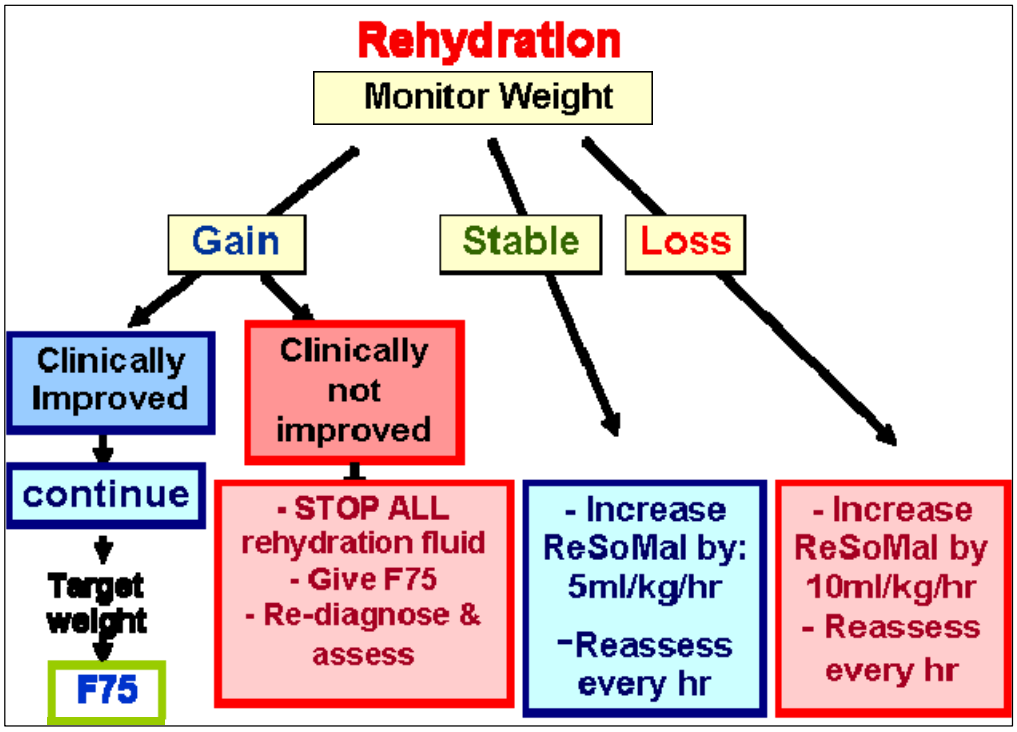
Use one of the following solutions:

- Half strength Darrow's solution
- Ringer-Lactate with 5% dextrose
- Half strength Saline with 5% dextrose

- Give 15 ml/kg IV over the first hour and reassess the child.
- If there is continued weight loss or the weight is stable, repeat the 15ml/kg IV over the next hour. Continue until there is weight gain with the infusion. (15ml/kg is 1.5% of body weight, so the expected weight gain after 2 hours is up to 3% of body weight). Make a major reassessment at two hours.
- If there is no improvement and the child has gained weight, then assume that the child has toxic, septic or cardiogenic shock or live failure. Stop rehydration treatment. Search for other causes of loss of consciousness.
- As soon as the child regains consciousness or the pulse rate drops towards a normal level then stop the drip and treat the child orally or by NG-Tube with 10ml/kg/hour or ReSoMal. Continue with the protocol (above) for re-hydration of the child orally using weight change as the main indicator of progress.

There should never be a drip present in a malnourished child who is able to drink or is absorbing fluid adequately from an NG-tube.





6.1.6 Monitoring of rehydration

All rehydration (oral or intravenous) therapy should be stopped immediately if any of the following are observed:

- The target weight for rehydration has been achieved (go to F75)
- The visible veins become full (go to F75)
- The development of oedema (over-hydration – go to F75)
- The development of prominent neck veins*
- The neck veins engorge when the abdomen (liver) is pressed*.
- An increase in the liver size by more than one centimetre.*
- The development of tenderness over the liver.*
- An increase in the respiration rate by 5 breaths per minute or more*
- The development of a "grunting" respiration (this is a noise on expiration NOT inspiration).*
- The development of rales or crepitations in the lungs*
- The development of a triple rhythm*

* If these signs develop then the child has fluid overload, an over-expanded circulation and is going into heart failure. Immediately refer to section 6.4 of this document.

6.1.7 Diagnosis of dehydration in the kwashiorkor patient

ALL children with oedema have an increased total body water and sodium -- they are over-hydrated. Oedematous patients cannot be dehydrated although they are frequently hypovolaemic. The hypovolaemia (relatively low circulating blood volume) is due to a dilatation of the blood vessels with a low cardiac output.

If a child with kwashiorkor has definite watery diarrhoea and the child is deteriorating clinically (excessive weight loss, more than 2% of the body weight per day), then the fluid lost can be replaced on the basis of 30ml of ReSoMal per watery stool.

The treatment of hypovolaemia in kwashiorkor is the same as the treatment for septic shock.

6.2 SEPTIC (OR TOXIC) SHOCK

Incipient septic shock presents with some of the signs of true dehydration and also of cardiogenic shock; the differential diagnosis is often very difficult. The child is usually limp, apathetic and profoundly anorexic, but is neither thirsty nor restless.

Children that appear "very ill", may have septic shock, cardiogenic shock, liver failure, poisoning with traditional medicines, malaria, acute viral infection or other severe conditions. All "very ill" children should not be automatically diagnosed as having septic shock; the true reason for the condition should be sought.

If this develops after admission to the TFU, then the treatment given to the child should be carefully reviewed to determine if the treatment is the cause of the clinical deterioration. Any "unusual" drugs should be stopped.

6.2.1 Diagnosis of septic shock

To make a diagnosis of developed septic shock requires the signs of hypovolaemic shock to be present

- A fast weak pulse with
- Cold peripheries.
- Disturbed consciousness
- Absence of signs of heart failure

6.2.2 Treatment of septic shock

All patients with signs of incipient or developed septic shock should immediately:

1. Give broad-spectrum antibiotics
    a. Second line and first line antibiotics together;
    b. for developed septic shock consider third line antibiotics, antifungal treatment and anti-staphylococcal treatment.
2. Keep warm to prevent or treat hypothermia,
3. Receive sugar-water by mouth or naso-gastric tube as soon as the diagnosis is made (to prevent hypoglycaemia).

4. Be physically disturbed as little as possible (no washing, excess examination, investigations in other departments, etc)
5. Never be transported to another facility – the stress of transport leads to dramatic deterioration.

Incipient septic shock: Give the standard F75 diet by NG-tube

Developed septic shock: If the patient is unconscious because of poor brain perfusion then a slow IV infusion of one of the following can be given:

- Whole blood of 10ml/kg over at least 3 hours – nothing should be given orally during the blood transfusion.

Or 10ml/kg/h for 2 hours of one of the following (do not give if there is a possibility of cardiogenic shock):

- Half-strength Darrow's solution with 5% glucose
- Ringer's lactate solution with 5% glucose
- Half-normal (0.45%) saline with 5% glucose

Monitor every 10 minutes for signs of deterioration, especially over-hydration and heart failure.

- Increasing respiratory rate,
- Development of grunting respiration,
- Increasing liver size,
- Vein engorgement.

As soon as the patient improves (stronger radial pulse, regain of consciousness) stop all IV intake - continue with F75 diet.

6.3 ABSENT BOWEL SOUNDS, GASTRIC DILATATION AND INTESTINAL SPLASH WITH ABDOMINAL DISTENSION

The following measures should be taken:

- Give first and second line antibiotic treatment by intra-muscular injection.
- Consider adding third line antibiotics
- Stop all other drugs that may be causing toxicity (such as metronidazole)
- Give a single IM injection of magnesium sulphate (2ml of 50% solution).
- Pass an NG-tube and aspirate the contents of the stomach, then "irrigate" the stomach with isotonic clear fluid (5% dextrose or 10% sucrose –the solution does not need to be sterile). Do this by introducing 50ml of solution into the stomach and then gently aspirating all the fluid back again. This should be repeated until the fluid that returns from the stomach is clear.
- Put 5 ml/kg of sugar-water (10% sucrose solution) into the stomach and leave it there for one hour. Then aspirate the stomach and measure the volume that is retrieved. If the volume is less than the amount that was introduced then either a further dose of sugar-water should be given or the fluid returned to the stomach.

- There is frequently gastric and oesophageal candidiasis: give oral nystatin suspension or fluconazole.
- Keep the child warm.

If the child's level of consciousness is poor give intravenous glucose

- Do not put up a drip at this stage. Monitor the child carefully for 6 hours, without giving any other treatment
- Improvement is measured first by a change in intestinal function --decrease in the distension of the abdomen, visible peristalsis seen through the abdominal wall, return of bowel sounds, decreasing size of gastric aspirates – and second by improvement in the general condition of the child.

If there is intestinal improvement then start to give small amounts of F75 by NG tube (half the quantities given in the feeding table – subsequently adjust by the volumes of gastric aspirated).

If there is no improvement after 6 hours then:

- Consider putting up an IV drip. It is very important that the fluid given contains adequate amounts of potassium. Sterile Potassium Chloride (20mmol/l) should be added to all solutions that do not contain potassium. If it is available use one-fifth normal saline in 5% dextrose, otherwise use Ringer-Lactate in 5% dextrose or half-strength saline in 5% dextrose. **The drip should be run VERY SLOWLY – the amount of fluid that is given should be NO MORE THAN 2 to 4 ml/kg/h**.
- Start to give the first and second line antibiotics intravenously.
- When the gastric aspirates decrease so that one half of the fluid given to the stomach is absorbed, discontinue the IV treatment and continue with oral treatment only.

6.4 HEART FAILURE

6.4.1 Signs and symptoms

Heart failure should be diagnosed when there is:

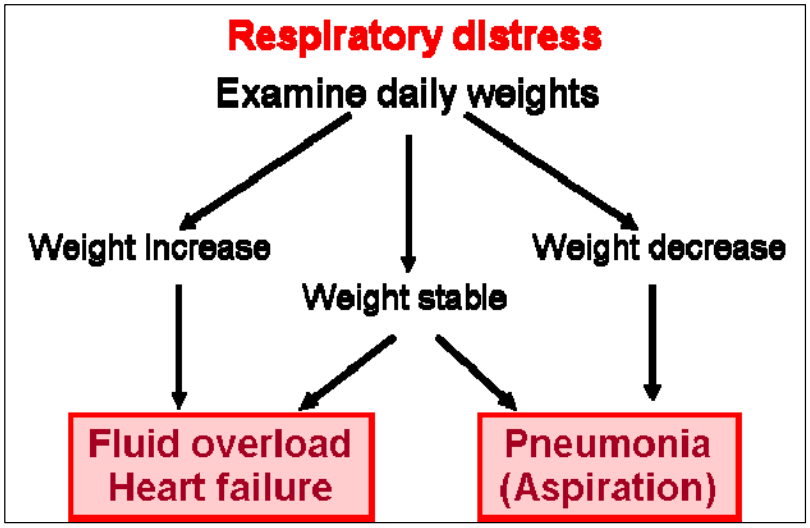
- Clinical deterioration with a gain in weight
  - this is the most common way of making the diagnosis and does not require any equipment or particular clinical skill
- A sudden increase in liver size (this is why the liver is marked before starting any infusion).
- Tenderness developing over the liver
- An increase in respiration rate
  - an acute increase in respiration rate of more than 5 breaths per minute (particularly during rehydration treatment)
  - > 50 breaths/minute in infants and
  - >40 in children 1-5 years,
- Respiration that has or develops a "grunting" sound during each expiration.
- Crepitations or rales in the lungs
- Prominent superficial and neck veins
- Engorgement of the neck veins when the abdomen (liver) is pressed

- Enlargement of the heart (very difficult to assess in practice).
- Appearance of triple rhythm (very difficult to assess in practice).
- Increasing oedema or reappearance of oedema during treatment;
- An acute fall in haemoglobin concentration[20] (needs laboratory).

At the last stage there is either 1) marked respiratory distress progressing to a rapid pulse, cold hands and feet, oedema and cyanosis or 2) sudden, unexpected death. This is cardiac shock, it commonly occurs in the severely malnourished child after treatment has started. It has to be differentiated from shock due to dehydration or sepsis because the treatment is quite different.

There is usually also weight gain. As heart failure usually starts after treatment, there is nearly always a record of the weight of the patient that was taken before the onset of heart failure.

Heart failure and pneumonia are clinically similar and very difficult to tell apart. If there is an increased respiratory rate AND any gain in weight then heart failure should be the first diagnosis. If there is an increased respiratory rate with a loss of weight then pneumonia can be diagnosed. If there is no change in weight (fluid balance) then the differentiation has to be made using the other signs of heart failure. Pneumonia should NOT be diagnosed if there has been a gain of weight just before the onset of respiratory distress.



Children with oedema can go into heart failure without a gain in weight, if the expanded circulation is due to oedema fluid being mobilised from the tissues to the vascular space.

During the initial treatment of SAM, any sodium containing fluid that has been given will have to be safely excreted later. Initial over-treatment can lead to death several days later from heart failure when intracellular sodium (marasmus and kwashiorkor) and oedema fluid are being mobilised.

As oedema fluid is mobilised (kwashiorkor) and the sodium is coming out of the cells (both kwashiorkor and marasmus), the plasma volume expands and there is a FALL IN HAEMOGLOBIN concentration. This DILUTIONAL anaemia happens to some extent in nearly all children as they recover. A substantial fall in haemoglobin, as a sign of an expanding circulation, is also a sign of impending or actual heart failure. These children should never be transfused.

[20] All children have a fall in Hb during the early phase of treatment. This "dilutional anaemia" is due to the sodium coming of the cells and mobilization of oedema – it must not be treated.

6.4.2 Treatment

When heart failure is diagnosed,

- Stop all intakes of oral or IV fluids. **No fluid or food** should be given until the heart failure has improved even if this takes 24-48 hours. Small amounts of sugar-water can be given orally to prevent hypoglycaemia.
- Give furosemide SINGLE dose (1mg/kg).
- Digoxin can be given in SINGLE dose (5 micrograms/kg – note that this is lower than the normal dose of digoxin. A loading dose is not given. Use the paediatric preparation, not small quantities of the adult preparation).

If heart failure is associated with severe anaemia the treatment of the heart failure takes precedence over the treatment of the anaemia. A patient in heart failure should never be transfused (unless there are facilities and experience with exchange-transfusion).

6.5 HYPOTHERMIA

Severely malnourished patients are highly susceptible to hypothermia, (rectal temperature below 35.5°C or under arm temperature below 35°C).

- Use the "kangaroo technique" for children with a caretaker.
- Put a hat on the child and wrap mother and child together
- Give hot drinks to the mother so her skin gets warmer (plain water, tea or any other hot drink).
- Monitor body temperature during re-warming.
- The room should be kept warm, especially at night (between 28°C and 32°C): a maximum-minimum thermometer should be on the wall of Phase 1 room to monitor the temperature.
- Treat for hypoglycaemia and give second-line antibiotic treatment.

NOTE: the thermo-neutral temperature range for malnourished patients is 28°C to 32°C. This is often uncomfortably warm for the staff and caretakers who may adjust the room to suit themselves. Children should always sleep with their mothers and not in traditional hospital child-cots/cages. There should be adequate blankets and a thick sleeping mat or adult bed. Most heat is lost through the head; hats should be worn by malnourished children. Windows and doors should be kept closed at night.

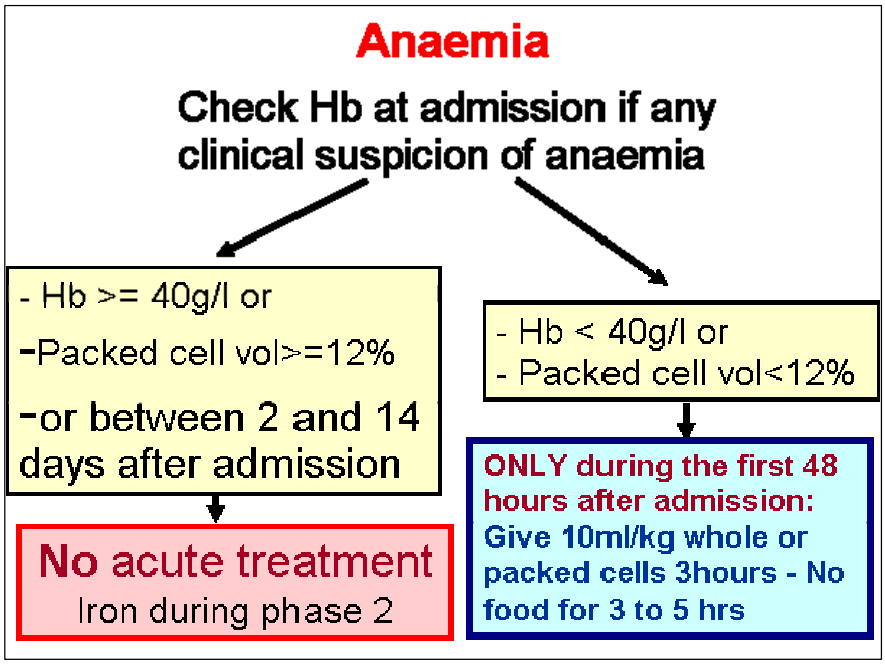
6.6 SEVERE ANAEMIA

If the haemoglobin concentration is less than 40g/l or the packed –cell volume is less than 12% in the first 24 hours after admission the child has very severe anaemia.

- Give 10ml per kg body weight of packed red cells or whole blood slowly over 3 hours.
- All children should be fasted during and for at least 3 hours after a blood transfusion.
- Do not transfuse a child between 48h after the start of treatment with F75 and 14 days later.
- Do not give iron during Phase 1 of treatment
- If the facilities and expertise exist (neonatal units) it is preferable to give an exchange transfusion to severely malnourished children with severe anaemia.

If there is heart failure with very severe anaemia transfer the patient to a centre where there are the facilities to do an exchange transfusion. Heart failure due to anaemia is clinically different from "normal" heart failure – with anaemia there is "high output" failure with an over-active circulation.

Increasing anaemia and heart failure or respiratory distress is a sign of fluid overload and an expanding plasma volume – the heart failure is not being "caused" by the anaemia; these patients should never be given a straight transfusion of blood or even packed cells.



6.7 HYPOGLYCAEMIA

Severely malnourished patients can develop hypoglycaemia but this is very uncommon. However, all children that have travelled for long distances to attend the centre should be given sugar-water as soon as they arrive.

Those that get hypothermia or have septic shock should be given extra sugar whether or not they have a low blood glucose.

One sign of an overactive sympathetic nervous system, which starts before actual hypoglycaemia develops, is eye-lid retraction. If a child sleeps with his eyes slightly open, then he should be woken up and given sugar-water to drink; the staff and the mothers should be taught to look for this sign during the night.

A child who has taken the diet during the day will not develop hypoglycaemia overnight and does not need to be woken for night-time feeding. If the diet has not been taken during the day the mother should give at least one feed during the night.

6.7.1 Clinical signs

There are often no signs at all of hypoglycaemia. One sign that does occur in malnutrition is eye-lid retraction - if a child sleeps with his eyes slightly open, then he should be woken up and given sugar solution to drink.

6.7.2 Treatment

- Patients who are conscious and able to drink should be given about 50 ml (approximately 5 to 10ml/kg) of sugar-water (about 10% ordinary sugar in potable water), or F75 diet (or F100) by mouth. The actual amount given is not critical.
- Patients loosing consciousness (lethargic) should be given 50 ml (or 5 to 10ml/kg) of sugar-water by naso-gastric tube immediately. When consciousness is regained give milk feed frequently.
- Unconscious patients should also be given sugar-water by naso-gastric tube. They should also be given glucose as a single intravenous injection (approximately 5ml/kg of a sterile 10% glucose solution).
- All malnourished patients with suspected hypoglycaemia should be treated with second-line antibiotics.
- The response to treatment is dramatic and rapid. If a very lethargic or unconscious patient does not respond in this way, then there is another cause for the clinical condition that has to be found and treated.

6.8 HIV

Most children with HIV infection respond to the treatment of severe malnutrition in the same way as those without HIV infection. The treatment of the malnutrition is the same whether the patient is HIV positive or negative.

The treatment of malnutrition should be started at least one week before the introduction of anti-retroviral drugs to diminish the risk of serious side effects from the anti-retroviral drugs.

Children with HIV should be given co-trimoxazole preventive therapy. This is inadequate antibiotic cover for the severely malnourished patient, amoxicillin should be given in ADDITION to co-trimoxazole.

6.9 OTHER CONDITIONS

Children with many other underlying illnesses can first present with severe malnutrition. Initially, they should all be treated according to the standard protocol for severe malnutrition. Those that fail to respond to this treatment need further investigation for an underlying condition (see failure to respond to treatment).

Great care should be exercised in prescribing drugs to severely malnourished patients. They have abnormal kidney and liver function, changed levels of the enzymes necessary to metabolise and excrete drugs, excess enterohepatic circulation (reabsorption) of drugs that are excreted in the bile, a decreased body fat which increases the effective concentration of fat soluble drugs and, in kwashiorkor, there may be a defective blood-brain barrier. Very few drugs have had their pharmocokinetics, metabolism or side effects examined in severely malnourished patients.

It is strongly advised that either:

- The malnutrition is treated first, before standard doses of drugs are given. Drugs used for HIV and TB can damage the liver and pancreas. These diseases are not usually rapidly fatal (except milliary TB and TB meningitis) so treatment should normally be delayed for up to

one week whilst the nutritional treatment returns the metabolism of the patient towards normal.

- If it is critical that the drug be given at the start of treatment for malnutrition then initially reduced doses should be given
- Many drugs should be avoided altogether until there is research to show that they are safe and how the dosage should be adjusted for the malnourished state. Common drugs such as paracetamol do not work in most malnourished children during Phase 1 and can cause serious hepatic damage.
- Drugs can usually be given in standard doses to patients that are in Phase 2 or being treated as out-patients.

7. TRANSITION PHASE

During the Transition Phase, a new diet is introduced: F100 or RUTF.

This phase prepares the patient for Phase 2 treatment either as an in-patient or, **preferably**, as an out-patient. The Transition Phase should last between 1 and 5 days – usually 2 or 3 days.

7.1 DIET

The ONLY change that is made to the treatment on moving from Phase 1 to the Transition Phase is a change in the diet that is given from F75 to RUTF or F100.

The number of feeds, their timing and the volume of the diet given remains exactly the same in Transition Phase as it was in Phase 1.

- Either use RUTF in the Transition Phase. Those children who are going to continue treatment as out-patients with take-home treatment should be changed to RUTF rather than F100 during the transition phase. The table below gives the total amount of RUTF that should be taken during the day. When the patients are taking this amount they should be discharged to continue their treatment at home. The full day's amount of RUTF should be given to the mother and the amount taken checked five times during the day. Children that are not taking sufficient RUTF should be given F100 to make up any deficit in intake. No other food should be given to the patient during this period. They should be offered as much water to drink as they will take during and after they have taken some of the RUTF.

OR

- Use F100 (130ml = 130kcal) in the Transition Phase. It is made up from one large package of F100 diluted into 2 litres of water or one small package diluted into 500 ml of water
- In all cases, breast-fed children should always get the breast-milk **before** F100 and **on demand**.

Even if the child is going to remain in a facility for Phase 2, RUTF can be given for Transition Phase in place of F100. Frequently, particularly at health centre level, F100 is given during the week-day and RUTF at night and during week ends to give a total intake equivalent to the amount in the table.

Some patients initially refuse the RUTF. If this is the case they should be given the F100 diet for one or two days and then the RUTF re-introduced. Other children prefer the RUTF. It is good practice to give the diet that the children prefer – they are nutritionally equivalent.

Warning: F100 should never be given to be used at home. F100 is always prepared and distributed in an in-patient unit. F100 should not be kept in liquid form at room temperature for more than a few hours before it is consumed: if there is a refrigerator and a very clean kitchen/ utensils, then it can be kept (cold) for up to 12 hours. A whole day's amount should never be made up at one time.

RUTF can be used both in in-patient and out-patient programmes.

VI. Transition Phase: amounts of RUTF to give

Class of Weight	Paste	Plumpy Nut	BP100	total
	Gram/ day	Sachets/ day	Bars/ day	kcal
3 - 3.4	90	1.00	1.5	**500**
3.5 - 3.9	100	1.00	1.5	**550**
4 - 4.9	110	1.25	2.0	**600**
5 - 5.9	130	1.50	2.5	**700**
6 - 6.9	150	1.75	3.0	**800**
7 - 7.9	180	2.00	3.5	**1000**
8 - 8.9	200	2.00	3.5	**1100**
9 - 9.9	220	2.50	4.0	**1200**
10 - 11.9	250	3.00	4.5	**1350**
12 - 14.9	300	3.50	6.0	**1600**
15 - 19.9	370	4.00	7.0	**2000**
25 - 39	450	5.00	8.0	**2500**
40 - 60	500	6.00	10.0	**2700**

The amounts given in the table are for the full 24h period. The amounts represent an average increase in energy intake of about one third over the amount given during Phase 1. However, this varies between an increment of 10% and 50% depending upon the actual weight and the product used.

Each of the RUTF products is nutritionally equivalent to F100, with the exception that they have an appropriate amount of iron added during manufacture for children in phase 2 (i.e. children who pass the appetite test).

If both F100 and RUTF are being given they can be substituted on the basis that about 100ml of F100 = 20g of RUTF[21].

[21] This is an acceptable approximation. If tables are to be constructed then 100 ml of F100 = 18.5g of RUTF: 10g of RUTF = 54ml of F100 should be used and the resulting values rounded to the nearest 5 or 10 ml

VII. Transition Phase: amounts of F100 to give

Class of Weight (kg)	8 feeds per day	6 feeds per day	5 feeds per day
Less than 3kg	F100 full strength should not be given – Only F100 diluted should be given		
3.0 to 3.4 kg	60 ml per feed	**75 ml per feed**	85 ml per feed
3.5 – 3.9	65	**80**	95
4.0 – 4.4	70	**85**	110
4.5 – 4.9	80	**95**	120
5.0 – 5.4	90	**110**	130
5.5 – 5.9	100	**120**	150
6 – 6.9	110	**140**	175
7 – 7.9	125	**160**	200
8 – 8.9	140	**180**	225
9 – 9.9	155	**190**	250
10 – 10.9	170	**200**	275
11 – 11.9	190	**230**	275
12 – 12.9	205	**250**	300
13 – 13.9	230	**275**	350
14 – 14.9	250	**290**	375
15 – 19.9	260	**300**	400
20 – 24.9	290	**320**	450
25 – 29.9	300	**350**	450
30 – 39.9	320	**370**	500
40 – 60	350	**400**	500

The table gives the amount of F100 (full strength) that should be offered to the patients in Transition Phase. They should normally be taking 6 feeds during the day and none at night. The table below gives the amount of RUTF to give per feed if some of the feeds are being given as F100 and others as RUTF.

A common variation is to give 5 or 6 feeds of F100 during the day and then 3 or 2 feeds of RUTF during the night – this gives 8 feeds in total during the day. The volume of F100 is then read off from the previous table and the grams of RUTF from the next table, both using the 8 meals per day column and the appropriate class of weight.

VIII. Amount of RUTF to give (in grammes) for meal substitution when mixed feeding with F100 and RUTF is being used

Amount of RUTF to give for meal substitution when mixed feeding with F100 and RUTF is being used			
	8 meals / day	**6 meals/day**	5 meals / day
3.0 to 3.4 kg	11 g per feed	**14 g per feed**	16 g per feed
3.5 – 3.9	12	**15**	17
4.0 – 4.4	13	**16**	20
4.5 – 4.9	15	**18**	22
5.0 – 5.4	17	**20**	24
5.5 – 5.9	18	**22**	28
6 – 6.9	20	**25**	30
7 – 7.9	25	**30**	35
8 – 8.9	25	**35**	40
9 – 9.9	30	**35**	45
10 – 10.9	30	**35**	50
11 – 11.9	35	**40**	50
12 – 12.9	40	**45**	55
13 – 13.9	40	**50**	65
14 – 14.9	45	**55**	70
15 – 19.9	45	**55**	75
20 – 24.9	55	**60**	80
25 – 29.9	55	**65**	80
30 – 39.9	60	**70**	90
40 – 60	65	**75**	90

7.2 ROUTINE MEDICINE

* **Routine antibiotic** should be continued for 4 more days after Phase 1 or until transferred to Phase 2 as an out-patient (patients entering OTP after having been in a facility do not need to be given antibiotics).

7.3 SURVEILLANCE

The surveillance of Phase 1 is maintained in Transition Phase.

As the patient is now taking more than maintenance amounts of food, weight gain is expected. Because it takes an average of about 5 kcal to make one gram of new tissue, the expected rate of weight gain, for marasmic patients, during transition phase is about 6 g/kg/day, if all the food is taken by the patient and there is not excessive malabsorption.

7.4 CRITERIA TO MOVE BACK FROM TRANSITION PHASE TO PHASE1

Move the child back to Phase 1:

- If the patient gains weight more rapidly than 10g/kg/d (this indicated excess fluid retention)
- If there is increasing oedema
- If a child who does not have oedema develops oedema
- If there is a rapid increase in the size of the liver
- If any other signs of fluid overload develop.
- If tense abdominal distension develops
- If the patient gets significant re-feeding diarrhoea so that there is weight loss.
- If patient develops medical complication
- If Naso-Gastric Tube is needed
- If patient takes less than 75% of the feeds in Transition Phase even after interchange between RUTF and F100

It is common for the children to get some change is stool frequency when they change diet. This does not need to be treated unless the children loose weight (> 2% of the body weight for oedematous children). Several loose stools without weight loss is **not** a criterion to move back to Phase 1.

7.5 CRITERIA TO PROGRESS FROM TRANSITION PHASE TO PHASE2

- A good appetite. This means taking at least 90% of the RUTF or F100 prescribed for Transition Phase.
- Oedematous patients (kwashiorkor) should remain in Transition Phase until there is a definite and steady reduction in oedema (now at + level). For those who are going to remain as in-patients they should normally remain in Transition Phase until they have lost their oedema entirely. For those who are going to continue as out-patients they can go when their appetite is **good** (taking all the diet in Transition Phase - not just in the moderate range) and they have reduced their oedema to ++ or +.

8. PHASE 2 (In- and out-patients)

The Phase 2 can be managed in the health facility, using F100 or RUTF, or in the community, using RUTF. It is preferable to treat children in the community. Never give F100 to be used at home, only use RUTF

The principles of the treatment in the facility and in the community are exactly the same. The diet, organisation and documentation are different.

There has to be effective communication between the staff running the in-patient and the out-patient services.

A child that is ready to go to Phase 2 should **always** be treated at home when there are:

1. a capable caretaker
2. The caretaker agrees to out-patient treatment,
3. There are reasonable home circumstances
4. There is a supply of RUTF.
5. An OTP programme is in operation in the area close to the patient's home.

A child being treated at home (OTP) that deteriorates or develops a complication should be transferred to in-patient care for a few days before continuing their treatment at home. The two arms of the programme should be integrated so that there is smooth transfer of patients from one to the other mode of treatment. The same registration number is retained throughout the movements (the SAM-Unique-Number). A child transferring from one to another mode of treatment is still under the care of the programme for this episode of severe malnutrition; this is not a "discharge" from the in-patient facility but a transfer to another part of the same programme.

8.1 DIET (F100 OR RUTF)

In Phase 2, the patients have an **unlimited** intake.

If significant "re-feeding diarrhoea" occurs so that they loose weight, they are put back to the Transition Phase or to Phase 1; out-patients that loose weight are transferred back to the in-patient facility.

If mild "re-feeding diarrhoea" occurs then it should not be treated unless there is also a loss in weight. If there is a loss of weight then return the child to Phase 1.

If a major illness occurs during Phase 2, particularly during the first week, the patient should be put back to Phase 1 and given F75; out-patients are transferred back to the in-patient facility for a short time.

Breast-fed children should **always** get the breast-milk before they are given F100 or RUTF and also **on demand**.

8.1.1 Diet to use

F100 or RUTF are used in Phase 2. Never give F100 to be used at home, use RUTF.

F100 (100ml = 100 kcal): five feeds of F100 are given. One porridge **may** be given for patients who are more than 8kg (approximately 24 months of age); it is not necessary to give porridge unless the patient asks for it. Five feeds of F100 should be given to those who are less than 8kg. Alternative recipes are given in the annex 11.

RUTF: RUTF can be used in both in-patient and out-patient settings. For out-patients explain to the caretaker how to give the RUTF at home:

- RUTF is a food and a medicine for malnourished children only. It should not be shared with the other family members even if the child does not consume all the diet offered. Opened packets of RUTF can be kept safely and eaten at a later time – the other family members should not eat any that is left over at a particular meal.
- Wash with soap child's hand and face before feeding. Keep food clean and covered.
- These children often only have moderate appetites and eat slowly. Give small regular meals of RUTF and encourage the child to eat as often as possible (every 3 to 4 hours). The child can keep the RUTF with him/her and eat is steadily throughout the day – it is not necessary to have set meal times if the food is with the child all the time. Tell the mother how much her child should eat each day (this is given in the look-up table).
- RUTF is the only food the child needs to recover during his time in the programme. It is not necessary to give other foods; a lot of other foods will delay the recovery of your child. If other foods are given, always give RUTF before other foods.

For children that have been in a TFU, A transfer form needs to be filled in with the SAM-Unique # of the child. The child should be transferred with sufficient RUTF to last until the next day of operation of the OTP site closest to the child's home.

For children that are first admitted directly into Phase 2 (OTP), the amount of RUTF should be enough for the next visit to the OTP site.

- For breast-fed children, **always** give breast milk before the RUTF
- Always offer plenty of clean water to drink while eating RUTF

For OTP programmes, if there is a problem with food security or in an emergency situation a "protection" ration (usually CSB or UNIMIX) should be given to the family both to assist this family of a malnourished child and prevent sharing of the RUTF with other family members. The caretaker must be told that this ration is not for the patient but for the rest of the family only.

8.1.2 Amounts to give

For in-patients, offer the amount of feed given in the table. Either F100 or RUTF can be given. The children must NEVER be forced fed. After the feed, always propose an additional quantity to the patient if the child takes all the feed quickly and easily. They should be able to take as much as F100 or RUTF as they want.

When RUTF is given, as much water must be offered during and after the feed to satisfy the patient's thirst. Because RUTF can be kept safely the amount for several feeds can be given to the patient at one time. This is then eaten at the patient's leisure, in his/her own time. This is used in day-care when feeding is given overnight, at weekends or during staff shortages.

IX. Phase 2 Amount of F100 or RUTF to give at each feed for 5 or 6 feeds per day

Class of weight (kg)	6 feeds/ day		5 feeds/d	
	F100	RUTF	F100	RUTF
	ml/feed	g/feed	ml/feed	g/feed
<3 kg	Full strength F100 and RUTF are not given below 3kg			
3.0 to 3.4	110	20	130	25
3.5 - 3.9	120	22	150	30
4.0 - 4.9	150	28	180	35
5.0 - 5.9	180	35	200	35
6.0 - 6.9	210	40	250	45
7.0 - 7.9	240	45	300	55
8.0 - 8.9	270	50	330	60
9.0 - 9.9	300	55	360	65
10.0 – 11.9	350	65	420	75
12.0 – 14.9	450	80	520	95
15.0 – 19.9	550	100	650	120
20.0 - 24.9	650	120	780	140
25.0 – 29.9	750	140	900	160
30.0 - 39.9	850	160	1000	180
40 - 60	1000	180	1200	220

X. Phase 2 (out-patients): amounts of RUTF to give

Class of weight (kg)	RUTF Paste		PLUMPY'NUT®		BP100®	
	Grams per **day**	Grams per **week**	sachet per **day**	sachet per **week**	bars per **day**	bars per **week**
3.0 - 3.4	105	750	1 ¼	8	2	14
3.5 - 4.9	130	900	1 ½	10	2 ½	17 ½
5.0 – 6.9	200	1400	2	15	4	28
7.0 – 9.9	260	1800	3	20	5	35
10.0 - 14.9	400	2800	4	30	7	49
15.0 – 19.9	450	3200	5	35	9	63
20.0 – 29.9	500	3500	6	40	10	70
30.0 - 39.9	650	4500	7	50	12	84
40 - 60	700	5000	8	55	14	98

8.2 ROUTINE MEDICINE

8.2.1 In-patients

*** Iron**: is added to the F100 in Phase 2. Add 1 crushed tablet of ferrous sulphate (200mg) to each 2 litres to 2.4litres of F100. For lesser volumes: 1000 to 1200ml of F100, dilute one tab of ferrous sulphate (200mg) in 4ml water and add 2ml of the solution. For 500ml to 600ml of F100, add 1ml of the solution. RUTF already contains the necessary iron.

*** De-worming:** Albendazole or Mebendazole is given at the start of the Phase 2 for patients that will remain as in-patients.

Worm medicine is only given to children that can walk.

Age	<1 year	1 to 2 years	>= 2years
Albendazole 400mg	Not given	½ tablet once	1 tablet once
Mebendazole 100mg	Not given	2½ tablet once	5 tablets once

8.2.2 Direct admission to Out-patients (OTP)

See summary table IV page 20.

Patients that are admitted **directly** to Phase 2 as out-patients are given the routine medicines given to in-patients during Phase 1 as follows:

*** Antibiotics:** Amoxicillin for 7 days.

*** Folic acid:** 5 mg once on first visit (optional), there is abundant folic acid in RUTF to treat sub-clinical folate deficiency. If the dose on the first day is missed there is no point in giving it during subsequent visits as the amount in the RUTF will have repleted the body folate store within one week.

*** Vitamin A:** once on 4th visit for all children; at this time there should be sufficient recovery to store the massive dose of vitamin A in the liver. There is sufficient vitamin A in the RUTF to treat sub-clinical vitamin A deficiency.

- *Any child with signs of vitamin A deficiency should initially be treated as an in-patient as the condition of their eyes can deteriorate very rapidly.*
- On the day of admission (day 1), give vitamin A for all children except those with oedema or those who received vitamin A in the past 6 months.
- Give vitamin A to every patient at the 4th week of the treatment.

*** De-worming:** For both those transferred from in-patients to Phase 2 as out-patients and those admitted directly to OTP de-worming is given at the 2nd out-patient visit (after 7 days).

Worm medicine is only given to children that can walk.

*** Measles vaccine**: Out-patients are given measles vaccine during their 4th visit[22]. Patients directly admitted to OTP are unlikely to be incubating measles (they will mostly fail their appetite test) and will not be exposed to nosocomial infection. Measles vaccine on admission to OTP is thus omitted except in the presence of a measles epidemic. The measles vaccine is given at a time when there should be sufficient recovery for the vaccine to produce protective antibodies.

[22] Both patients admitted directly to OTP and those that have initially been treated as in-patients

* **Anti-malarials**: malaria prophylaxis or treatment can be given according to the national protocol.

- *Children with active malaria should be admitted for in-patient care.*

In malaria endemic areas the families of malnourished children should all be given insecticide-impregnated bed nets.

8.3 SURVEILLANCE

Frequency	In-patient	Out-patient
Weight and oedema	3 times per week	Every visit
Height/Length is measured	Every 3 weeks	As required[23] Every month
Body temperature is measured	Every morning	Every visit
The standard clinical signs (stool, vomiting, etc)	Every day	Every visit
MUAC is taken	Every week	Every visit
Appetite test is done	Intake record is kept on chart	Every visit

8.4 CRITERIA TO MOVE BACK FROM PHASE 2 TO PHASE 1

In patients who develop any signs of a complication should be returned to Phase 1.

Out-patients who develop the signs of a serious medical complication (pneumonia, dehydration, etc. - see table in section on admission triage) should be offered transfer to the in-patient facility for management of their condition until they are fit to return to Phase 2 as out-patients.

In addition, if the patient being treated as an out-patient and develops any of the following s/he should be transferred to the in-patient facility:

- Failure of the appetite test
- Increase/development of oedema
- Development of refeeding diarrhoea sufficient to lead to weight loss.
- Fulfilling any of the criteria of "failure to respond to treatment"
- Weight loss for 2 consecutive weighing
- Weight loss of more than 5% of body weight at any visit.
- Static weight for 3 consecutive weighing
- Major illness or death of the main caretaker so that the substitute caretaker requests in-patient care

[23] There is sometimes "child substitution" in order for the family to continue to access services when the index child has recovered, moved away or died. Height should be measured if there is an unexpected change in weight (large increase or decrease) to check if the same child has attended the OTP site. If there has been child substitution then the "new" individual should be fully assessed.

When transferred back to the in-patient unit, the Phase 1 protocol is initially applied (see chapter 5), however, the routine drugs are individually prescribed depending upon what has already been given and the cause of the transfer.

9. FAILURE TO RESPOND

It is usually only when children fulfil the criteria for "failure to respond" that they need to have an extensive history and examination or laboratory investigations conducted. Most patients are managed by less highly trained staff (adequately supervised) on a routine basis. Skilled staff (nurses and doctors) time and resources should be mainly directed to those few children who fail to respond to the standard treatment.

Failure to respond to standard treatment is a "diagnosis" in its own right. It should be recorded on the chart as such and the child then seen by more senior and experienced staff. For out-patients this diagnosis usually warrants referral to a centre for full assessment; if inadequate social circumstances are suspected as the main cause in out-patient management a home visit can be performed before transfer to the TFU.

In patients	
Criteria for failure to respond	**Time after admission**
Primary failure to respond (phase 1)	
Failure to regain appetite	Day 4
Failure to start to loose oedema	Day 4
Oedema still present	Day 10
Failure to enter phase 2 and gain more than 5g/kg/d	Day 10
Secondary failure to respond	
Failure to gain more than 5g/kg/d for 3 successive days	During Phase 2

Note that the day of admission is counted as day 0.

Out Patients	
Criteria for failure to respond	**Time after admission**
Primary failure to respond	
Failure to gain any weight (non-oedematous children)	21 days
Failure to start to loose oedema	14 days
Oedema still present	21 days
Secondary failure to respond	
Failure of Appetite test	At any visit
Weight loss of 5% of body weight	At any visit
Weight loss for two successive visits	During OTP care
Failure to gain more than 2.5g/kg/d for 21days (after loss of oedema (kwashiorkor) or after day 14 (marasmus)	During OTP care

Usual causes of failure to respond

Problems with the treatment facility:

In –patients

- Poor environment for malnourished children
- Failure to treat the children in a separate area
- Failure to complete the multichart correctly
- Insufficient staff (particularly at night)
- poorly trained staff
- Inaccurate weighing machines
- Food prepared or given incorrectly

Out – patients

- Inappropriate selection of patients to go directly to OTP
- Poorly conducted appetite test
- Inadequate instructions given to caretakers
- Wrong amounts of RUTF dispensed to children
- Excessive time between OTP distributions (e.g. two weekly gives significantly worse results than weekly visits)

Problems of individual children:

In –patients

- Insufficient food given
- Food taken by siblings or caretaker
- Sharing of caretaker's food
- Vitamin or mineral deficiency
- Malabsorption
- Psychological trauma (particularly in refugee situations and families living with HIV/AIDS)
- Rumination
- Infection, especially: Diarrhoea, dysentery, pneumonia, tuberculosis, urinary infection/ Otitis media, malaria, HIV/AIDS, Schistosomiasis/ Leishmaniasis, Hepatitis/ cirrhosis,
- Other serious underlying disease: congenital abnormalities (e.g. Down's syndrome), neurological damage (eg cerebral palsy), inborn errors of metabolism.

Out – patients (In addition to all of the above)

- Sharing within the family
- Sibling rivalry (other children taking the diet)
- All eating from the same plate (the malnourished child should always have his/her own portion of food).
- Unwilling caretaker
- Caretaker overwhelmed with other work and responsibilities

When a child fails to respond then the common causes must be investigated and treated appropriately according to the manual.

Every child with unexplained **primary failure** to respond should have a detailed history and examination performed. In particular, they should be checked carefully for infection as follows:

(1) Examine the child carefully. Measure the temperature, pulse rate and respiration rate

(2) Where appropriate, examine urine for pus cells and culture blood. Examine and culture sputum or tracheal aspirate for **TB**; examine the fundi for retinal tuberculosis; do a chest x-ray.[24] Examine stool for blood, look for trophozoites or cysts of Giardia; culture stool for bacterial pathogens. Test for HIV, hepatitis and malaria. Examine and culture CSF.

Secondary failure to respond (deterioration/regression after having progressed satisfactorily to Phase 2 with a good appetite and weight gain in Transition Phase for in-patients and deterioration after an initial response in out-patients), is usually due to:

- Inhalation of diet into the lungs. There is poor neuro-muscular coordination between the muscles of the throat and the oesophagus in malnutrition. It is quite common for children to inhale food into their lungs during recovery if they are: 1) force fed, particularly with a spoon or pinching of the nose; 2) laid down on their back to eat, and 3) given liquid diets. Inhalation of part of the diet is a common cause of pneumonia in all malnourished patients. Patients should be closely observed whist they are being fed by the caretaker to ensure that the correct technique is being used. One of the advantages of RUTF is that it is much less likely to be force fed and inhaled.
- an acute infection that has been contracted in the centre from another patient (called a "nosocomial" infection) or at home from a visitor/ sibling/ household member.
- Sometimes as the immune and inflammatory system recovers there appears to be "reactivation" of infection during recovery; acute onset of malaria and tuberculosis (for example sudden enlargement of a cervical abscess or development of a sinus) may arise several days or weeks after starting a therapeutic diet.
- a limiting nutrient in the body that has been "consumed" by the rapid growth and is not being supplied in adequate amounts by the diet. This is very uncommon with modern diets (F100 and RUTF) but may well occur with home-made diets or with the introduction of "other foods". Frequently, introduction of "family plate", UNIMIX or CSB slows the rate of recovery of a malnourished child. The same can occur at home when the child is given the family food (the same food that the child was taking when malnutrition developed) or traditional "weaning" foods.
- With out-patients, traditional medicines, other treatments and a change in home-circumstances can significantly affect the recovery of the malnourished child.

Action required when failure to respond is commonly seen in a programme.

- The common causes listed in the box should be systematically examined to determine and rectify the problems.
- If this is not immediately successful then an external evaluation by someone with experience of running a programme for the treatment of severe malnutrition should be conducted into the organisation and application of the protocol.

[24] Gastric aspirates are very rarely positive in the malnourished child with active TB – particularly if there is overnight feeding; this test should not be relied on, is difficult to perform well and is traumatic for the child. If it is used, overnight feeds should not be given.

- Review of the supervision of staff with refresher training if necessary
- Re-calibration of scales (and length-boards).

For out-patient programmes (OTP)

- Follow-up through *home visits* by outreach workers/volunteers to check whether a child should be referred back to the clinic between visits
- Discuss with carer on aspects of the home environment that may be affecting the child's progress in the programme
- At health facility carry out medical check and Appetite test
- A follow-up home visit is essential when:
    - carer has refused admission to in-patient care despite advice
    - failure to attend appointments at the out-patient programme

10. DISCHARGE CRITERIA

AGE	DISCHARGE CRITERIA
option 1 *6 months to 18 years*	➢ W/L>=85% or W/H>=85% on more than one occasion. (Two days for in-patients, two weeks for out-patients). **and** ➢ no oedema for 10 days (In-patient) or 14 days (out-patient)
option 2 *6 months to adulthood*	➢ target weight gain reached (see table in annex 6) **and** ➢ no oedema for 10 days (In-patient) or 14 days (out-patient)

Option 1 is the preferred option. It is used where the facility has the capacity to measure the height of the children.

Option 2 is used particularly for adults and also for children being treated by mobile teams and admitted on MUAC criteria to peripheral OTP sites without the facilities or staff skills to measure height. See table in annex 6.

All the patients should be discharged to supplementary feeding programme (SFP) for follow up where this is available. If the SFP is well run and the numbers of children in the Therapeutic feeding programme the discharge criteria can be changed to 80% weight for height on at least two occasions.

Follow-up after discharge

The patients should be enrolled in a Supplementary Feeding Programme and given nutritional support for another 4 months. The ration should be the same as the standard SFP ration. There should be a separate category in the SFP registration book for these patients for their follow up. The registration book should always record the UNIQUE SAM number of the patients that have been severely malnourished.

If there is no SFP near to the beneficiaries' home, then the follow up should be organized at the nearest MCH or health centre monthly for two months.

Where the outreach services are operational, linkages can be made so that children discharged from the programme can be followed up by the outreach workers/ community health workers.

1. INFANT WITH A FEMALE CARETAKER

These children should always be treated in an in-patient unit and should not be admitted to out-patient treatment. RUTF **is not** suitable for infants.

Infants who are malnourished are weak and do not suckle strongly enough to stimulate an adequate production of breast milk. The mother often thinks that she herself has insufficient milk and is apprehensive about her ability to adequately feed her child. The low output of milk is due to inadequate stimulation by the feeble infant. The whole objective of treatment of these patients is to return them to full exclusive breast feeding.

The main admission criterion is failure of effective breast feeding and the main discharge criterion is gaining weight on breast milk alone.

1.1 ADMISSION CRITERIA

AGE	ADMISSION CRITERIA
Infant less than 6 months or less than 3 kg being breast-fed	➢ The infant is too weak or feeble to suckle effectively (independently of his/her weight-for-length)[25] **or** ➢ W/L (Weight-for-Length) less than 70% **or** ➢ Presence of bilateral oedema.

If the infant is not gaining weight at home, assess breast feeding, counsel on optimal breast feeding and follow-up at OPD.

1.2 PHASE 1 – TRANSITION – PHASE 2

The aim is to stimulate breast-feeding and to supplement the child until breast milk is sufficient to allow the child to grow properly. Breast milk output is stimulated by the Supplemental Suckling (SS) technique; it is important to put the child to the breast as often as possible.

- Breast-feed every 3 hours for at least 20 minutes, more often if the child cries or seems to want more.
- Between one half and one hour after a normal breast-feed give maintenance amounts of F100 diluted using the supplementary suckling technique:
- F100diluted: 130ml/kg/day (100kcal/kg/day), divided in 8 meals.
- Young infants should be nursed in a separate space from the older malnourished children. This can be a "beast-feeding corner".

There are not separate phases in the treatment of infants with the SS technique. There is no need to start with F75 and then switch to F100diluted unless the infant has oedema.

[25] Also assess for other underlying serious medical problems

1.2.1 Preparation of F100 DILUTED

- Dilute F100 one packet into 2.7l of water instead of 2l to make F100 diluted.

- To make small quantities of F100 diluted,

  - Use 100ml of F100 already prepared and add 35ml of water, then you will get 135ml of F100diluted. Discard any excess waste. Don't make smaller quantities.
  - If you need more than 135ml, use 200ml of F100 and add 70ml of water, to make 270ml of F100 diluted and discard any excess waste.

If F100 diluted is not readily available these infants can be fed with the same quantities of commercial infant formula diluted according to the instructions on the tin.

If there is a choice, use a formula designed for premature infants. However, infant formula is not designed to promote rapid catch up growth. Unmodified powdered whole milk or animal milk should not be used.

XI. amounts of F100 diluted (or infant formula) to give for infants during Supplementary Suckling. The quantity is NOT increased as the infant starts to gain weight

Class of Weight (kg)	ml of F100 diluted per feed (8 feeds/day)
	Diluted F100
>=1.2 kg	25 ml per feed
1.3 to 1.5 kg	30
1.6 – 1.7	35
1.8 – 2.1	40
2.2 - 2.4	45
2.5 - 2.7	50
2.8 – 2.9	55
3.0 - 3.4	60
3.5 – 3.9	65
4.0 – 4.4	70

Children less than 6 months, with oedema, should be started on F75 and not on F100diluted. When the oedema has resolved and they are suckling strongly they should be changed to F100 diluted or infant formula

Note: F100 undiluted is never used for small infants (less than 3kg)

1.2.2 Surveillance

The progress of the child is monitored by the daily weight.

- If the child looses weight over 3 consecutive days yet seems hungry and is taking all his F100 dilute, add 5mls to each feed[26].
- The supplementation is not increased during the stay in the centre. If the child grows regularly with the same quantity of milk, it means the quantity of breast milk is increasing.
- If after some days, the child does not finish all the supplemental food, but continues to gain weight, it means that the breast milk is increasing and that the child has enough.
- Weigh the child daily with a scale graduated to within 10g (or 20g).
- When a baby is gaining weight at 20g per day (what ever his weight):
- Decrease the quantity of F100diluted to one half of the maintenance intake.
- If the weight gain is maintained (10g per day whatever his weight) then stop supplement suckling completely.
- If the weight gain is not maintained then increase the amount given to 75% of the maintenance amount for 2 to 3 days and then reduce it again if weight gain is maintained.
- If the mother is agreeable, it is advisable to keep the child in the centre for a further few days on breast milk alone to make sure that he continues to gain weight. If the mother wishes to go home as soon as the child is taking the breast milk greedily then they should be discharged.
- When it is certain that the child is gaining weight on breast milk alone he should be discharged, no matter what his current weight or weight-for-length.

1.2.3 Supplementary Suckling Technique

The supplementation is given using a tube the same size as n°8 NGT (a size n°5 tube can be used, but the milk should be strained through cotton wool to remove any small particles that would block the tube).

- F100 diluted is put in a cup. The mother holds it.
- The end of the tube is put in the cup.
- The tip of the tube is put on the breast at the nipple and the infant is offered the breast in the normal way so that the infant attaches properly. Sometimes at the beginning the mothers find it better to attach the tube to the breast with some tape.
- When the infant suckles on the breast, with the tube in his mouth, the milk from the cup is sucked up through the tube and taken by the infant. It is like taking a drink through a straw.
- At first an assistant needs to help the mother by holding the cup and the tube in place. She encourages the mother confidently. Later the mothers nearly always manage to hold the cup and tube without assistance.
- At first, the cup should be placed at about 5 to 10cm below the level of the nipple so the milk does not flow too quickly and distress the infant. And the weak infant does not have to suckle

[26] The Supplemental Suckling feed is giving maintenance amounts. If it is being taken and there is weight loss, either the maintenance requirement is higher than calculated or there is significant mal-absorption.

excessively to take the milk. As the infant becomes stronger the cup should be lowered progressively to about 30cm below the breast.

- The mother holds the tube at the breast with one hand and uses the other for holding the cup. Some mothers find it more convenient if the tube is held in place with a strip of tape, but this is not normally necessary.
- It may take one or two days for the infant to get used of the tube and the taste of the mixture of milks, but it is important to persevere.
- By far the best person to show the mother the technique is another mother who is using the technique successfully. Once one mother is using the SS technique successfully the other mothers find it quite easy to copy her.
- The mother should be relaxed. Excessive or officious instructions about the correct positioning or attachment positions often inhibit the mothers and make her think the technique is much more difficult than it is. Any way in which the mother is comfortable and finds that the technique works is satisfactory.
- If the formula diet is changed then the infant normally takes a few days to become used to the new taste. It is preferable to continue with the same supplementary diet throughout the treatment.



This infant is suckling the breast and also getting the F100diluted (130ml/kg/d) by the supplemental suckling technique.

Raising or lowering the cup determines the ease with which the infant gets the supplement: for very weak infants it can be at the level of the infant's mouth. If it is above this level the feed can go into the child by siphonage when there is a danger of aspiration.

After feeding the tube is flushed through with clean water using a syringe. It is then spun (twirled) rapidly to remove the water in the lumen of the tube by centrifugal force. If convenient the tube is then left exposed to direct sunlight.

1.2.4 Routine medicine

These children have to be seen by a nurse everyday because they are vulnerable.

- **Vitamin A**: 50,000UI at admission only
- **Folic acid**: 2.5mg (1tab) in one single dose
- **Ferrous sulphate**: when the child suckles well and starts to grow. Use the F100, which has been enriched with ferrous sulphate (phase II). Dilute this with 1/3 water to obtain the correct dilution. Children below 6 months are relatively few and it is much easier and safer to use the F100 prepared for the older patients than to calculate and add ferrous sulphate to very small amounts of diet.
- **Antibiotics**: Amoxycillin (from 2kg): 30mg/kg 2 times a day (60mg/day) in association with Gentamycin (do not use Chloramphenicol in young infants)

The surveillance is the same for infants as for older patients in Phase 1

1.2.5 Care for the mothers

As the aim is to increase breast milk, the mothers learn from each other and the treatment is different from older patients, the babies should be together in a specific room that can be monitored and kept quiet.

- Check mother's MUAC and the presence of oedema
- Explain to the mother what the aim of treatment is and what is expected of her
- Do not make the mother feel guilty for the state of her child or blame her for giving other foods
- Strongly reassure the mother that the technique works and that she will get enough milk herself to make her baby better
- Be attentive to her and introduce her to the other mothers in the phase
- She should drink at least 2 litres per day
- She must eat enough - about 2500kcal/day (1 porridge[27] in the morning, 1 or 2 family meals, 1 porridge in the afternoon)
- The mother who is admitted in the centre with her child should receive Vitamin A: if the child is below 2 months: 200.000UI (there should be no risk of pregnancy)
- Micronutrients' supplementation must also be given to the mother. The quality of the milk with respect to many type I nutrients depends upon the mother's nutritional status. It is critical that the mother is properly fed during this procedure and any deficiency in the infant is corrected by giving good nutrition to the mother[28]
- The length of stay in the TFU should be as short as possible

[27] If porridge is not available, then provide the most nutritious food available

[28] See *National Guideline for Control and Prevention of Micronutrient Deficiencies,* Federal Ministry of Health, Ethiopia, June 2004

1.3 DISCHARGE CRITERIA

AGE	DISCHARGE CRITERIA
Infant less than 6 months or less than 3 kg being breast-fed	➢ it is clear that he/she is gaining weight on breast milk alone after the Supplemented Suckling technique has been used, ➢ there is no medical problem ➢ the mother has been adequately supplemented with vitamins and minerals, so that she has accumulated body stores of the type I nutrients.

Note: there are no anthropometric criteria for discharge of the fully breast-fed infant who is gaining weight.

Follow-up for these children is very important. The mother should be included in the SFP programme and receive food to improve the quantity and quality of breast milk. All infants less than 6 months old discharged from therapeutic feeding have to be followed-up monthly until their reach six months of age.

2. INFANT WITHOUT ANY PROSPECT OF BEING BREAST-FED

2.1 ADMISSION CRITERIA[29]

AGE	ADMISSION CRITERIA
Infant less than 6 months or less than 3 kg with no prospect of being breast-fed	➢ W/L (weight-for-length) < 70% **or** ➢ presence of bilateral oedema.

2.2 PHASE I - TRANSITION – PHASE 2

When there is no prospect of being given breast milk then severely malnourished, less than 6 month' old infants, should be treated according to the standard protocol with the following modifications.

2.2.1 Phase I

Wasted, marasmic infants of less than 6 months can be given F100 diluted in Phase 1. Oedematous infants of less than 6 months should always be given F75 during phase one.

XII. amounts of F100 diluted to give for infants not breast-fed in Phase I

Class of Weight (kg)	ml of F100 per feed in Phase I (8 feeds/day)
	Diluted F100
=< 1.5 kg	30 ml per feed
1.6 to 1.8 kg	35 ml per feed
1.9 – 2.1	40
2.2 - 2.4	45
2.5 - 2.7	50
2.8 – 2.9	55
3.0 - 3.4	60
3.5 – 3.9	65
4.0 – 4.4	70

Children less than 6 months, with oedema, should be on F75 and not on F100 diluted.

[29] There are no standards for infants below 49cm and the increments to judge nutritional status require precise scales that are not generally available. The in-patient therapeutic unit is not appropriate for treating premature and low-birth-weight non-breast-fed infants below 49cm in length. These infants should be referred to the nursery and given infant formula.

2.2.2 Transition Phase

During Transition Phase, only F100 diluted should be used. The volume of the diet is increased by one third. These small infants should not be treated with full strength F100.

2.2.3 Phase 2

During Phase 2, only F100 diluted should be used. The volume of the diet is increased. These small infants should not be treated with full strength F100.

XIII. amounts of F100 diluted to give for infants not breast-fed in Phase 2

Class of Weight (kg)	ml of F100 per feed in Phase 2 (6 to 8 feeds/day)
	Diluted F100
=< 1.5 kg	60 ml
1.6 to 1.8 kg	70 ml
1.9 – 2.1	80
2.2 - 2.4	90
2.5 - 2.7	100
2.8 – 2.9	110
3.0 - 3.4	120
3.5 – 3.9	130
4.0 – 4.4	140

2.3 DISCHARGE CRITERIA

AGE	DISCHARGE CRITERIA
Infant less than 6 months or less than 3 kg with no prospect of being breast-fed	➢ When they reach 85% weight for length they can be switched to infant formula.

Follow-up for these children is very important and to be organised by the Health Extension Workers (HEW). All infants less than 6 months old discharged from therapeutic feeding have to be followed-up monthly until their reach six months of age.

PLAY, EMOTIONAL WELLBEING AND STIMULATION

As children become malnourished they gradually reduce their activity. When fully malnourished they do not play, cry, smile, complain or show normal emotions – they become lethargic and feeble. Because they do not cry when they are hungry, thirsty or distressed a busy mother thinks that her child does not need more attention than she is giving the child. Nurses also neglect children in hospital for the same reason. Adults respond to the demands of children, if the child does not demand then it is ignored. This is the main reason why these children should be treated together and separately from children with other conditions.

Because they do not do not play, they do not learn. With time this leads to delayed mental and behavioural development. If this is not treated it is the most serious long-term result of malnutrition. Emotional and physical stimulation through play programmes that start during rehabilitation and continue after discharge can substantially reduce the risk of permanent mental and emotional damage.

Many children have witnessed events that are very traumatic emotionally. Children of parents with HIV/AIDS for example may have seen their mother and farther become ill and die in most distressing ways. Orphans are particularly vulnerable. With serious famine they may have been discriminated against within the family by siblings and relatives. In emergency situations they may have witnessed extreme violence to loved ones. Such psychological trauma frequently leads to post-traumatic stress disorder and, particularly in older children, can be a major impediment to recovery.

It is essential that the staff understand the emotional needs of these children and create a friendly supportive atmosphere. Caretakers must never be chastised and the staff should never shout or become angry. Unsmiling children need to be picked up, cuddled and kissed. There must be an educational session that teaches the mothers the importance of play and exploration as part of the emotional, physical and mental stimulation that the children need. This is an integral part of treatment. In out-patient settings it is critical that the mothers understand the importance of this aspect of treatment.

It is essential that the mother be with her child in hospital and at the TFU, and that she be encouraged to feed, hold, comfort and play with her child as much as possible. Toys should be available in the child's room, as well as the play area. Inexpensive and safe toys made from cardboard boxes, plastic bottles, tin cans, old clothes, blocks of wood and similar materials. They are best because mothers are taught to make them themselves and continue to make toys for their children after discharge.

Emotional stimulation and play:

Care must be taken to avoid sensory deprivation. The child's face must not be covered; the child must be able to see and hear what is happening around him or her. The child should never be wrapped or tied. The malnourished child needs interaction with other children during rehabilitation. After the first few days of treatment, the child should spend prolonged periods with other children on large play mats, and with the mother or a play guide. There is no evidence that this increases nosocomial infections[30]

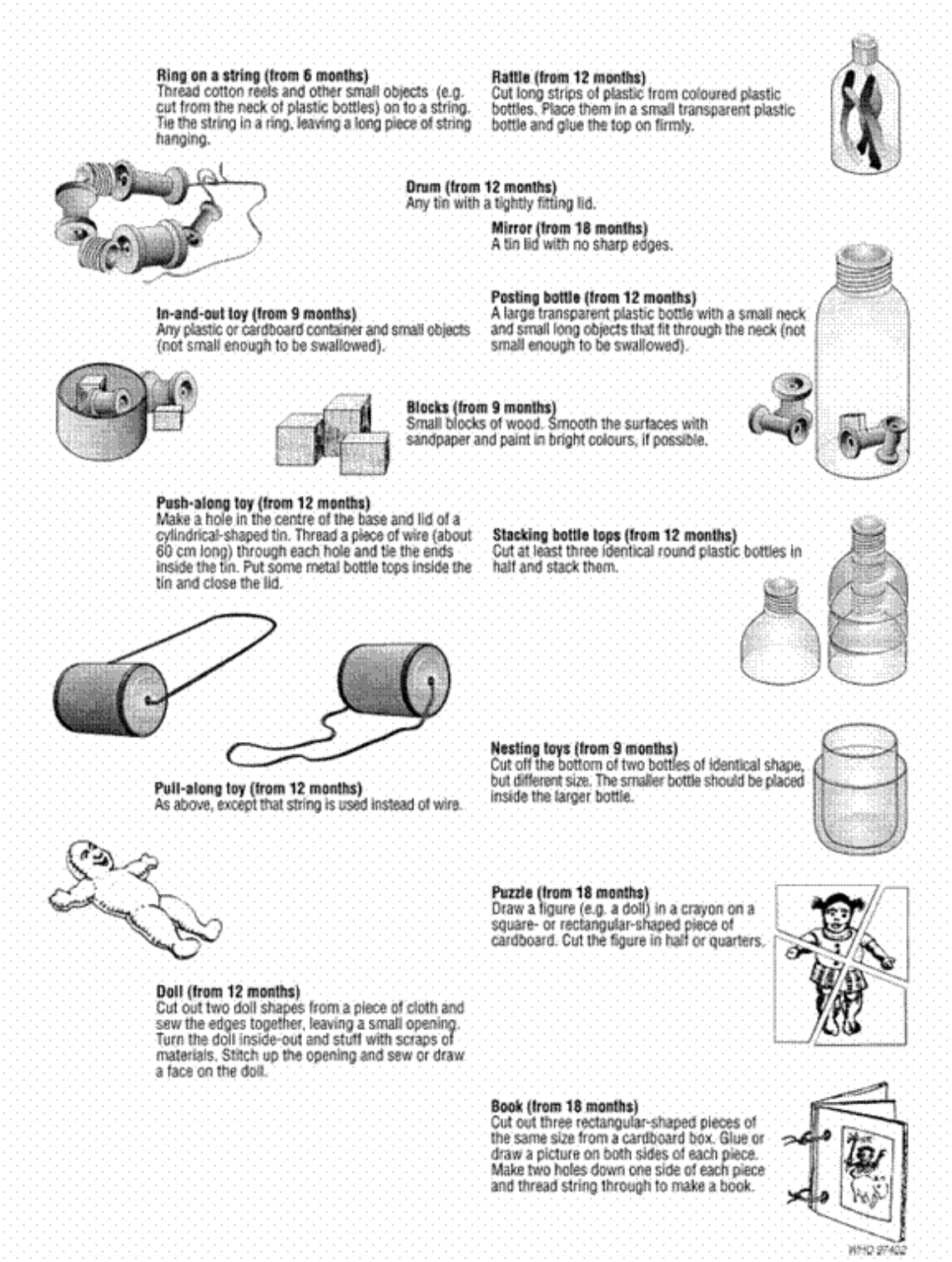
Physical activity:

Physical activity itself promotes the development of essential motor skills and may also enhance growth during rehabilitation. For immobile children, passive limb movements and splashing in a warm bath are helpful. For mobile children, play should include such activities as rolling or tumbling on a mattress, kicking and tossing a ball, climbing stairs, and walking uphill and down. The duration and intensity of physical activities should increase as the child's condition improves. There should be

[30] Most nosocomial infection comes from the staff moving from patient to patient without their washing hands, from the caretakers, from contamination of the diets and storage of feeds before they are given to the child and from inadequate facilities for washing, and the disposal of excreta. Putting children together to play does not represent an important additional danger.

a member of staff nominated who has overall responsibility for all these aspects of care of the malnourished.

The toys shown in the diagram below should be made and used in both the in-patient units and the homes of the malnourished children.



COMMUNITY MOBILISATION

Introduction[31]

The quality of engagement with target communities is a vital determinant of the success of a community-based programme. Community mobilisation is crucial for effective early case-finding. Early case finding and the quality of service provision are the two most important determinants of case fatality rates, programme coverage and the impact of the programme.

Community mobilisation: the term 'community mobilisation' is used here to refer to a range of activities that help implementers understand the affected communities, build relationships with them and foster their participation in programme activities.

Objective: to enhance the immediate programme impact whilst creating a platform for comprehensive community mobilisation over the longer term. Fostering community participation at the beginning of the programme also facilitates integration with other programmes in other sectors such as health, food security, agriculture etc.

Although community mobilisation is a continuous process, it is usefully conceptualised as being divided into 5 areas. These are presented in Figure below.

Stages in community mobilisation

Planning Phase **Implementation Phases**

Assessing community capacity → ***Community sensitisation*** → ***Case-finding*** → ***Follow up*** → ***Ongoing sensitisation***

Assessing community capacity

To be effective community-based programmes must be tailored to the *context* in which they operate and this requires mechanisms to ensure that information gathered during the assessment of the affected community guides programme design and planning. It is particularly important to have information on community structures (both formal and informal), key stakeholders (traditional authorities, traditional and modern health practitioners, civil society etc), literacy levels, terms used to define malnutrition, who is responsible for children, who makes key decision on household resource allocation, attitudes to health and malnutrition, health seeking behaviour, and formal and informal means of communication used.

Community sensitisation

Community sensitisation aims to raise awareness of the programme, promote understanding of its methods and lay the foundations for community ownership in the future. Sensitisation messages should provide essential information about the programme's aims, methods and actors. In particular people must know what the programme will mean to them in practice: what will it do, where it will operate, who will implement it, how can people access it and what will accessing the programme will mean to individuals?

Messages must be formulated and disseminated with the active involvement of key stakeholders in a language that local people understand. Messages should be as brief as possible and must be tailored

[31] Excerpt from *"Key issues in the success of community-based management of severe malnutrition",* Tanya Khara, Anne Walsh and Steven Collins, Valid International.

to the target population, using local concepts and understandings of malnutrition, and terms to describe it. Visual aids and "fliers" posted in key places and disseminated to key stakeholders (traditional leaders, teachers, HEW, CHW etc.) can enhance the effectiveness of this process.

The messages should be disseminated through the *channels of communication* that the community usually uses. These might be formal or informal, traditional or modern. Experiences show that informal channels tend to be particularly useful. It is also important to consult and involve key community figures, community organisations and groups such as volunteer networks and women's associations. In particular, experiences indicate that it is crucial to involve traditional health practitioners. Decisions on the channels of communication and on engagement with different actors can therefore, only be made based upon an understanding on the local community dynamics.

Community sensitisation is an ongoing process. Much of the activity takes place early in the programme but it should be continually reinforced throughout the programme in order to be effective. The process should be seen as a constant dialogue in which communities can periodically voice their views and suggest alternative courses of action.

Case finding - The identification of severely malnourished children in the community

In order to be able to provide the largest possible proportion of the acutely malnourished population with access to care, a programme needs to be very effective at identifying people who need care and admitting them to the programme. To reduce the barriers to access, screening must take place in the community using MUAC and checking for nutritional oedema.

Active case finding

If sufficient initial efforts are put into sensitisation, self-referrals from the community will provide the mainstay of case-finding. However, in order to maximise coverage, it is important to supplement self-referral with continual active case-finding.

Volunteers

There are two major challenges facing volunteer-based case finding systems. These are choosing volunteers who are representative of their communities and secondly motivating volunteers to perform their roles.

A unique strength of Therapeutic Programmes is its high potential to motivate mothers, volunteers and health care workers. The positive feedback associated with an effective cure of severe acute malnutrition is an extremely powerful motivating force that both stimulates demand and uptake of programme and motivates volunteers to support the programme. If nurtured and used appropriately, this motivation can encourage mothers and traditional practitioners to refer children to OTP and motivate volunteers to case find and monitor problematic cases. In addition, linking local health care workers to the successful treatment of individuals motivates these workers and enhances their credibility amongst the local people.

Active case-finding by volunteers has several advantages. Volunteers are local and therefore familiar with the area, its population and customs and known by the community members. Crucially, designing outreach strategies around volunteers motivated by the positive reinforcement associated with a successful programme, requires very few inputs.

Selection of volunteers

Facilitating the community to select volunteers is a participatory approach. However this can have drawbacks. The most common problem is the tendency for communities to select young, literate men and people related to community leaders.

Positive carers

It is important to complement this approach by identifying 'positive carers' from within the programme clients. In most therapeutic programmes the energy and commitment of these mothers has proved invaluable in assisting with active case-finding and on occasion with following-up and supporting other carers.

Existing health volunteers

It is also recommended to integrate health volunteers (for example Growth Monitoring Volunteers, Community Health Volunteers, Village Health Committees) in active case-finding if they are familiar with the area, people and customs. These pre-existing volunteers have knowledge of health issues and usually have standing in the community with villagers willing and accustomed to seek their assistance. However, health volunteers should not be overloaded unrealistically. It is important to maintain realistic expectation from volunteers. An alternative approach of using the HEW for recruiting training and following volunteers should be highlighted as these groups play a vital role in the implementation of the health package.

Outreach workers

Outreach workers are paid to perform community outreach activities. Literacy is not a requirement but it can facilitate the referral process. The advantage of employing outreach workers is that case-finding tends to be more organised. The salary may be the primary income source for the worker and his/her household and it encourages focus. In emergency humanitarian operations paid outreach workers are a feasible and affordable option, however, employing outreach workers is relatively costly and, in long-term programmes, this cost is usually unsustainable. For that reason, most non-emergency programmes employ few if any paid outreach workers.

Combining outreach workers and volunteers

There are some potential drawbacks to working exclusively through volunteers. The volunteer's agricultural or other income-generating activities often limit the extent of their involvement and they may be less accountable to the programme because they are not on the payroll. In practice, combining volunteers with a very few paid outreach workers is often an appropriate solution, particularly at the start of programmes

Case finding using focal points

Individuals in each village or cluster of villages can function as focal points to identify cases and be a link between the community and the programme. Working with village focal points is a particularly useful approach in situations where the mobility of outreach workers and volunteers is limited, for instance by insecurity, geography or logistical constraints.

***Challenges common in case-finding are**:*

Travel requirement: In widely dispersed communities, volunteers and outreach workers may have to travel long distances on foot each week to visit villages and individual houses. This needs careful consideration when the case-finding strategy is developed.

Coordination: In situations where many NGOs are working in an area, volunteers may be working alongside other volunteers who are supported by a different agency. This is particularly common in large emergency responses. Approaches to active case-finding should be coordinated to avoid counter-productive activity and conflicting messages.

Follow-up

Children's progress is monitored on a weekly basis at the distribution site. Follow-up is not mandatory however, in some cases follow-up is necessary. These include:

- Children who are losing weight or whose medical condition is deteriorating.
- Children who are not responding to treatment
- Children whose carers have refused admission to the in-patient unit

The need for follow-up is identified by the health worker after discussion with the carer. The health worker liaises with outreach workers or volunteers (by direct contact or by sending a message) to arrange a home visit to these high risk groups.

All absences in the programme should be followed up by outreach teams, volunteers, or key community figures. It is important to gain an understanding of the reason for absence and to encourage return. The absentee should not be reprimanded as this can discourage return.

HIV/AIDS AND MALNUTRITION

The HIV epidemic is affecting most societies in the developing world. It affects mainly sexually active young adults. These adults are the carers and parents of children and the providers for, and protectors of, their families. A sick parent cannot work and earn to provide for the children and without treatment will die. HIV affected communities are becoming poorer. The prevalence of severe malnutrition is increasing in both HIV negative as well as HIV positive children.

Where there is an effective Voluntary Testing and Counselling (VCT) programme and, at least, prophylaxis and treatment for opportunistic infections is available. Then VCT should be offered to all patients with severe malnutrition and their caretakers. Where anti-retroviral treatment is available there should always be VCT associated with the identification and management of SAM.

There is a need for there to be a willing and capable carer for the SAM patient. Where the parent has HIV/AIDS, additional support needs to be available as the parent will have recurrent illness. During these illnesses she may not be able to care for her children. Indeed, OTP may not be feasible. Where one grandmother has to care for many of her grandchildren without obvious means of support it may not be possible to expect that grandmother to give special care to the malnourished child. Community mobilisation and support, as well as local NGOs, can be invaluable in these circumstances. Many of these children have to be treated in a facility (not necessarily a hospital) using the OTP protocol for Phase 2.

All societies have traditional mechanisms and social networks that care for orphans. However, in many regions the large numbers of orphans have stretched these cultural responses for orphans beyond their capacity to absorb any more children. Orphanages and similar institutions frequently admit large numbers of severely malnourished children. The residents should always be screened for severe malnutrition and appropriate treatment given. The staff of such institutions should be trained in the basic care of the severely malnourished, and should be able to give OTP care. They can even be the base for an OTP site

Exactly the same protocol is used in HIV positive and negative patients. They respond well to the treatment regimen, usually regaining their appetites and gaining weight at the same rate as HIV negative patients.

They should be particularly screened for TB at the time of HIV testing, as co-infection is particularly common. TB, HIV and SAM are linked and frequently appear in the same patients[32].

The drugs that are used for TB and HIV are quite toxic to the liver and pancreas. These organs are particularly affected by SAM. If treatment with anti-TB drugs or ARVs is started in the severely malnourished patient they are likely to develop very severe side effects from the drugs. This leads to withdrawal of many of the patients from the treatment programmes. Neither TB nor HIV are rapidly fatal illnesses.

The natural history of untreated TB in adults is: after 2 years one third are dead, one third have self-cured and one third progress to chronic extra-pulmonary TB. As 33% die in 24 months this is about 1.5% chance of death each month. A delay of one week or so in starting treatment will have little effect upon the overall mortality rate (unless the patient has tuberculosis meningitis or milliary TB). Similarly, if opportunistic infections are prevented or controlled HIV is not a rapidly fatal condition. On the other hand the mortality from the severe malnutrition with modern treatment less than 5%, but with conventional treatments rises to 20% or higher within a the first week to treatment. Children with SAM and TB should not be transferred to a TB centre where they have little experience in treating SAM as soon as the diagnosis is made. The treatment of the SAM takes precedence; the treatment of TB can be carried out in the TFU more easily and efficiently than the treatment of SAM at the TB centre.

[32] Local experience has shown high acceptance for provider initiating HIV counseling and testing (PIHCT) service when provided to parents of SAM children. This enhances the link between ART and TFP.

HIV/AIDS AND MALNUTRITION

It is better to first start the treatment of severe malnutrition in all patients and to delay introduction of ARVs for one or two weeks until the liver, pancreas and intestine have recovered sufficiently to metabolise the drugs safely.

Once started the treatment of the HIV and TB should follow the national guidelines.

There are major interactions between ARV drugs and some of the drugs used for in severe malnutrition. For example co-artem, albendazole and rifampicin should be avoided at the same time as some of the ARVs. These interactions are likely to be even more serious in the malnourished patient who already has a compromised hepatic function. This is another cogent reason why the treatment of HIV with ARVs should be delayed until the drugs used in malnutrition have been administered. In areas where there is a high prevalence of HIV, and a danger of patients being enrolled in both programmes then alternative antimalarial, anti-helminthic (mebendazole) and TB drugs may be indicated.

Some of the drugs used in HIV/AIDS patients with opportunistic infections are particularly toxic to the malnourished patient (e.g. Amphotericin B). Great care should be exercised when such drugs are used.

There are major opportunity costs for families to attend clinics, particularly if the clinic is distant from their home. This is one of the main reasons for promoting out-patient management of severe malnutrition. If the child has HIV then it is extremely likely that the mother also is infected. The clinic that looks after the mother should also care for the child; the parent should not have to make two visits to the clinic, one for herself and the other for her child.

The care and treatment centres that have been established for HIV should not only see both the mother and child together, they should also be able to provide treatment for severe malnutrition, on an out-patient basis according to this protocol. There should be access to in-patient facilities where the complicated cases and those without appetite can undergo Phase 1 in association with the HIV care and treatment centre. Similarly, TB programmes should always also screen for nutritional status and offer treatment along with the DOTS and other TB programmes. Indeed, HIV, TB and SAM services in most regions should be integrated administratively and operationally.

HEALTH AND NUTRITION INFORMATION

The parents and carers, whose children become malnourished, generally come from the poorest sections of society. They frequently have not attended school, or have only had basic education. Many cannot read of write. They are often unaware of the nutritional needs of children, the importance of play and psychosocial stimulation in child development, the critical effect of hygiene and pollution in disease causation, the basic measures to take when children become ill and the signs and symptoms of serious disorders. Basic facts about breastfeeding, sexually transmitted disease and HIV, reproductive health and the ill effects of some traditional practices like female genital mutilation are not known.

Such carers come together during a Therapeutic feeding programme, either in the TFU as in-patients or at the distribution sites of OTP. It is important that these opportunities be taken to hold education sessions for the carers, each week-day in the in-patient facility and each week at the OTP site.

The multichart and OTP chart have a box for recording whether the caretakers have indeed attended the sessions.

The lesson plans can be generated or modified locally to suit the prevailing problems of a region; however there are basic health and nutrition messages that should be common to all programmes.

See example of messages in annexes 12 and 13.

RECORDING AND REPORTING

Recording and reporting on the management of severe acute malnutrition is an integral part of your job. It allows proper follow-up of the patient and immediate and appropriate correction of the treatment if necessary. It also allows proper tracking of individual patients when they are referred from in-patient to out-patient and vice versa. Lastly, it will help you monitor the performance of your programme and take the necessary action to maintain a high quality service.

There are 4 essential steps to follow for a good monitoring:

1- Attribution of a Unique SAM#

2- Registration of the patients in the registration book

3- Recording of the patients' evolution in the individual follow-up chart

4- Preparation of the monthly statistic reports

1- ATTRIBUTING THE UNIQUE SAM NUMBER

The importance of registration and being able to follow a patient as they are transferred from one component of the programme to another is critical. With patients being referred from the community to OTP sites to TFUs and then back to the OTP for out-patient treatment it is has become very difficult to follow an individual's progress and ensure that the person is not lost from the system. On the other hand if each institution and site record each arrival as a new admission (for them) then many patients will be registered twice, or even more often, as new cases. To overcome these problems each case is given a **UNIQUE SAM NUMBER** by the **first programme that starts treatment** of the person. The patient then keeps this same number during all transfers. The individual programme can also give a registration number to the patient for their own internal use and filing – a site specific number – but they must also use the Unique SAM-Number on all transfer forms and documents related to that patient.

Sometimes a patient has a third number, for example if there is a TFU attached to a district hospital and the patient has been transferred from OTP having started treatment in Phase 2 as an out-patient, then the patient will have a) a Unique SAM number assigned by the OTP site, b) a TFU sequential registration number and c) a hospital number. These registration numbers must be kept distinct and marked in different places on the charts and transfer forms. The critical number is the UNIQUE SAM number.

This Unique SAM number is assigned where the patient is first treated, whether this is an OTP site or in the TFU. This Unique number should always be reported as the Unique SAM Nb in all the documents of the patient, e.g. for in-patient care, on the multicharts and registration book and transfer form; for Out patient care, in the individual chart, registration book and transfer forms.

1- **Unique SAM Nb** - The number will be a multi component number made up of the following components: Region number/woreda/code for facility where first treated/patient assigned sequential 5 digit number). The first patient to start the treatment in the facility will be given 000001.

For example: **12/ woreda/ health facility code/ 001345**

The code for each woreda and OTP site and for each TFU will be agreed by the Regional Health Bureau and Woreda health Office to use the same facility codes both for the HIV and TFP programmes.

2- The **FACILITY Registration #**. is assigned for in- and out- patient care by the facility (5 digit number followed by year). This number is used for internal filing only and is not used for transfer of patients or for constructing a database of patients.

BOTH these numbers should be recorded on the multicharts and in the registration book for in-patient care and in the individual chart registration book and OTP chart for out patient care.

2- FILLING THE REGISTRATION BOOK

All the information regarding the patients under the programme needs to be compiled in the registration book. The information needed are: Identification information, Anthropometric information, Diagnosis and Outcome (defaulters, discharge cured, death, medical transfer, transfer out to Out Patient Care or transfer out to In Patient care, non-responder. Discharge to the SFP is not considered as a transfer. In the case of OTP programmes there is an additional category of outcome – UNKNOWN. This is used for patients that fail to attend the OTP programme and a home visit has not yet determined if they have defaulted, moved away or are dead).

RECORDING AND REPORTING

See below the information needed in the registration book:

| REGISTRATION BOOK FOR THERAPEUTIC FEEDING | | |

3- RECORDING IN THE INDIVIDUAL FOLLOW-UP CHART

It should be filled for each patient. It is the primary tool for managing malnutrition and is recommended for all facilities looking after these patients. Other documents should not be used and there is no place for spending time making duplicate records. The multichart is designed so that it:

1) allows proper control of all aspects of the care of the patient (from admission to follow-up and throughout his/her stay in the TFP);
2) gives detailed information for each individual case's progression (changes in health and nutritional status, treatment phase and diet, medical treatments, clinical signs, temperature, etc.).
3) as all the staff use the same chart, each has ready access to the information collected by other grades, and all the essential information is recorded systematically in the same predetermined part of the chart. The information can thus be found easily and quickly for each patient.
4) Inspection of the charts allows the clinician in charge to quickly see if a patient needs special attention and allows all supervisors to control the quality of work of the staff.
5) The charts and registration book contain all the information needed to analyse and report the results of the centre in a standard way.

See individual follow-up chart in annexes 4 and 5.

4- PREPARING THE MONTHLY STATISTIC REPORT

Indicators should be calculated for infants less than 6 months, children below 5 and those above 5 years of age separately as well as for any other groups included in the programme i.e. adolescents and adults.

ADMISSIONS

New admission

Patients that are directly admitted to the programme to start the nutritional treatment are new admissions. They are recorded into 3 different columns:

1- "Wasted patients" (B1)

2- "Oedematous patients" (B2)

3- "Relapses" (B3)

Note: "Relapses": A case is considered to be a relapse if that patient has ever been severely malnourished before and cured. The same "SAM Unique #" should be used with a hyphen after the main number. So that case number Reg/Wor/Facility/01245-2 would be the second admission for case Reg/Wor/Facility/01245. If the original "SAM Unique #" cannot be found a new SAM Unique #" can be given but it should always have xxx-2 to denote a second admission to the programme. Children that have relapsed are particularly vulnerable and the fact that they are relapses should be noted in the major problem section of their charts – relapses should normally start treatment as in-patients.

Readmission after defaulting (B4)

If the patient previously absconded before reaching the discharge criteria, it is considered to be the same episode of malnutrition if the patient is readmitted within 2 months. If the patient presents after that time it is a separate episode of malnutrition.

Transfer In (B5)

Patients that have started the nutritional therapeutic treatment in a different OTP site or TFU or other facility and is referred to your programme to continue the treatment that has already started.

DISCHARGE

Cured (D1)

Patient that has reached the discharge criteria

Death (D2)

Patient that has died while he was in the programme at your facility or in transit to another component of the programme but has not yet been admitted to that facility. For the out-patient programme, the death has to be confirmed by a home visit.

Unknown (D3)

Patient that is absent for 3 consecutive weighing in out-patient care (21 days) but the outcome (actual defaulting or death) is not confirmed/ verified by a home visit.

Defaulter (D4)

Patient that is absent for 2 consecutive weighing (2 days in in-patient and 14 days in out-patient), confirmed by a home visit for out-patient component of the programme.

Non-responder (D5)

Patient that has not reached the discharge criteria after 40 days in the in-patient programme or 2 months in the out-patient programme. Non-responders from the OTP programme should be transferred to the TFU for detailed investigation – the TFU will determine the outcome the patient[33].

Medical transfer (D6)

Patient that is referred to a health facility/ hospital for medical reasons and this health facility will not continue the nutritional treatment or transfer the patient back to the programme.

Transfer Out (E) - this is not a discharge. The "transfers out" from an OTP programme who do not return can be considered to be a discharge with UNKNOWN outcome, unless the outcome is otherwise determined

Patient that has started the nutritional therapeutic treatment in your TFU/OTP and is referred to another site to continue the treatment

"Transfer Out to OTP" (E1): patient referred to OTP.

"Transfer Out to in-patient care" (E2): patient referred to in-patient care.

TOTAL END OF THE MONTH (G)

= Total beginning of the month (A) + Total admissions (C) - Total discharges (F)

[33] Patient with slow weight gain and with medical condition justifying the slow weight gain may be discharged later on. If there is no regular weight gain, the patient should be discharge as a non-responder.

PERFORMANCES INDICATORS

Recovery rate[34]

Recovery rate = No of patient discharged for recovery / Total No of exits

Death rate

Death rate = No of patient died in the programme / Total No of exits

Defaulter rate

Defaulter rate = No of true defaulters / Total No of exits

Non responder rate

Non-responder rate = No of non-responder / Total No of exits

Transfer out rate

Transfer Out rate = No of patient transferred to another nutrition programme /Total No of exits

Mean length of stay for wasted cured children

This indicator should be calculated for ONLY the recovered patients[35] for each category.

sum of (Number of days for each recovered patient) / number of recovered patients

Mean rate of weight gain for wasted cured children

This indicator is particularly useful to show the quality of feeding. The average weight gain is calculated for all RECOVERED patients for each patient category.

The rate of weight gain for an individual is calculated as the discharge weight minus the minimum weight[36] multiplied by 1000 to convert the weight gain to grams. This is then divided by the admission weight to give grams of weight gained per kilo body weight. Lastly, this total weight gain is divided by the number of days from the date of minimum weight to the date of discharge, to give g/kg/d. The Average rate of weight gain is then:

Average weight gain (g/kg/day) = Total individual weight gains/Total No of individuals

To facilitate the calculation and speed up data processing a simple programme can be written in Excel. If the following data are entered into the computer then it is simple to calculate the length of stay and rate of weight gain (you can also calculate additional information such as the risk of death according to the Prudhon index, weight loss during loss of oedema). Date of admission (DOA), date of discharge (DOD), admission weight (WTadm), discharge weight (WTdis), admission height (HTadm) and outcome (to analyse only the recovered patients). The data can also be taken directly into programmes that calculate anthropometric indices automatically. These data should all be recorded in the registration book to make data entry easy.

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[34] These are not « rates » in the sense of the number of events occurring in a set period of time, although the reporting period is standardised to one month. Rather they are proportions or percentages over that period. However, the term « rate » is retained because it has traditionally been used in this context, although it is an incorrect usage

[35] The mean length of stay for other patients can be useful information: thus the average time that the dead patients were in the programme before death and the average time of defaulting can give an indication of where effort needs to be focused to lower these rates. However, as there is usually considerable variation and the data are highly skewed, this information is more usefully collected for individual children and analysed separately.

[36] RWG is preferably calculated from the minimum weight and the date of minimum weight and not from the admission weight and date. When there is no record of minimum weight, then the admission weight can be used – but the results would not then be expected to reach the Sphere standards. It is useful to analyse during evaluation

Consolidated report for whole programme

The reports for the individual components of the programme operating within an area are examined and collated to produce a CONSOLIDATED report for the programme as a whole. The transfer-out for one component should match the transfer in for another component. When the reports are compiled the transfers from one component to another are not reported or calculated as "exits" from the programme. The sum of the deaths (most should occur in the in-patient facility), default, unknown outcome, medical transfer and cured from all components of the programme is related to the total exits from the programme (most of these will be recorded with the OTP component reports). It is useful to report the average length of stay of patients in the TFU separately to ensure that the majority of patients are not being kept in the TFU for Phase 2 but are being appropriately transferred to the OTP programme. The individual or consolidated reports from the different programmes are compiled centrally.

MINIMUM STANDARDS

Reference values have been developed by the Sphere project. They provide benchmarks against which to interpret the functioning of individual programmes. They give an indication of what might be considered "acceptable" and "bad" functioning under average conditions where the other programmes are also functioning. With the treatment outlined in this manual experience has shown that the mortality rate can be consistently below 5% in "good" centres although the death rate of the sphere standard cites 10% as acceptable, this is no longer the case with best practice management.

XIV. Reference values for the main indicators ©Sphere project

	Acceptable	Alarming
Recovery rate	> 75%	< 50%
Death rate	< 10%	> 15%
Defaulter rate	< 15%	> 25%
Weight gain	>= 8 g/kg/day	< 8 g/kg/day
Length of stay	< 4 weeks	> 6 weeks
Coverage	> 50-70%	< 40%

The rate of weight gain in OTP programmes is frequently less than 8 g/kg/day and the length of stay more than 6 weeks. This is not alarming in terms of the individual patient's probable outcome, as the patients are at home. However, an OTP programme with low rate of weight gain and prolonged stay should be evaluated as this leads to excessive numbers of children in the programme at any one time and increases the cost of the programme in terms of staff time and consumption of RUTF considerably,

Fill out every month the statistical report and send it to your woreda health office, regional health bureau and FMOH

RECORDING AND REPORTING

MONTHLY STATISTICS REPORT - MANAGEMENT OF SEVERE ACUTE MALNUTRITION - THERAPEUTIC FEEDING PROGRAMMES

FACILITY		**Implementing agency/ Health facility**	
REGION		**Report prepared by**	
ZONE		**MONTH / YEAR of reporting (ethio calendar)**	
WOREDA		**TYPE OF PROGRAMME**	*In-patient* / *Out-patient* / *Mobile clinic*
OPENING DATE			

Group age	**Total beginning of the month (A)**	**New admissions**			Re-admission (B4) after defaulting	Transfer in (B5) from another therapeutic unit	**Total admissions (C)**	**Discharges (D)**						**Transfer out (E)**		**Total discharges (F)**	**Total end of the month (G)**
		W/H<70% *or* MUAC<110mm (children) *or* MUAC<180mm (adults) (B1)	OEDEMA (B2)	Relapse (B3)				CURED (D1)	DEATH (D2)	UNKNOWN (D3)	DEFAULTER (D4)	NON-RESPONDER (D5)	MEDICAL TRANSFER (D6)	Transfer out (E1) to out-patient	Transfer out (E2) to in-patient		
< 6 months																	
6-59 months																	
5-10 years																	
11-17 years																	
> 18 years																	
TOTAL																	
								%	**%**	**%**	**%**	**%**	**%**	**%**	**%**		

New admission = Patient directly admitted to your programme to start the nutritional treatment (new admission to Phase 1 or direct new admission to Phase 2). Marasmic (**B1**), Kwashiorkor (**B2**) or Relapse (**B3**) admissions are recorded in 3 different columns

Re-admission after defaulting (B4) = Patient that has defaulted from a nutritional therapeutic treatment and he is re-admitted in your unit within a period of less than 2 months.

If the defaulter is coming back after 2 weeks (in-patient) or after 2 months (out-patient), then he is recorded as a new admission.

Transfer In (B5) = Patient that has started the nutritional therapeutic treatment in a different site and is referred to your programme to continue the treatment. This can be transfers from in-patient to out-patient OR from out-patient to in-patient.

Cured (D1) = Patient that has reached the discharge criteria

Death (D2) = Patient that has died while he was in the programme. For out-patient programme, the death has to be confirmed by a home visit

Unknown (D3) = Patient that has left the programme but his outcome (actual defaulting or death) is not confirmed/ verified by a home visit

Defaulter (D4) = Patient that is absent for 2 consecutive weighing (2 days in in-patient and 2 weeks in out-patient), confirmed by a home visit

Non-responder (D5) = Patient that has not reached the discharge criteria after 40 days in the in-patient programme or 2 months in the out-patient programme

Medical transfer (D6) = Patient that is referred to a health facility/ hospital for medical reasons and this health facility will not continue the nutritional treatment

Transfer Out (E) = Patient that has started the nutritional therapeutic treatment in your programme and is referred to another site to continue the treatment

Transfer from in-patient to out-patient (E1): when a patient was initially admitted in your in-patient programme (Phase 1) and is referred to another Phase 2/ out-patient programme

Transfer from out-patient to in-patient (E2): when a patient was initially admitted in your out-patient programme (Phase 2) and is referred back to in-patient programme for closer follow-up

Total end of the month (G) = Total beginning of the month (A) + Total admissions (C) - Total discharges (F)

Average weight gain and average length of stay (only for children 6-59 months cured)		
Average weight gain	g/kg/day	#
Average length of stay	day	#

Weight gain = {discharge weight(g) - minimum weight(g)} / {minimum weight (kg) x nb of days between minimum weight and discharge day}

Average weight gain = sum of weight gains/ Nb of 6-59 months cured **Average length of stay** = sum of length of stay/ Nb of 6-59 months cured

1 ANTHROPOMETRIC MEASUREMENTS TECHNIQUES

1.1 CHECKING FOR BILATERAL OEDEMA

Bilateral oedema is the sign of kwashiorkor. Kwashiorkor is *always* a severe form of malnutrition. You do not need to take anthropometric measurement of children with bilateral oedema during screening or before admission to the programme as they are directly identified to be acutely malnourished. Those children are at high risk of mortality and need to be treated in a therapeutic feeding programme urgently.

In order to determine the presence of oedema, normal thumb pressure is applied to the both feet for three seconds. If a shallow print persists on the both feet, then the child presents oedema. Only children with bilateral oedema are recorded as having nutritional oedema.

You must formally test for oedema with finger pressure

you cannot tell by just looking



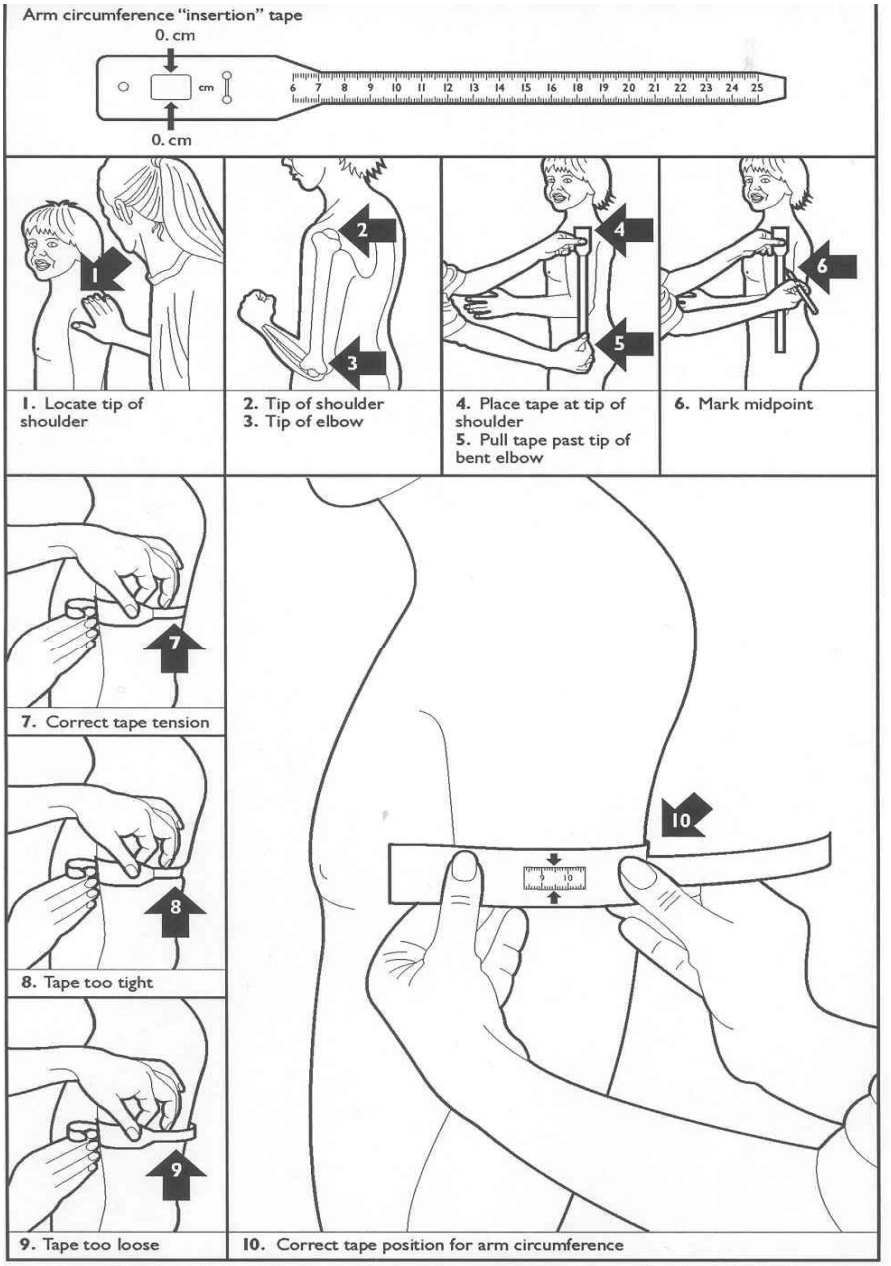


1.2. TAKING THE MUAC

MUAC is used as an alternative measure of "thinness" to weight-for-height. It is particularly used in children from one to five years: however, its use has been extended to include children of over 65cm in height – or children of walking age.

1. Ask the mother to remove clothing that may cover the child's left arm.
2. Calculate the midpoint of the child's left upper arm by first locating the tip of the child's shoulder (arrows 1 and 2) with your finger tips. Bend the child's elbow to make the right angle (arrow 3). Place the tape at zero, which is indicated by two arrows, on the tip of the shoulder (arrow 4) and pull the tape straight down past the tip of the elbow (arrow 5). Read the number at the tip of the elbow to the nearest centimetre. Divide this number by two to estimate the midpoint. As an alternative, bend the tape up to the middle length to estimate the midpoint. A piece of string can also be used for this purpose; it is more convenient and avoids damage to the tape. Mark the midpoint with a pen on the arm (arrow 6).

3. Straighten the child's arm and wrap the tape around the arm at the midpoint. Make sure the numbers are right side up. Make sure the tape is flat around the skin (arrow 7).
4. Inspect the tension of the tape on the child's arm. Make sure the tape has the proper tension (arrow 7) and is not too tight or too loose (arrows 8 and 9). Repeat any step as necessary.
5. When the tape is in the correct position on the arm with correct tension, read and call out the measurement to the nearest 0.1cm (arrow 10).
6. Immediately record the measurement.



Source: How to Weigh and Measure Children: Assessing the Nutritional Status of Young Children, United Nations, 1986.

1.3. TAKING THE WEIGHT

Children are weighed by using a 25 kg hanging sprint scale graduated to 0.100 kg. Do not forget to re-adjust the scale to zero before each weighing

A plastic washing-basin should be attached by 4 ropes that go underneath the basin. The basin needs to be close to the ground in case the child falls out, and to make the child feel secure during weighing. If the basin is dirtied then it should be cleaned with disinfectant. This is much more comfortable and familiar for the child, can be used for ill children and is easily cleaned. Weighing pants that are used during surveys should not be used; they are uncomfortable, difficult to use, inappropriate for sick children and quickly get soiled to pass an infection to the next patient.

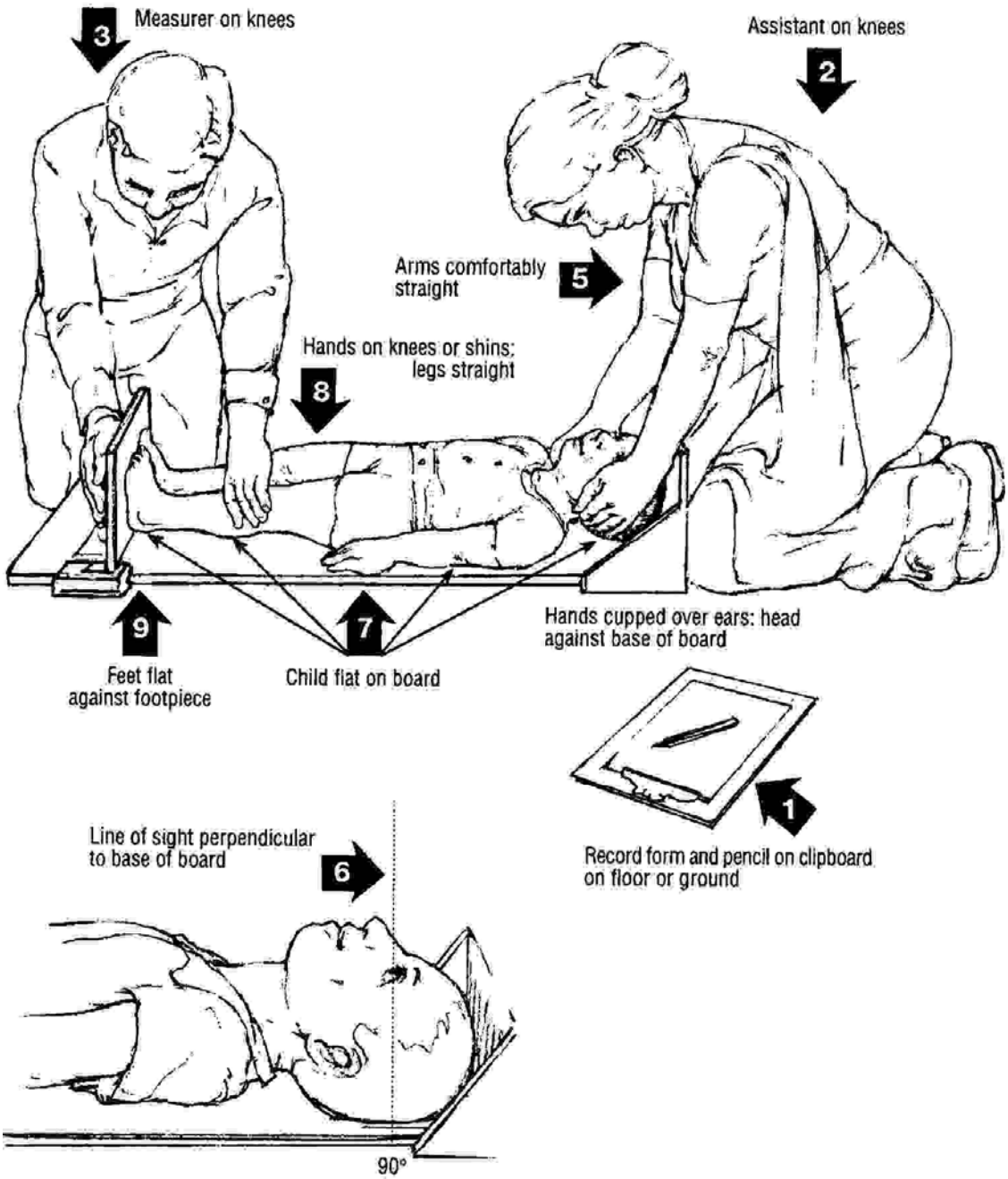
When the child is steady, record the measurement to the nearest 100 grams, the frame of the scale being at eyes level. Each day, the scales must be checked by using a known weight.



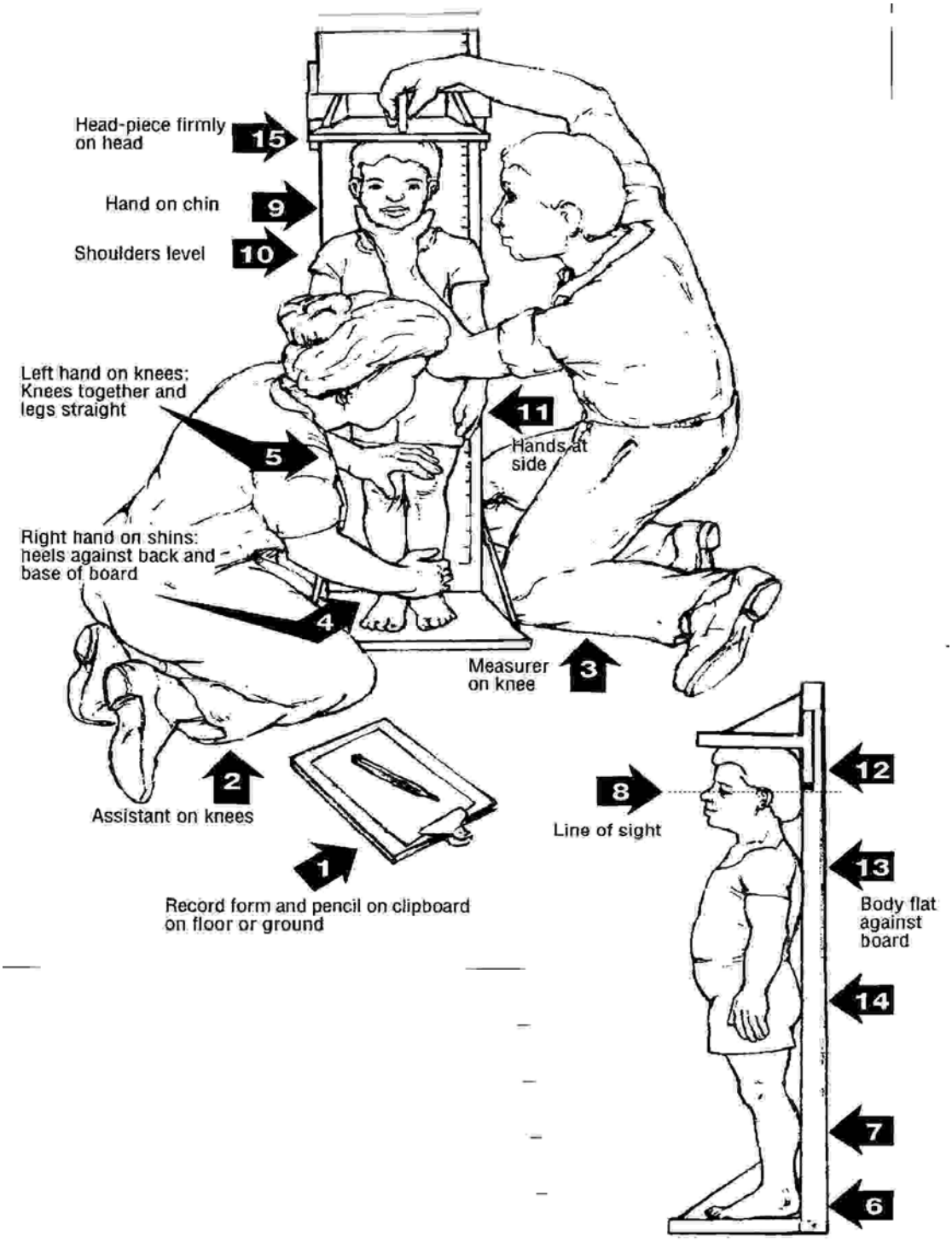


1.4. TAKING THE HEIGHT

For children less than 85 cm, the measuring board is placed on the ground. The child is placed, lying along the middle of the board. The assistant holds the sides of the child's head and positions the head until it firmly touches the fixed headboard with the hair compressed. The measurer places her hands on the child's legs, gently stretches the child and then keeps one hand on the thighs to prevent flexion. While positioning the child's legs, the sliding foot-plate is pushed firmly against the bottom of the child's feet. To read the measure, the foot-plate must be perpendicular to the axis of the board and vertical. The height is read to the nearest 0.1 centimetre.



For children more than 85 cm, the measuring board is fixed upright where the ground is level. The child stands, upright in the middle, against the measuring board. The child's head, shoulders, buttocks, knees, heels are held against the board by the assistant, while the measurer positions the head and the cursor. The height is read to the nearest 0.1 centimetre.



1.5. CALCULATING THE WEIGHT/HEIGHT %

Example: For a child of 80.5 cm and weighing 8.7 kg, reference tables give a median weight for a child of this height of 10.9 kg: | Weight-for-height = (8.7/10.9) x 100 = 80%

How to use the weight/height ratio tables?

Example: a child is 63 cm tall and weighs 6.5 kg

- Take the table, look in the 1st column and look for the figure 63 (=height).
- Take a ruler or a piece of card place it under the figure 63 and the other figures on the same line.
- On this line find the figure corresponding to the weight of the child, in this case 6.5.
- Look to see what column this figure is in. In this case it is in the WEIGHT NORMAL column. In this example the child's weight is normal in relation to his height. He is therefore growing normally.

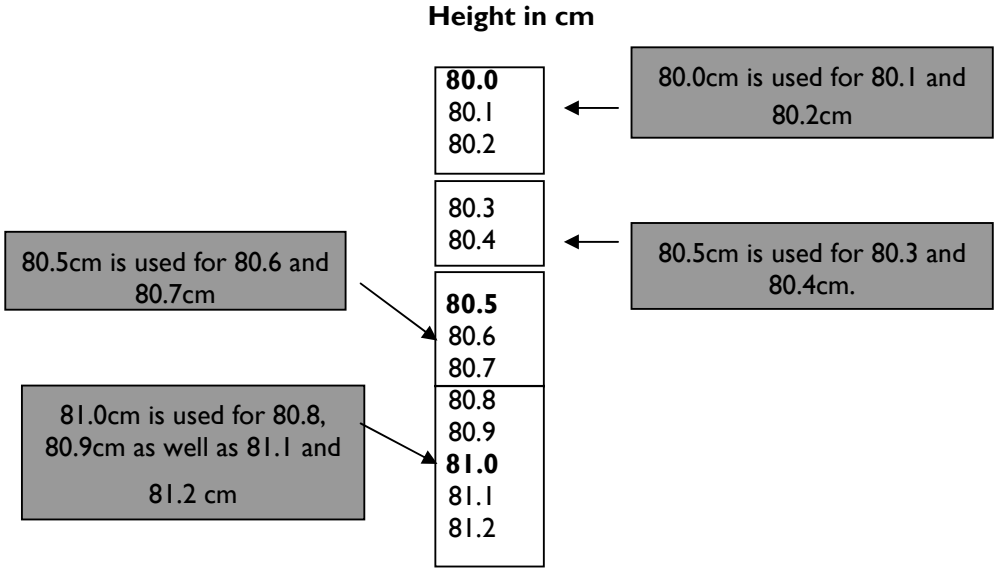
Example: a child is 78 cm tall and weighs 8.3 kg

This child is in the 80% column. He is too thin in relation to his height. He is malnourished.

NOTE: It may be that the weight or the height is not a whole number.

Example: height 80.4 cm and weight 7.9 kg. These 2 figures are not in the table.

For the height: The height measurement has to be rounded to the nearest 0.5cm, as it is in the following example.



For the weight: Looking at the table, for a height of 80.5 cm the weight is 7.9 kg. This is between 7.6 and 8.1 kg. Conclusion, to express the fact that the child is between these 2 weights, write down that this child's percentage is between 70 and 75%.

2 WEIGHT-FOR-LENGTH AND WEIGHT-FOR-HEIGHT TABLES

These tables are based upon the NCHS standards. New standards are available from WHO-2005 for children up to 5 years (45 to 120cm).

Length (cm)	MEDIAN	TARGET WEIGHT	MODERATE MALNUTRITION		SEVERE MALNUTRITION <	
	100%	85%	<80%	75%	<70%	60%
49	3.2	2.7	2.6	2.4	2.3	1.92
49.5	3.3	2.8	2.6	2.5	2.3	1.98
50	**3.4**	**2.9**	**2.7**	**2.5**	**2.4**	**2.04**
50.5	3.4	2.9	2.7	2.6	2.4	2.04
51	3.5	3	2.8	2.6	2.5	2.1
51.5	3.6	3.1	2.9	2.7	2.5	2.2
52	3.7	3.1	3	2.8	2.6	2.22
52.5	3.8	3.2	3	2.8	2.6	2.3
53	3.9	3.3	3.1	2.9	2.7	2.34
53.5	4	3.4	3.2	3	2.8	2.4
54	4.1	3.5	3.3	3.1	2.9	2.46
54.5	4.2	3.6	3.4	3.2	2.9	2.5
55	**4.3**	**3.7**	**3.5**	**3.2**	**3**	**2.58**
55.5	4.4	3.8	3.5	3.3	3.1	2.6
56	4.6	3.9	3.6	3.4	3.2	2.76
56.5	4.7	4	3.7	3.5	3.3	2.8
57	4.8	4.1	3.8	3.6	3.4	2.88
57.5	4.9	4.2	3.9	3.7	3.4	2.9
58	5.1	4.3	4	3.8	3.5	3.06
58.5	5.2	4.4	4.2	3.9	3.6	3.1
59	5.3	4.5	4.3	4	3.7	3.18
59.5	5.5	4.6	4.4	4.1	3.8	3.3
60	**5.6**	**4.8**	**4.5**	**4.2**	**3.9**	**3.36**
60.5	5.7	4.9	4.6	4.3	4	3.4
61	5.9	5	4.7	4.4	4.1	3.54
61.5	6	5.1	4.8	4.5	4.2	3.6
62	6.2	5.2	4.9	4.6	4.3	3.72
62.5	6.3	5.4	5	4.7	4.4	3.8
63	6.5	5.5	5.2	4.8	4.5	3.9
63.5	6.6	5.6	5.3	5	4.6	4
64	6.7	5.7	5.4	5.1	4.7	4.02
64.5	6.9	5.9	5.5	5.2	4.8	4.1
65	**7**	**6**	**5.6**	**5.3**	**4.9**	**4.2**
65.5	7.2	6.1	5.7	5.4	5	4.3
66	7.3	6.2	5.8	5.5	5.1	4.38
66.5	7.5	6.4	6	5.6	5.2	4.5
67	7.6	6.5	6.1	5.7	5.3	4.56
67.5	7.8	6.6	6.2	5.8	5.4	4.7
68	7.9	6.7	6.3	5.9	5.5	4.74
68.5	8	6.8	6.4	6	5.6	4.8
69	8.2	7	6.6	6.1	5.7	4.92
69.5	8.3	7.1	6.7	6.2	5.8	5
70	**8.5**	**7.2**	**6.8**	**6.3**	**5.9**	**5.1**

ANNEXES

Length (cm)	MEDIAN	TARGET WEIGHT	MODERATE MALNUTRITION		SEVERE MALNUTRITION <	
	100%	85%	<80%	75%	<70%	60%
70.5	8.6	7.3	6.9	6.4	6	5.2
71	8.7	7.4	7	6.5	6.1	5.22
71.5	8.9	7.5	7.1	6.6	6.2	5.3
72	9	7.6	7.2	6.7	6.3	5.4
72.5	9.1	7.7	7.3	6.8	6.4	5.5
73	9.2	7.9	7.4	6.9	6.5	5.52
73.5	9.4	8	7.5	7	6.5	5.6
74	9.5	8.1	7.6	7.1	6.6	5.7
74.5	9.6	8.2	7.7	7.2	6.7	5.8
75	**9.7**	**8.2**	**7.8**	**7.3**	**6.8**	**5.82**
75.5	9.8	8.3	7.9	7.4	6.9	5.9
76	9.9	8.4	7.9	7.4	6.9	5.94
76.5	10	8.5	8	7.5	7	6
77	10.1	8.6	8.1	7.6	7.1	6.06
77.5	10.2	8.7	8.2	7.7	7.2	6.1
78	10.4	8.8	8.3	7.8	7.2	6.24
78.5	10.5	8.9	8.4	7.8	7.3	6.3
79	10.6	9	8.4	7.9	7.4	6.36
79.5	10.7	9.1	8.5	8	7.5	6.4
80	**10.8**	**9.1**	**8.6**	**8.1**	**7.5**	**6.48**
80.5	10.9	9.2	8.7	8.1	7.6	6.5
81	11	9.3	8.8	8.2	7.7	6.6
81.5	11.1	9.4	8.8	8.3	7.7	6.7
82	11.2	9.5	8.9	8.4	7.8	6.72
82.5	11.3	9.6	9	8.4	7.9	6.8
83	11.4	9.6	9.1	8.5	7.9	6.84
83.5	11.5	9.7	9.2	8.6	8	6.9
84	11.5	9.8	9.2	8.7	8.1	6.9
84.5	11.6	9.9	9.3	8.7	8.2	7
85	12	10.2	9.6	9	8.4	7.2
85.5	12.1	10.3	9.7	9.1	8.5	7.3
86	12.2	10.4	9.8	9.1	8.5	7.32
86.5	12.3	10.5	9.8	9.2	8.6	7.4
87	12.4	10.6	9.9	9.3	8.7	7.44
87.5	12.5	10.6	10	9.4	8.8	7.5
88	12.6	10.7	10.1	9.5	8.8	7.56
88.5	12.8	10.8	10.2	9.6	8.9	7.7
89	12.9	10.9	10.3	9.7	9	7.74
89.5	13	11	10.4	9.7	9.1	7.8
90	**13.1**	**11.1**	**10.5**	**9.8**	**9.2**	**7.86**
90.5	13.2	11.2	10.6	9.9	9.2	7.9
91	13.3	11.3	10.7	10	9.3	7.98
91.5	13.4	11.4	10.8	10.1	9.4	8
92	13.6	11.5	10.8	10.2	9.5	8.16
92.5	13.7	11.6	10.9	10.3	9.6	8.2
93	13.8	11.7	11	10.3	9.7	8.28
93.5	13.9	11.8	11.1	10.4	9.7	8.3
94	14	11.9	11.2	10.5	9.8	8.4
94.5	14.2	12	11.3	10.6	9.9	8.5
95	**14.3**	**12.1**	**11.4**	**10.7**	**10**	**8.58**

ANNEXES

Length (cm)	MEDIAN	TARGET WEIGHT	MODERATE MALNUTRITION		SEVERE MALNUTRITION <	
	100%	85%	<80%	75%	<70%	60%
95.5	14.4	12.2	11.5	10.8	10.1	8.6
96	14.5	12.4	11.6	10.9	10.2	8.7
96.5	14.7	12.5	11.7	11	10.3	8.8
97	14.8	12.6	11.8	11.1	10.3	8.88
97.5	14.9	12.7	11.9	11.2	10.4	8.9
98	15	12.8	12	11.3	10.5	9
98.5	15.2	12.9	12.1	11.4	10.6	9.1
99	15.3	13	12.2	11.5	10.7	9.18
99.5	15.4	13.1	12.3	11.6	10.8	9.2
100	**15.6**	**13.2**	**12.4**	**11.7**	**10.9**	**9.36**
100.5	15.7	13.3	12.6	11.8	11	9.4
101	15.8	13.5	12.7	11.9	11.1	9.48
101.5	16	13.6	12.8	12	11.2	9.6
102	16.1	13.7	12.9	12.1	11.3	9.66
102.5	16.2	13.8	13	12.2	11.4	9.7
103	16.4	13.9	13.1	12.3	11.5	9.84
103.5	16.5	14	13.2	12.4	11.6	9.9
104	16.7	14.2	13.3	12.5	11.7	10.02
104.5	16.8	14.3	13.4	12.6	11.8	10.1
105	16.9	14.4	13.6	12.7	11.9	10.14
105.5	17.1	14.5	13.7	12.8	12	10.3
106	17.2	14.6	13.8	12.9	12.1	10.32
106.5	17.4	14.8	13.9	13	12.2	10.4
107	17.5	14.9	14	13.1	12.3	10.5
107.5	17.7	15	14.1	13.3	12.4	10.6
108	17.8	15.2	14.3	13.4	12.5	10.68
108.5	18	15.3	14.4	13.5	12.6	10.8
109	18.1	15.4	14.5	13.6	12.7	10.86
109.5	18.3	15.5	14.6	13.7	12.8	11
110	**18.4**	**15.7**	**14.8**	**13.8**	**12.9**	**11.04**

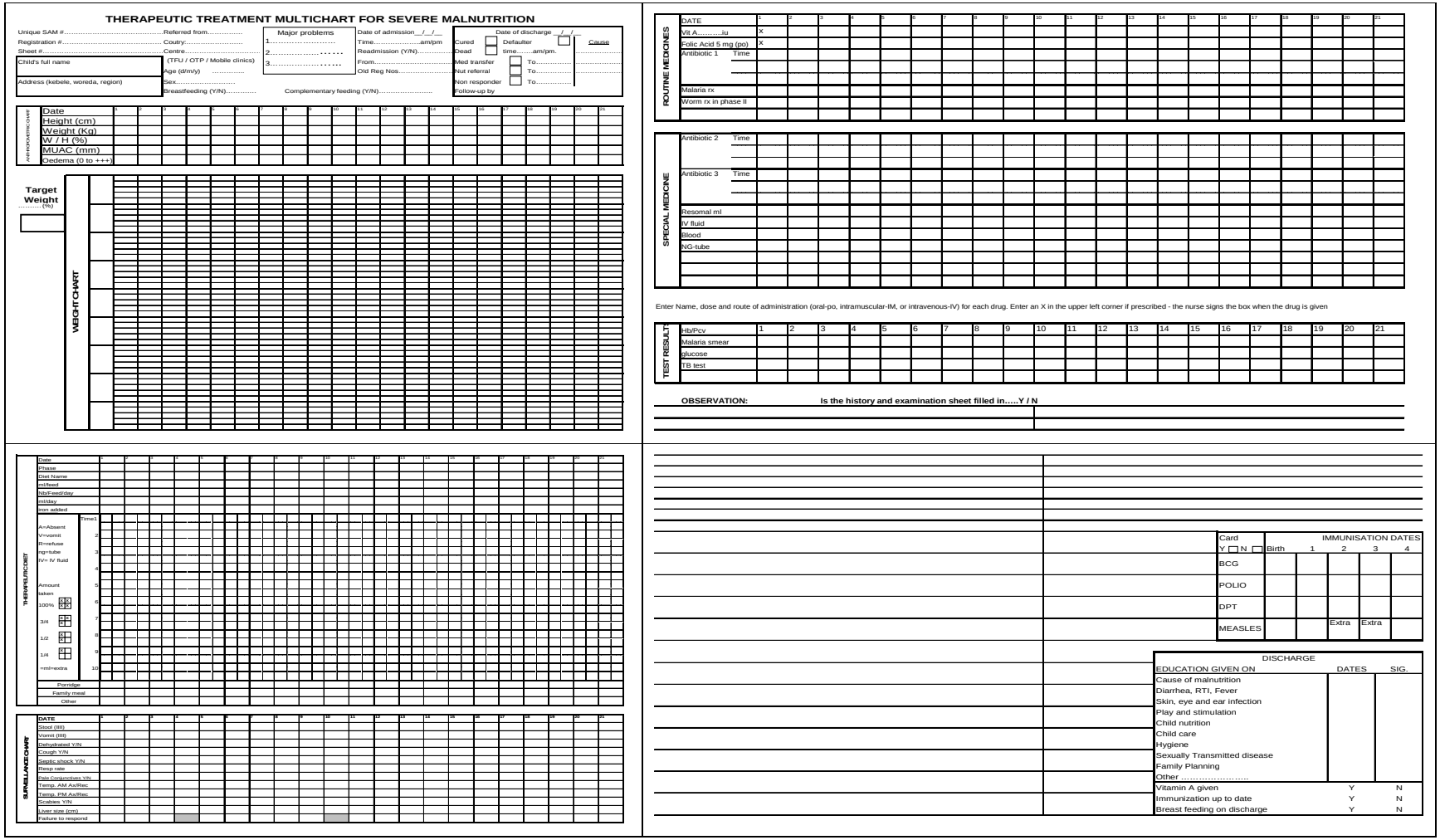
3 WEIGHT-FOR-HEIGHT CHARTS FOR ADOLESCENTS

Height (cm)	100% Median	85% (target)	80% <mod	70% <Severe	sex	Height (cm)	100% Median	85% (target)	80% <mod	70% <Severe	sex
110.0	18.4	15.6	14.7	12.9	mf	**141.0**	34.1	29.0	27.3	23.9	mf
110.5	18.6	15.8	14.8	13.0	mf	**141.5**	34.4	29.2	27.5	24.1	mf
111.0	18.7	15.9	15.0	13.1	mf	**142.0**	34.8	29.5	27.8	24.3	mf
111.5	18.9	16.0	15.1	13.2	mf	**142.5**	35.1	29.8	28.1	24.6	mf
112.0	19.0	16.2	15.2	13.3	mf	**143.0**	35.4	30.1	28.3	24.8	mf
112.5	19.2	16.3	15.3	13.4	mf	**143.5**	35.8	30.4	28.6	25.0	mf
113.0	19.3	16.4	15.5	13.5	mf	**144.0**	36.1	30.7	28.9	25.3	mf
113.5	19.5	16.6	15.6	13.6	mf	**144.5**	36.5	31.0	29.2	25.5	mf
114.0	19.6	16.7	15.7	13.8	mf	**145.0**	36.8	31.3	29.4	25.8	mf
114.5	19.8	16.8	15.8	13.9	mf	**145.5**	37.1	31.6	29.7	26.0	mf
115.0	20.0	17.0	16.0	14.0	mf	**146.0**	37.5	31.9	30.0	26.2	mf
115.5	20.2	17.1	16.1	14.1	mf	**146.5**	37.8	32.2	30.3	26.5	mf
116.0	20.3	17.3	16.3	14.2	mf	**147.0**	38.2	32.4	30.5	26.7	mf
116.5	20.5	17.4	16.4	14.4	mf	**147.5**	38.5	32.7	30.8	27.0	mf
117.0	20.7	17.6	16.6	14.5	mf	**148.0**	38.9	33.0	31.1	27.2	mf
117.5	20.9	17.7	16.7	14.6	mf	**148.5**	39.2	33.3	31.4	27.4	mf
118.0	21.1	17.9	16.9	14.7	mf	**149.0**	39.5	33.6	31.6	27.7	mf
118.5	21.3	18.1	17.0	14.9	mf	**149.5**	39.9	33.9	31.9	27.9	mf
119.0	21.5	18.2	17.2	15.0	mf	**150.0**	40.3	34.2	32.2	28.2	mf
119.5	21.7	18.4	17.3	15.2	mf	**150.5**	40.6	34.5	32.5	28.4	mf
120.0	21.9	18.6	17.5	15.3	mf	**151.0**	41.0	34.8	32.8	28.7	mf
120.5	22.1	18.8	17.7	15.5	mf	**151.5**	41.3	35.1	33.1	28.9	mf
121.0	22.3	19.0	17.8	15.6	mf	**152.0**	41.7	35.4	33.4	29.2	mf
121.5	22.5	19.1	18.0	15.8	mf	**152.5**	42.1	35.8	33.7	29.4	mf
122.0	22.7	19.3	18.2	15.9	mf	**153.0**	42.4	36.1	34.0	29.7	mf
122.5	23.0	19.5	18.4	16.1	mf	**153.5**	42.8	36.4	34.3	30.0	mf
123.0	23.2	19.7	18.6	16.2	mf	**154.0**	43.2	36.7	34.6	30.2	mf
123.5	23.5	19.9	18.8	16.4	mf	**154.5**	43.6	37.1	34.9	30.5	mf
124.0	23.7	20.1	19.0	16.6	mf	**155.0**	44.0	37.4	35.2	30.8	mf
124.5	24.0	20.4	19.2	16.8	mf	**155.5**	44.2	37.6	35.4	30.9	m
125.0	24.2	20.6	19.4	16.9	mf	**156.0**	44.6	37.9	35.7	31.2	m
125.5	24.5	20.8	19.6	17.1	mf	**156.5**	45.0	38.2	36.0	31.5	m
126.0	24.7	21.0	19.8	17.3	mf	**157.0**	45.4	38.6	36.3	31.8	m
126.5	25.0	21.2	20.0	17.5	mf	**157.5**	45.8	38.9	36.7	32.1	m
127.0	25.3	21.5	20.2	17.7	mf	**158.0**	46.2	39.3	37.0	32.4	m
127.5	25.5	21.7	20.4	17.9	mf	**158.5**	46.6	39.6	37.3	32.7	m
128.0	25.8	21.9	20.7	18.1	mf	**159.0**	47.1	40.0	37.7	33.0	m
128.5	26.1	22.2	20.9	18.3	mf	**159.5**	47.5	40.4	38.0	33.3	m
129.0	26.4	22.4	21.1	18.5	mf	**160.0**	48.0	40.8	38.4	33.6	m
129.5	26.7	22.7	21.3	18.7	mf	**160.5**	48.4	41.1	38.7	33.9	m
130.0	27.0	22.9	21.6	18.9	mf	**161.0**	48.8	41.5	39.1	34.2	m

130.5	27.3	23.2	21.8	19.1	mf	**161.5**	49.3	41.9	39.4	34.5	m
131.0	27.6	23.4	22.1	19.3	mf	**162.0**	49.8	42.3	39.8	34.8	m
131.5	27.9	23.7	22.3	19.5	mf	**162.5**	50.2	42.7	40.2	35.1	m
132.0	28.2	24.0	22.5	19.7	mf	**163.0**	50.7	43.1	40.5	35.5	m
132.5	28.5	24.2	22.8	19.9	mf	**163.5**	51.1	43.5	40.9	35.8	m
133.0	28.8	24.5	23.0	20.2	mf	**164.0**	51.6	43.9	41.3	36.1	m
133.5	29.1	24.7	23.3	20.4	mf	**164.5**	52.1	44.3	41.7	36.5	m
134.0	29.4	25.0	23.5	20.6	mf	**165.0**	52.6	44.7	42.1	36.8	m
134.5	29.7	25.3	23.8	20.8	mf	**165.5**	53.1	45.1	42.5	37.2	m
135.0	30.1	25.6	24.1	21.1	mf	**166.0**	53.6	45.6	42.9	37.5	m
135.5	30.4	25.8	24.3	21.3	mf	**166.5**	54.1	46.0	43.3	37.9	m
136.0	30.7	26.1	24.6	21.5	mf	**167.0**	54.6	46.4	43.7	38.2	m
136.5	31.0	26.4	24.8	21.7	mf	**167.5**	55.1	46.9	44.1	38.6	m
137.0	31.4	26.7	25.1	22.0	mf	**168.0**	55.6	47.3	44.5	38.9	m
137.5	31.7	27.0	25.4	22.2	mf	**168.5**	56.2	47.7	44.9	39.3	m
138.0	32.1	27.2	25.6	22.4	mf	**169.0**	56.7	48.2	45.4	39.7	m
138.5	32.4	27.5	25.9	22.7	mf	**169.5**	57.3	48.7	45.8	40.1	m
139.0	32.7	27.8	26.2	22.9	mf	**170.0**	57.8	49.2	46.3	40.5	m
139.5	33.1	28.1	26.4	23.1	mf	**170.5**	58.4	49.6	46.7	40.9	m
140.0	33.4	28.4	26.7	23.4	mf	**171.0**	59.0	50.1	47.2	41.3	m
140.5	33.7	28.7	27.0	23.6	mf	**171.5**	59.6	50.6	47.6	41.7	m

This table has been constructed using the NCHS standards. The height-for-age and weight-for-age standards were amalgamated to determine the median weight for height. The sexes were combined when the unisex standard is within 1.5% of the body weight of the standard for either sex.

4 IN-PATIENT MULTI-CHART



THERAPEUTIC TREATMENT MULTICHART FOR SEVERE MALNUTRITION

Unique SAM #.....Referred from.....
Registration #.....Coutry:.....
Sheet #.....Centre.....

Child's full name
Address (kebele, woreda, region)

(TFU / OTP / Mobile clinics)
Age (d/m/y) .....
Sex.....
Breastfeeding (Y/N).....

Major problems
1.....
2.....
3.....

Date of admission__/__/__
Time.....am/pm
Readmission (Y/N).....
From.....
Old Reg Nos.....

Complementary feeding (Y/N).....

Date of discharge __/__/__
Cured ☐ Defaulter ☐ Cause
Dead time.....am/pm.
Med transfer ☐ To.....
Nut referral ☐ To.....
Non responder ☐ To.....
Follow-up by

ANTHROPOMETRY CHART

Date																				
Height (cm)																				
Weight (Kg)																				
W / H (%)																				
MUAC (mm)																				
Oedema (0 to +++)																				

Target Weight ..... (%)

WEIGHT CHART

ROUTINE MEDICINES

DATE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
Vit A.....iu	x																				
Folic Acid 5 mg (po)	x																				
Antibiotic 1 Time																					
Malaria rx																					
Worm rx in phase II																					

SPECIAL MEDICINE

Antibiotic 2 Time																					
Antibiotic 3 Time																					
Resomal ml																					
IV fluid																					
Blood																					
NG-tube																					

Enter Name, dose and route of administration (oral-po, intramuscular-IM, or intravenous-IV) for each drug. Enter an X in the upper left corner if prescribed - the nurse signs the box when the drug is given

TEST RESULT

Hb/Pcv	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
Malaria smear																					
glucose																					
TB test																					

OBSERVATION: **Is the history and examination sheet filled in.....Y / N**

THERAPEUTIC CHART

Date																				
Phase																				
Diet Name																				
ml/feed																				
Nb/Feed/day																				
ml/day																				
iron added																				

Time1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

A=Absent
V=vomit
R=refuse
ng=tube
IV= IV fluid

Amount taken
100% 3/4 1/2 1/4
=ml=extra

Porridge
Family meal
Other

SURVEILLANCE CHART

DATE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
Stool (Nº)																					
Vomit (Nº)																					
Dehydrated Y/N																					
Cough Y/N																					
Septic shock Y/N																					
Resp rate																					
Pale Conjunctives Y/N																					
Temp. AM Ax/Rec																					
Temp. PM Ax/Rec																					
Scabies Y/N																					
Liver size (cm)																					
Failure to respond																					

Card Y ☐ N ☐	IMMUNISATION DATES Birth	1	2	3	4
BCG					
POLIO					
DPT					
MEASLES			Extra	Extra	

DISCHARGE

EDUCATION GIVEN ON	DATES	SIG.
Cause of malnutrition		
Diarrhea, RTI, Fever		
Skin, eye and ear infection		
Play and stimulation		
Child nutrition		
Child care		
Hygiene		
Sexually Transmitted disease		
Family Planning		
Other		
Vitamin A given	Y	N
Immunization up to date	Y	N
Breast feeding on discharge	Y	N

5 OUT-PATIENT RECORD CARD

FRONT OF CARD

ADMISSION DETAILS: OUTPATIENT THERAPEUTIC PROGRAMME							
Full Name	Child/ Father/ G.Father				Unique SAM #		
Mother's Name					Reg. #		
Region		Woreda			Kebele		
OTP site				Distance to house (hour)			
Age (months)		Sex	M	F	Date of admission (dd/mm/yy)		
Referred by	community volunteer (name)			others (neighbour etc.)		Self referred	
Admission	New	Return after Default	Readmission	From EOS	From TFU	TFU refusal	

Admission anthropometry							
Weight (kg)		Height (cm)		W / H %		MUAC (cm)	
Admission criteria	Oedema (0,+,++,+++)						

History							
Diarrhoea	yes	no		Stools / day	1-3	4-5	>5
Vomiting	yes	no			Breastfeeding	yes	no
Cough	yes	no			Other	yes	no
If other problem specify							

Physical examination							
Respir. rate *(# min)*	<30	30 - 39	40 - 49	50+	Chest retractions	yes	no
Temperature ^{0}C					Conjunctiva	normal	pale
Eyes	normal	sunken	discharge		Dehydration	No dhn	Some	severe
Ears	normal	discharge			Mouth	normal	sores	candida
Lymph nodes	none	neck	axilla	groin	Extremities	normal	cold
Skin changes	none	scabies	peeling	ulcers / abscess	Disability	yes	no

Routine admission medication						
Admission:						
Amoxycillin	*date*	*dosage*	Anti-Malarial [……..]	*date*	*dosage*	
Measles	*date*	*dosage*	Vitamin A	*date*	*dosage*	

Vit.A given on 2nd visit if child has oedema

Other medication					
drug	*date*	*dosage*	*drug*	*date*	*dosage*

Transfer in and out during the treatment of severe malnutrition (Always use Unique SAM number)						
Transfer in			Transfer out			
Location	Date	Reg No of other facility	Reason	Location	Date	Reg. No

Home Visit (HV)			
Date	Reason for HV	Date of HV	Findings

BACK OF CARD

NAME					Unique SAM No				Target Weight			
Week	ADM.	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Date												
Anthropometry												
Weight *(kg)*												
Weight change* *(+ / 0 / -)*		*	*									
Height *(cm)*												
W / H %												
MUAC *(cm)*												
Oedema (0 / + / ++ / +++)												
* Check for failure to respond (weight loss since admission for wasted children, failure to start to loose oedema on day 14; failure to gain any weight, oedema still present on day 21)												
History												
Diarrhoea *(# days)*												
Vomiting *(# days)*												
Fever *(# days)*												
Cough *(# days)*												
Physical examination												
Appetite test (Pass/Fail)												
Temperature (^{0}C)												
Respiratory rate (# / min)												
Dehydrated (Y/N)												
Anaemia (palmar palor) (Y/N)												
Skin infection (Y/N)												
ACTION NEEDED** (Y/N)												
Routine Medication												
Amoxi dose												
Malaria trt dose												
Vitamin A												
Deworming												
Measles												
Folic acid												
Other medication *(see front of card)*												
RUTF *(# packets/ cups)*												
Name examiner												
OUTCOME ***												

C=Cured; **D**=Dead (confirmed by home visit); **UK**=Unknown (patient that has left the programme but his outcome (actual defaulting or death) is not confirmed/ verified by a home visit); **DF**=Defaulter (patient that is absent for 2 consecutive weighing and confirmed by a home visit); **NR**=Non-responder (patient that has not reached the discharge criteria after 8 weeks in the programme); **MT**=Medical transfer; **TT**=Transfer to TFU

**** Action taken during follow-up *(include date)***

6 TARGET WEIGHT FOR DISCHARGE

This table gives the **target weight for discharge** for patients admitted with various admission weights[37] when no height is available- used for patients admitted on MUAC alone.

Admission weight	Discharge weight	Admission weight	Discharge weight	Admission weight	Discharge weight
3.0	3.6	8.1	9.8	18.5	22.5
3.1	3.8	8.2	10.0	19	23
3.2	3.9	8.3	10.1	19.5	23.5
3.3	4.0	8.4	10.2	20	24
3.4	4.1	8.5	10.3	21	26
3.5	4.3	8.6	10.4	22	27
3.6	4.4	8.7	10.6	23	28
3.7	4.5	8.8	10.7	24	29
3.8	4.6	8.9	10.8	25	30
3.9	4.7	9.0	10.9	26	32
4.0	4.9	9.1	11.1	27	33
4.1	5.0	9.2	11.2	28	34
4.2	5.1	9.3	11.3	29	35
4.3	5.2	9.4	11.4	30	36
4.4	5.3	9.5	11.5	31	38
4.5	5.5	9.6	11.7	32	39
4.6	5.6	9.7	11.8	33	40
4.7	5.7	9.8	11.9	34	41
4.8	5.8	9.9	12.0	35	43
4.9	6.0	10.0	12.1	36	44
5.0	6.1	10.2	12.4	37	45
5.1	6.2	10.4	12.6	38	46
5.2	6.3	10.6	12.9	39	47
5.3	6.4	10.8	13.1	40	49
5.4	6.6	11.0	13.4	41	50
5.5	6.7	11.2	13.6	42	51
5.6	6.8	11.4	13.8	43	52

[37] The table is constructed so that a person admitted with a weight-for-height of 70% (NCHS median) will be discharged when they reach 85% weight-for-height (NCHS Median). Those admitted at 65% weight-for-height will reach 79%weight-for-height at the target weight. Most patients below 65% will be treated as in-patients and will have their height measured and an individual target weight calculated.

5.7	6.9
5.8	7.0
5.9	7.2
6.0	7.3
6.1	7.4
6.2	7.5
6.3	7.7
6.4	7.8
6.5	7.9
6.6	8.0
6.7	8.1
6.8	8.3
6.9	8.4
7.0	8.5
7.1	8.6
7.2	8.7
7.3	8.9
7.4	9.0
7.5	9.1
7.6	9.2
7.7	9.4
7.8	9.5
7.9	9.6
8.0	9.7

11.6	14.1
11.8	14.3
12.0	14.6
12.2	14.8
12.4	15.1
12.6	15.3
12.8	15.5
13.0	15.8
13.2	16.0
13.4	16.3
13.6	16.5
13.8	16.8
14.0	17.0
14.2	17.2
14.4	17.5
14.6	17.7
14.8	18.0
15.0	18.2
15.5	19.0
16.0	19.5
16.5	20.0
17.0	20.5
17.5	21.5
18.0	22.0

44	53
45	55
46	56
47	57
48	58
49	60
50	61
51	62
52	63
53	64
54	66
55	67
56	68
57	69
58	70
59	72
60	73

7 TRANSFER FORM FROM TFU TO OTP AND OTP TO TFU

SAM Unique N0							
From	OTP TFU Hosp Other	code/Name		Reg No			
First Name		Transfer date					
Family Name		Sex	M / F	Carer			

Fill the table

	Date	Weight	Height	W/H%	MUAC	Oedema	Appetite test
Admission							
Transfer							

Circle the type of care and the diet treatment given

Phase	P1	Transition Phase	Phase 2
Diet	F75	F100	F75
Type	In	In	In / Out
Date			

	Drugs	Dose	Date
Routine drugs	Vit A		
	Folic acid		
	Measles vac		
	Amoxicilline		
Specific treatment		Dose	Date

Reason for transfer

Special problems

Lab test

8 HOME VISIT RECORD FORM

Reason for Home Visit:	Absence Y/N	For follow-up Y /N

Unique SAM # | | | | | Date

OTP SITE _____ OTP Site #_____ Kebele _____Woreda _____

CHILDS NAME _____ Age _____ Sex _____

FAMILY NAME _____ NAME OF THE CARER _____

ADDRESS _____

DATE VISITED

Findings *Defaulter, dead, other (specify)*

Outreach worker name _____ Signature_____

9 COMMUNITY WORKERS REFERRAL SLIP

Referral slip after screening at community level

OTP SITE_____ Kebele _____ Woreda _____

CHILDS NAME _____ Age _____ Sex _____

FAMILY NAME _____ NAME OF THE CARER _____

ADDRESS _____

DATE VISITED MUAC OEDEMA Y / N

Other Findings

Community Health Worker name _____ Signature_____

10 RECIPES FOR F75, F100 AND RESOMAL USING CMV.

* F75

Type of milk	Milk (g)	Eggs (g)	Sugar (g)	Oil (g)	Cereal powder (g)*	CMV** (red scoop=6g)	Water (ml)
Dry Skim Milk	25	0	70	27	35	2	Up to 1000
Dry Whole Milk	35	0	70	20	35	2	Up to 1000
Fresh cow milk	280	0	65	20	35	2	Up to 1000
Fresh goat milk	280	0	65	20	40	2	Up to 1000
Whole Eggs	0	80	70	20	40	2	Up to 1000
Egg yolks	0	50	70	15	40	2	Up to 1000

* Cereal powder should be cooked for around 10 minutes and then the other ingredients should be added.

** CMV = Special Mineral and Vitamin mix adapted to severe acute malnutrition treatment (® Nutriset)

* F100

Type of milk	Milk (g)	Eggs (g)	Sugar (g)	Oil (g)	CMV** (red scoop=6g)	Water (ml)
Dry Skim Milk	80	0	50	60	2	Up to 1000
Dry Whole Milk	110	0	50	30	2	Up to 1000
Fresh cow milk	900	0	50	25	2	Up to 1000
Fresh goat milk	900	0	50	30	2	Up to 1000
Whole eggs	0	220	90	35	2	Up to 1000
Egg yolks	0	170	90	10	2	Up to 1000

* ReSoMal

Ingredient	Amount
Standard WHO-ORS	one 1-litre packet
CMV** (Mineral &Vitamin mix)	1 red scoop (6 gr.)
Sucrose (sugar)	50 g
Water	2000 ml

- **For small quantities of ReSoMal – F75 – F100 using the red scoop**

Product	One red scoop	Water to add
ReSoMal	5.9g	140 ml
F75 (powder)	4.1 g	20 ml
F100 (powder)	4.1 g	18 ml

11 HISTORY AND EXAMINATION

History

What are the complaints and how long has each been present?

……

Breast feeding alone for how long?..... Age stopped breast feeding …….

How has the patient been eating and drinking? ……..

Appetite good / poor / none

Diarrhoea yes / no Stools per day …… Normal/watery/soft/blood/mucus/green/pale

Vomiting yes / no No. per day

Breathing normal / fast / noisy difficult for how long ……..

Cough ……..

Fever …….

Convulsions yes / no

Unconsciousness yes / no

Examination

	In-patient and out-patient	**In-patient only**
Does the patient look :	not-ill / ill / very ill / comatose	
Mood and behaviour:	Normal / apathetic / inactive / irritable /	repeated movements
Eyes:	normal / sunken / staring / conjunctivitis /	xerosis / keratomalacia mild, moderate, severe
Ears:	normal / discharging	
Mouth:	normal / sore / red / candida /	smooth tongue / herpes / angular stomatitis
Membrane colour:		normal / pale / jaundiced / cyanosed
Gums:		normal / bleeding
Breathing:	normal /noisy / assymetrical / laboured / wheeze / indrawing	
	Rate……/min	
Chest:		normal / asymmetric / pigeon / sulcus
Oedema	none / + / ++ / +++	pretibial / hands / face / generalised
Hydration	normal / dehydrated / shock / uncertain	
Passing urine	yes / no	

Peripheries		normal / warm /cold
Pulse		rate …../min, normal / strong / weak
Heart sounds		normal / gallop / murmur
Stool		not seen / normal / soft / watery / green / pale / mucus / blood
Abdomen		normal / distended / tender / visible / peristalsis
Bowel		sounds normal / active / quiet / absent
Splash		no / yes
Liver		…..cm below costal margin, normal / firm / hard / smooth / irregular
Spleen		not felt / felt / large – normal / firm / hard – tender / painless
Tone		normal / stiff / floppy
Meninges		normal / stiff neck / Brudzinski / fontanelle bulging
Reflexes		normal / increased / decreased / absent
Skin change	none / mild / mod / severe	peeling / raw / ulcers / infection / cuts/ bruises
Perineum		normal / rash / raw / candida
Purpura		no / yes
Hair		black / brown / red / blond normal easily plucked / balding
Scabies	none / local / generalised	
Lymph nodes	none / groin / axilla / neck tender / painless soft / firm / hard / fixed	
Rib ends		normal / swollen / displaced

12 INFORMATION ON BREASTFEEDING

Why it is important to share and act on information about BREASTFEEDING:

- Babies who are breastfed have fewer illnesses and are better nourished than those who are fed other drinks and foods. If all babies were fed only breastmilk for the first six months of life, the lives of an estimated 1.5 million infants would be saved every year and the health and development of millions of others would be greatly improved.
- Using breastmilk substitutes, such as infant formula or animal's milk, can be a threat to infants' health. This is particularly the case if parents cannot afford sufficient substitutes, which are quite expensive, or do not always have clean water with which to mix them.
- Almost every mother can breastfeed successfully. Those who might lack the confidence to breastfeed need the encouragement and practical support of the baby's father and their family, friends and relatives. Health workers, women's organizations, the mass media and employers can also provide support.
- Everyone should have access to information about the benefits of breastfeeding and it is the duty of every government to provide this information.

Key Message 1:

Breastmilk ALONE is the only food and drink an infant needs for the first six months. No other food or drink, not even water, is usually needed during this period

- Breastmilk is the best food a young child can have. Animal's milk, infant formula, powdered milk, teas, sugar drinks, water and cereal foods are inferior to breastmilk.
- Breastmilk is easy for the baby to digest. It also promotes the best growth and development and protects against illness.
- Even in hot, dry climates, breastmilk meets a young baby's need for fluids. Water or other drinks are not needed during the first six months. Giving a baby any food or drink other than breastmilk increases the risk of diarrhoea and other illnesses.
- Breastmilk substitutes that are nutritionally adequate are expensive. For example, to feed one baby for a year requires 40 kilograms (about 80 tins) of infant formula. Health workers should inform all mothers who are considering the use of breastmilk substitutes about their cost.
- If regular weighing shows that a breastfed baby under six months is not growing well:
- • the child may need more frequent breastfeeding. At least 12 feeds during a 24-hour period may be necessary. The baby should suckle for at least 15 minutes.
- • the child may need help to take more of the breast into the mouth
- • the child may be ill and should be taken to a trained health worker water or other fluids may be reducing the intake of breastmilk. The mother should not give other fluids and should breastfeed only.
- Any infant older than six months of age needs other foods and drinks. Breastfeeding should also continue until the child is two years or older.

Key Message 2:

There is a risk that a woman infected with HIV can pass the disease on to her infant through breastfeeding. Women who are infected or suspect that they may be infected should consult a trained health worker for testing, counselling and advice on how to reduce the risk of infecting the child

- It is important for everyone to know how to avoid HIV infection. Pregnant women and new mothers should be aware that if they are infected with HIV they may infect their infant during pregnancy or childbirth or through breastfeeding.
- The best way to avoid the risk of transmitting the infection is to avoid becoming infected. The risk of sexual transmission of HIV can be reduced if people don't have sex, if uninfected partners have sex only with each other, or if people have safer sex — sex without penetration or while

using a condom.
- Pregnant women or new mothers who are infected or suspect that they are infected should consult a qualified health worker to seek testing and counselling.

Key Message 3:

Newborn babies should be kept close to their mothers and begin breastfeeding within one hour of birth

- A newborn baby needs to remain in skin-to-skin contact with the mother as much as possible. It is best for the mother and baby to stay together in the same room or bed. The baby should be allowed to breastfeed as often as he or she wants.
- Having the baby start to breastfeed soon after birth stimulates the production of the mother's breastmilk. It also helps the mother's uterus contract, which reduces the risk of heavy bleeding or infection.
- Colostrum, the thick yellowish milk the mother produces in the first few days after birth, is the perfect food for newborn babies. It is very nutritious and helps protect the baby against infections. Sometimes mothers are advised not to feed colostrum to their babies. THIS ADVICE IS INCORRECT.
- The baby needs no other food or drink while waiting for the mother's milk supply to increase.
- If a mother gives birth in a hospital or clinic, she has a right to expect that her baby will be kept near her in the same room, 24 hours a day, and that no formula or water will be given to her baby if she is breastfeeding.

Key Message 4:

Frequent breastfeeding causes more milk to be produced. Almost every mother can breastfeed successfully

- Many new mothers need encouragement and help to begin breastfeeding. Another woman who has successfully breastfed or a family member, friend or member of a women's breastfeeding support group can help a mother overcome uncertainties and prevent difficulties.
- How the mother holds her baby and how the baby takes the breast in the mouth are very important. Holding the baby in a good position makes it easier for the baby to take the breast well into the mouth and suckle.

Signs that the baby is in a good position for breastfeeding are:

• the baby's whole body is turned towards the mother
• the baby is close to the mother
• the baby is relaxed and happy.

Holding the baby in a poor suckling position can cause such difficulties as:

• sore and cracked nipples
• not enough milk
• refusal to feed.

Signs that the baby is feeding well:

• the baby's mouth is wide open
• the baby's chin is touching the mother's breast
• more of the dark skin around the mother's nipple can be seen above the baby's mouth than below it
• the baby takes long, deep sucks
• the mother does not feel any pain in the nipple.

Almost every mother can produce enough milk when:

• she breastfeeds exclusively
• the baby is in a good position and has the breast well in the mouth
• the baby feeds as often and for as long as he or she wants, including during the night.

- From birth, the baby should breastfeed whenever he or she wants to. If a newborn sleeps more than three hours after breastfeeding, he or she may be gently awakened and offered the breast.
- Crying is not a sign that the baby needs other foods or drinks. It normally means that the baby needs to be held and cuddled more. Some babies need to suckle the breast for comfort. More

suckling will produce more breastmilk.

- Mothers who fear that they do not have enough breastmilk often give their babies other food or drink in the first few months of life. But this causes the baby to suckle less often, so less breastmilk is produced. The mother will produce more milk if she does not give the child other food or drink and breastfeeds often.
- Pacifiers, dummies or bottles should not be given to breastfed babies because the sucking action for these is very different from suckling at the breast. Using pacifiers or bottles could cause the mother to produce less breastmilk and the baby to reduce or stop breastfeeding.
- Mothers need to be reassured that they can feed their young babies properly with breastmilk alone. They need encouragement and support from the child's father, their families, neighbours, friends, health workers, employers and women's organizations.
- Breastfeeding can provide an opportunity for a mother to rest. Fathers and other family members can help by encouraging the mother to rest quietly while she breastfeeds the baby. They can also make sure the mother has enough food and help with household tasks.

Key Message 5:

Breastfeeding helps protect babies and young children against dangerous illnesses. It also creates a special bond between mother and child

- Breastmilk is the baby's 'first immunization'. It helps to protect against diarrhoea, ear and chest infections and other health problems. The protection is greatest when breastmilk alone is given for the first six months and breastfeeding continues well into the second year and beyond. No other drinks or foods can provide this protection.
- Breastfed babies usually get more attention and stimulation than those who are left to feed themselves with bottles. Attention helps infants grow and develop and helps them feel more secure.

Key Message 6:

Bottle-feeding can lead to illness and death. If a woman cannot breastfeed her infant, the baby should be fed breastmilk or a breastmilk substitute from an ordinary clean cup

- Unclean bottles and teats can cause illnesses such as diarrhoea and ear infections. Diarrhoea can be deadly for babies. Illness is less likely if the bottles and teats are sterilized in boiling water before each feed, but bottle-fed babies are still far more susceptible to diarrhoea and other common infections than breastfed babies.
- The best food for a baby who cannot be breastfed is milk expressed from the mother's breast or from another healthy mother. The breastmilk should be given from a clean, open cup. Even newborn babies can be fed with an open cup, which can be easily cleaned.
- The best food for any baby whose own mother's milk is not available is the breastmilk of another healthy mother.
- If breastmilk is not available, a nutritionally adequate breastmilk substitute should be fed to the baby by cup. Infants who are fed breastmilk substitutes are at greater risk of death and disease than breastfed infants.
- Feeding the baby breastmilk substitutes can cause poor growth or illness if too much or too little water is added or the water is not clean. It is important to boil and then cool the water and carefully follow the directions for mixing breastmilk substitutes.
- Animal's milk and infant formula go bad if left at room temperature for a few hours. Breastmilk can be stored for up to eight hours at room temperature without going bad. Keep it in a clean, covered container.

Key Message 7:

From the age of six months, babies need a variety of additional foods, but breastfeeding should continue through the child's second year and beyond

- Although children need additional foods after they are six months old, breastmilk is still an important source of energy, protein and other nutrients such as vitamin A and iron. Breastmilk

helps protect against disease for as long as the child breastfeeds. From the age of six months to one year, breastfeeding should be offered before other foods, to be sure the infant takes plenty of breastmilk every day. The child's diet should include peeled, cooked and mashed vegetables, grains, pulses and fruit, some oil, as well as fish, eggs, chicken, meat or dairy products to provide vitamins and minerals. In the second year, breastfeeding should be offered after meals and at other times. A mother can continue to breastfeed her child for as long as she and the child wish.

- The general guidelines for complementary feeding are:
  From 6 to 12 months: Breastfeed frequently and give other foods three to five times a day.
  From 12 to 24 months: Breastfeed frequently and give family foods five times a day.
  From 24 months onward: Continue breastfeeding if both mother and child wish and give family foods five times a day.
- Babies fall ill frequently as they begin to crawl, walk, play, drink and eat foods other than breastmilk. A sick child needs plenty of breastmilk. Breastmilk is a nutritious, easily digestible food when a child loses appetite for other foods.
- Breastfeeding can comfort a child who is upset.

Key Message 8:

A woman employed away from her home can continue to breastfeed her child if she breastfeeds as often as possible when she is with the infant

- If a mother cannot be with her baby during working hours, she should breastfeed often when they are together. Frequent breastfeeding will ensure her milk supply.
- If a woman cannot breastfeed at her workplace, she should express her milk two or three times during the working day and save it in a clean container. Breastmilk can be stored for up to eight hours at room temperature without going bad. The expressed milk can be given to the child from a clean cup.
- The mother should not give breastmilk substitutes.
- Families and communities can encourage employers to provide paid maternity leave, crèches, and the time and a suitable place for women to breastfeed or express their milk.

Key Message 9:

Exclusive breastfeeding can give a woman more than 98 per cent protection against pregnancy for six months after giving birth — but only if her menstrual periods have not resumed, if her baby breastfeeds frequently day and night, and if the baby is not given any other food or drinks, or a pacifier or dummy

- The more often a baby breastfeeds, the longer it will take for the mother's menstrual periods to resume. If a mother breastfeeds less than eight times in 24 hours or gives other foods or drinks, or a pacifier or a dummy, the baby may breastfeed less often, causing the mother's periods to resume sooner.
- It is possible for a mother to become pregnant before her periods return. This becomes increasingly likely six months after the birth.
- A woman who wants to delay another pregnancy should choose another method of family planning if any of the following apply:
- • her periods have resumed
- • her baby is taking other food or drinks, or uses a pacifier or dummy
- • her baby has reached the age of six months.
- It is best for the health of the mother and her children if she avoids becoming pregnant again until her youngest child is more than two years of age. All new parents should be given family planning advice by a health worker or trained birth attendant.
- Most methods of postponing pregnancy have no effect on the quality of the breastmilk. However, some contraceptive pills contain oestrogen, which can reduce the quantity of breastmilk. Trained health workers can provide advice about the best kind of contraception for a breastfeeding mother.

13 INFORMATION ON NUTRITION AND GROWTH

Why it is important to share and act on information about NUTRITION AND GROWTH:

- More than half of all child deaths are associated with malnutrition, which weakens the body's resistance to illness. Poor diet, frequent illness, and inadequate or inattentive care of young children can lead to malnutrition.
- If a woman is malnourished during pregnancy, or if her child is malnourished during the first two years of life, the child's physical and mental growth and development may be slowed. This cannot be made up when the child is older — it will affect the child for the rest of his or her life.
- Children have the right to a caring, protective environment and to nutritious food and basic health care to protect them from illness and promote growth and development.

Key Message 1:

A young child should grow well and gain weight rapidly. From birth to age two, children should be weighed every month. If a child has not gained weight for about two months, something is wrong

- Regular weight gain is the most important sign that a child is growing and developing well. The child should be weighed during every visit to a health centre.
- A child who is given only breastmilk for about the first six months usually grows well during this time. Breastfeeding helps protect babies from common illnesses and ensures good physical and mental growth and development. Infants who are not breastfed may not learn as easily as breastfed infants.
- If a child does not gain weight for two months, he or she may need larger servings or more nutritious food, may be sick or may need more attention and care. Parents and health workers need to act quickly to discover the cause of the problem.
- Each young child should have a growth chart. The child's weight should be marked with a dot on the growth chart each time he or she is weighed, and the dots should be connected after each weighing. This will produce a line that shows how well the child is growing. If the line goes up, the child is doing well. A line that stays flat or goes down indicates cause for concern.
- If a child is not regularly gaining weight or growing well, there are some important questions to ask:
  - Is the child eating often enough? A child needs to eat three to five times a day. A child with disabilities may require extra help and time for feeding.
  - Is the child receiving enough food? If the child finishes his or her food and wants more, the child needs to be offered more.
  - Do the child's meals have too little 'growth' or 'energy' foods? Foods that help the child grow are meat, fish, eggs, beans, nuts, grains and pulses. A small amount of oil will add energy. Red palm oil or other vitamin-enriched edible oils are good sources of energy.
  - Is the child refusing to eat? If the child does not seem to like the taste of a particular food, other foods should be offered. New foods should be introduced gradually.
  - Is the child sick? A sick child needs encouragement to eat small, frequent meals. After an illness, the child needs an extra meal every day for a week. Young children need extra breastmilk for at least a week. If the child is frequently ill, he or she should be checked by a trained health worker.
  - Is the child getting enough foods with vitamin A to prevent illness? Breastmilk is rich in vitamin A. Other foods with vitamin A are liver, eggs, dairy products, red palm oil, yellow and orange fruits and vegetables, and many green leafy vegetables. If these foods are not available in adequate amounts, as is the case in many developing countries, a child needs a vitamin A capsule twice a year.
  - Is the child being given breastmilk substitutes by bottle? If the child is younger than six months, exclusive breastfeeding is best. From 6 to 24 months breastmilk continues to be the best milk as it is an important source of many nutrients. If other milk is given, it should be fed from a clean, open cup, rather than from a bottle.

• Are food and water kept clean? If not, the child will often be ill. Raw food should be washed or cooked. Cooked food should be eaten without delay. Leftover food should be thoroughly reheated.

- Water should come from a safe source and be kept clean. Clean drinking water can be obtained from a regularly maintained, controlled and chlorinated piped supply. Clean water can also be obtained from a tubewell, handpump, protected spring or well. If water is drawn from ponds, streams, springs, wells or tanks, it can be made safer by boiling.

• Are faeces being put in a latrine or toilet or buried? If not, the child may frequently get worms and other sicknesses. A child with worms needs deworming medicine from a health worker.

• Is the young child left alone much of the time or in the care of an older child? If so, the young child may need more attention from adults and more stimulation, especially during meals.

Key Message 2:

Breastmilk alone is the only food and drink an infant needs until the age of six months. After six months, the child needs a variety of other foods in addition to breastmilk

- In the early months, when the baby is most at risk, exclusive breastfeeding helps to protect against diarrhoea and other common infections. By about six months, a child needs other types of foods and drinks. Breastfeeding should continue into the second year.
- If an infant under six months of age is not gaining weight, he or she may need to breastfeed more frequently.

• A breastfed infant under six months needs no other fluids, not even water.

• A breastfed infant who is not gaining weight may be ill, or may not be getting enough breastmilk. A health worker can check the infant's health and counsel the mother on how to increase the infant's intake of breastmilk.

- Starting at about six months of age, infants need other foods, called complementary foods, in addition to breastmilk. The child's diet should include peeled, cooked and mashed vegetables, grains, pulses and fruit, some oil, as well as fish, eggs, chicken, meat or dairy products to provide vitamins and minerals. The greater the variety of foods, the better.

• Babies aged 6 to 12 months should be breastfed frequently and before being given other foods.

• After six months of age, the risk of infection increases as the child begins to eat other foods and starts to crawl. Both the child's hands and the child's food should be kept clean.

• Children aged 12 to 24 months should continue to breastfeed after meals and whenever they wish.

Key Message 3:

From the age of six months to two years, children need to be fed five times a day, in addition to sustained breastfeeding

- Poor nutrition in the first two years can slow a child's physical and mental development for the rest of her or his life.
- In order to grow and stay healthy, young children need a variety of nutritious foods such as meat, fish, pulses, grains, eggs, fruits and vegetables, as well as breastmilk.
- A child's stomach is smaller than an adult's, so a child cannot eat as much at one meal. But children's energy and body-building needs are great. So it is important that children eat frequently to provide for all their needs.

• Foods such as mashed vegetables, a little chopped meat, eggs or fish should be added to the child's food as often as possible. A small amount of oil may be added, preferably red palm oil or another vitamin-enriched oil.

- If meals are served in a common dish, younger children may not get enough food. Young children should have their own plate or bowl of food to ensure they can eat what they need and so the parent or caregiver can see how much they have eaten.
- Young children may need encouragement to eat and may need help in handling food or utensils. A child with a disability may need extra help eating and drinking.

Key Message 4:

Children need vitamin A to resist illness and prevent visual impairments. Vitamin A can be found in many fruits and vegetables, oils, eggs, dairy products, fortified foods, breastmilk, or vitamin A supplements

- Until children are six months of age, breastmilk provides them with all the vitamin A they need, provided the mother has enough vitamin A from her diet or supplements. Children six months and older need to get vitamin A from other foods or supplements.
- Vitamin A can be found in liver, eggs, dairy products, fatty fish liver oil, ripe mangoes and papayas, yellow sweet potatoes, dark green leafy vegetables and carrots.
- When children do not have enough vitamin A, they are at risk of night blindness. If the child has difficulty seeing in the early evening and at night, more vitamin A is probably needed. The child should be taken to a health worker for a vitamin A capsule.
- Diarrhoea and measles deplete vitamin A from the child's body. Vitamin A can be replaced by more frequent breastfeeding and, for children older than six months, by feeding the child more fruits and vegetables, eggs, liver and dairy products. Children with diarrhoea that lasts for more than 14 days and children with measles should be given a vitamin A capsule obtained from a health worker.

Key Message 5:

Children need iron-rich foods to protect their physical and mental abilities. The best sources of iron are liver, lean meats, fish, eggs and iron-fortified foods or iron supplements

- Anaemia — a lack of iron — can impair physical and mental development. Symptoms of anaemia include paleness of the tongue, the palms of the hands and the inside of the lips, tiredness and breathlessness. Anaemia is the most common nutritional disorder in the world.
  - Even mild anaemia in infants and young children can impair intellectual development.
  - Anaemia in children under two years of age may cause problems with coordination and balance, and the child may appear withdrawn and hesitant. This can limit the child's ability to interact and may hinder intellectual development.
- Anaemia in pregnancy increases the severity of haemorrhage and the risk of infection during birth and is therefore a significant cause of maternal mortality. Infants born to anaemic mothers often suffer from low birthweight and anaemia. Iron supplements for pregnant women protect both women and their babies.
- Iron is found in liver, lean meats, eggs and pulses. Fortifying foods with iron also prevents anaemia.
- Malaria and hookworm can cause or worsen anaemia.
  - Malaria can be prevented by sleeping under a mosquito net that has been treated with a recommended insecticide.
  - Children living in areas where worms are highly endemic should be treated two to three times a year with a recommended antihelminthic medication. Good hygiene practices prevent worms. Children should not play near the latrine, should wash their hands often and should wear shoes to prevent worm infestations.

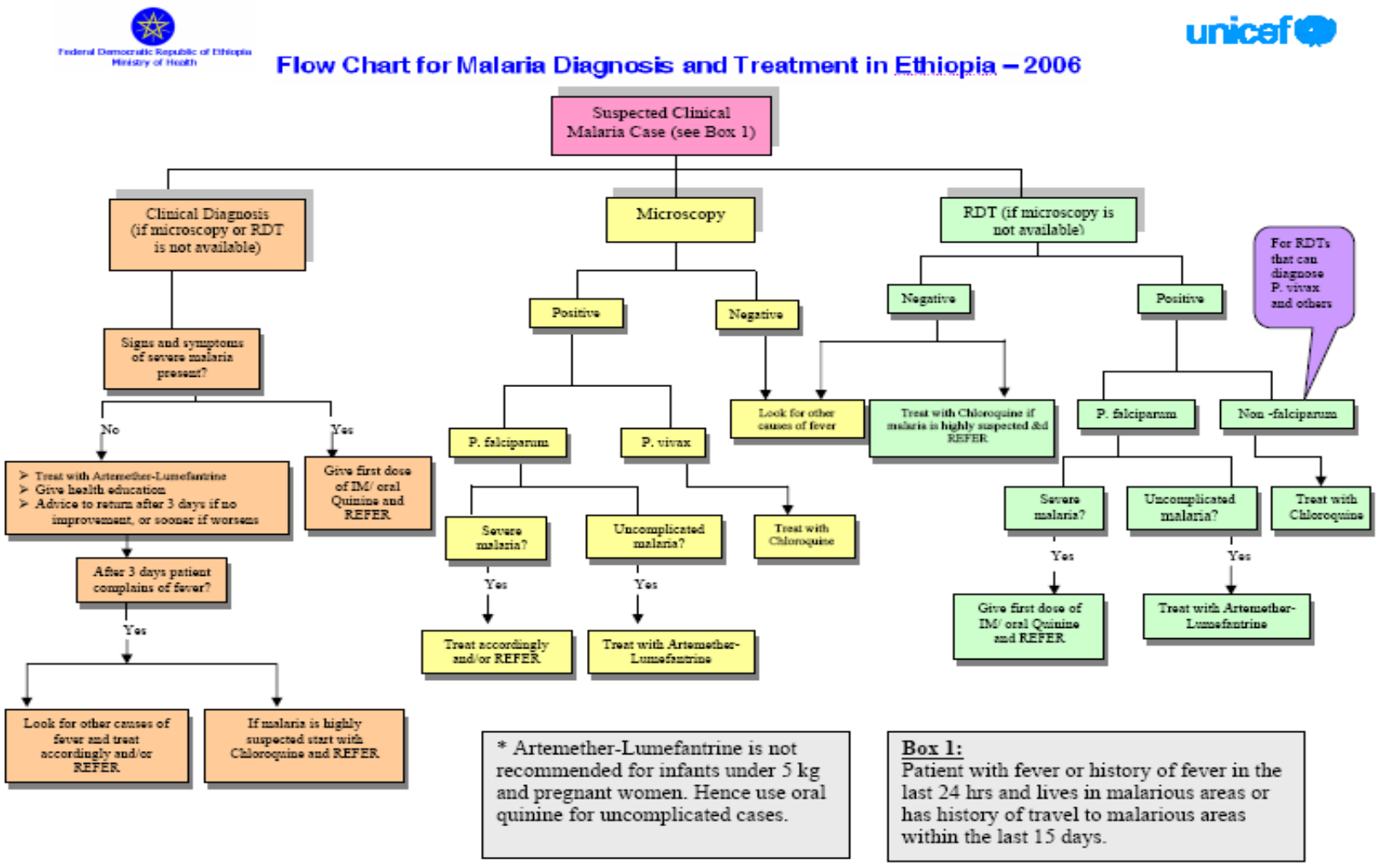
Key Message 6:

Iodized salt is essential to prevent learning disabilities and delayed development in children

- Small amounts of iodine are essential for children's growth and development. If a child does not get enough iodine, or if his or her mother is iodine-deficient during pregnancy, the child is likely to be born with a mental, hearing or speech disability, or may have delayed physical or mental development.
- Goitre, a swelling of the neck, is one sign of a shortage of iodine in the diet. A pregnant woman with goitre is at high risk of miscarriage, stillbirth or of giving birth to a child with brain damage.
- Using iodized salt instead of ordinary salt provides pregnant women and children with as much

iodine as they need. If iodized salt is not available, women and children should receive iodine supplements from a health worker.
Key Message 7: **During an illness, children need to continue to eat regularly. After an illness, children need at least one extra meal every day for at least a week**
• When children are sick, especially when they have diarrhoea or measles, their appetite decreases and their body uses the food they eat less effectively. If this happens several times a year, the child's growth will slow or stop. • It is essential to encourage a sick child to eat. This can be difficult, as children who are ill may have no appetite. It is important to keep offering foods the child likes, a little at a time and as often as possible. Extra breastfeeding is especially important. • It is essential to encourage a sick child to drink as often as possible. Dehydration is a serious problem for children with diarrhoea. Drinking plenty of liquids will help prevent dehydration. • If illness and poor appetite persist for more than a few days, the child needs to be taken to a health worker. The child is not fully recovered from an illness until he or she weighs about as much as when the illness began.

14 FLOW CHART FOR MALARIA DIAGNOSIS AND TREATMENT

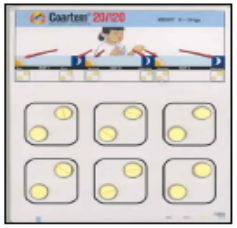


Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
Ministry of Health

unicef

Treatment Schedules Artemether-Lumefantrine (Coartem®)

Weight (kg)	Age	Number of tablets per dose per day					
		Day1		Day2		Day3	
		Morning	Evening	Morning	Evening	Morning	Evening
5 – 14	3 months – 2 years	1	1	1	1	1	1
15 – 24	3 – 7 years	2	2	2	2	2	2
25 – 34	8 – 10 years	3	3	3	3	3	3
35+	>10 Years	4	4	4	4	4	4



Using good practice makes programme effective





Use a basin to take the weight as opposed to the pants. The child feels more secured, he is not agitated and it is easier to read the weight (put the basin close to the floor and the scale at eyes' level). The basin can be easily cleaned.



Undress the child before taking the weight!



Regularly verify the scale accuracy with a standard weight!





The therapeutic milk should be given from a cup and when the child is in the carer's arm as in the 2 photos above



Breastmilk is the best for the child and should always be proposed before giving the therapeutic milk



Bottle feeding is extremely dangerous for infants, causing diarrhoea and death Do not bottle feed



Child with Kwashiorkor



Marasmic child

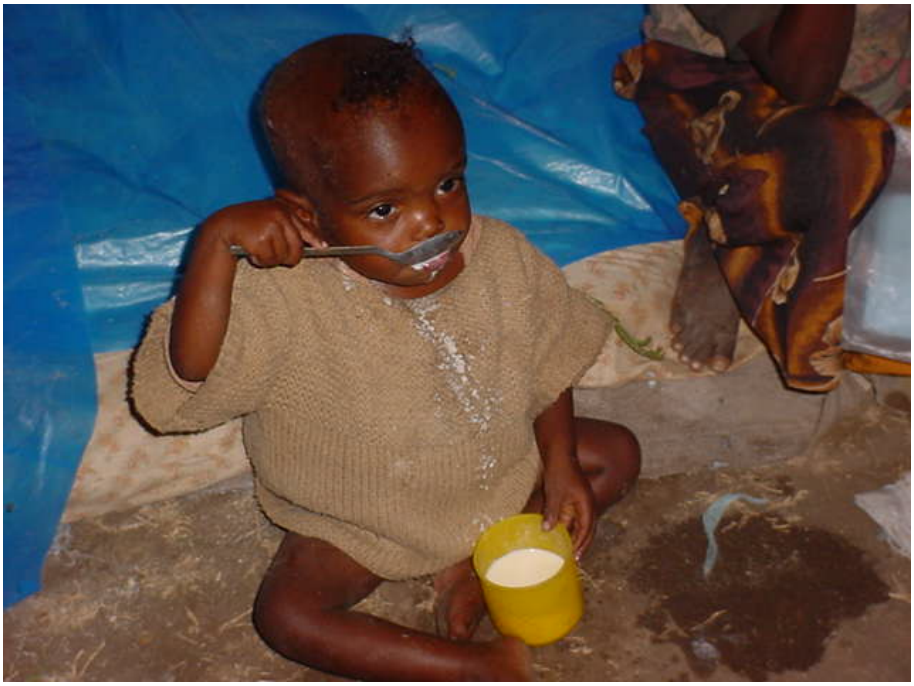




Those two babies need the Supplemental Suckling Technique to stimulate the breastmilk production, the two mothers need extra food and extra water to drink, the mother on the right should be screened using MUAC and treated accordingly



Give sugar water or F75 to every malnourished children as soon as they arrive, sometimes they have travelled hours to come to you and they may have hypoglycaemia



It is not recommended to use a spoon to take the milk, a lot of milk is wasted and the child can swallow a lot of air (*aerophagia*)

All ages can be affected



Adults should be screened for malnutrition and referred to a Therapeutic Programme for proper treatment



Adults in medical wards should be screened for malnutrition and treated accordingly



Adolescent girl with Kwashiorkor



Adolescent boy with Marasmus

Comfort and social support help the therapeutic process



Mothers and children are happy to sleep together. Mosquito nets should always be installed



Mattresses are on the floor and mosquito nets are protecting them from malaria, children and carers are happy together



Playing, singing and dancing is an important factor of the recovery



Mothers should participate in the cleaning of the unit

Using good practice makes the programme effective



Showing good practice taking the length (children less than 85cm), two people maintaining the child straight



Showing bad practice taking the length (children less than 85cm), the child is not maintained straight. You need 2 persons to measure the length



Showing good practice taking the height (children more than 85cm), two people maintaining the child straight



Showing bad practice taking the height (children more than 85cm), the child is not maintained straight. You need 2 persons to measure the length



Use the red, green and blue buckets to prepare the therapeutic milk for Phase 1, Transition Phase, and Phase 2



If too many patients are coming from another kebele, a new programme should be started in that kebele



Child with Kwashiorkor



Marasmic child



For every child
Health, Education, Equality, Protection
ADVANCE HUMANITY

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