# NEANING PRACTICES AMONG NURSING MOTHERS IN IBADAN NORTH-WEST LOCAL GOVERNMENT OF OYO STATE: IMPLICATION FOR NUTRITION EDUCATION

BY

ALAO TITILAYO
Matriculation No: 54227

RN, B.SC (HONS) H. NUTRITION (IB.), PG. DIPLOMA FOOD SCIENCE TECHNOLOGY, (NIGERIA)

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH PROMOTION AND EDUCATION,
FACULTY OF PUBLIC HEALTH, COLLEGE OF MEDICINE,
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN, IBADAN, NIGERIA IN PARTIAL
FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF MASTER OF PUBLIC HEALTH (HEALTH EDUCATION)

JANUARY 2008

#### DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my clarling husband, 'Kole and my dearest daughters, OreOluwa and Oluwafunto Arowobusoye for their patience, endurance and understanding during the course of this programme.

#### ABSTRACT

Weaning is a process by which foods other than breast milk are introduced gradually into the baby's diet, first to complement breast milk and progressively to replace it and adapt the child to the adult diet. Many risks are associated with weaning in most developing countries. Foods consumed by young children during this process are alarmingly inadequate in calones, protein and micronutrients resulting in growth faltering and malnutration. This study therefore aimed at determining the current weaning practices adopted by the nursing mothers as well as suggestion of programme approaches that can be effective in promoting appropriate and improved weaning practices for their infants.

This descriptive study was carried out in 5 randomly selected clustered communities from the 10 wards in Ibadan North West Local government area where a total of 5 focus group discussions were conducted among the nursing mothers, followed by interviewing of 500 randomly selected mothers with children of ages 6 – 24 months. The findings revealed that breastfeeding was found to be highly practiced among the mothers, early weaning with watery, maize-based/root / tubers/starchy grains and poor staples was widespread in Ibadan North-west local government.

Of the 500 nursing mothers, 299 (59.8%) started their children on complementary foods before 6 months, 79 (15.8%) of the mothers started after 6 months while. 113 (22.4%) started at the advocated age of 6 months. The most popular reason for introducing complementary foods was that mothers felt that breast milk alone did not satisfy their children any longer 338 (68.4%). Consequently, 326 (65.2%) of the mothers gave energy-based foods (maize based froots and tubers/ starch grains) food; 85 (17%) gave commercial weaning/ foods (CWF); 55 (11.1%) gave protein-based foods (Legurnes/animal products) and 31 (6.2%) gave energy-based combined with milk/egg/fish foods. However, consumption of legumes /animal products foods, fruits and vegetables was found to be very low among the complementary foods introduced to the children in Ibadan North-west local government.

Furthermore, the most popular reason given by respondents for introducing various types of complementary foods was that baby cry too often since breast milk alone can no longer satisfy them 223 (44 6%). Mothers comments on bad weaning practices were identified; 103(20.6%) respondents identified poor environmental condition of the

house while 32 (6.4%) of the mothers had mentioned giving of inadequate diet (such as maize-based, roots and tuber/ starchy grains only). 320(64.1%) mothers were unable to differentiate between problems due to teething and those related to their wearing practices. Consequently, they regarded certain symptoms (such as diarrhoea, vomiting, fever, constipation, poor appetite and cough) as natural teething processes, which every child must undergo. The results further showed that 230(46%) mothers introduced weaning foods before 6 months, 79(15.8%) after 6 months, while 181 (36.2%) mothers introduced food at the advocated age of 6 months.

A significant association was found between (i) education of mothers and the age of the child when introduced to weaning foods (p=0.033), and (ii), occupation of mothers and types of weaning foods given to their children (p=0.000). No significant association was found between occupation of the mothers and the age of the child when introduced to weaning foods (p=0.069).

Those mothers who introduced weaning foods to children at age of 6 months were very low. This is of great concern. These findings indicate that improper timing; the quality and quantity of weaning foods need to be corrected. The correction should commence with health workers and then the nursing mothers. Thus, health workers need to train and motivate mothers to practice appropriate weaning practices (i.e., well-timed and sufficient supplementation) to reduce dietary deficiency and early malnutrition.

Key Words: Weaning Practices, Nursing Mother, young children, weaning foods

Number of Words: 489

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I humbly thank God Almighty for graciously seeing me through this work. I shall always remain grateful to I lim. My thanks are due to numerous people for their support, understanding and contribution during this programme. Everyone who had a hand in producing this MPH dissertation, thank you for making this process as easy as possible. Especially, Dr. Mrs. Arulogun who had to step in after the retirement of my initial supervisor Prof. J.D. Adeniyi for her tremendous supports in sharing her experuse. experience and time and whose untiring efforts had made the completion of this work a reality. And of course, her prompt responses to all my concerns via email despite being far away from home must be acknowledged.

I am also grateful to other academic members of staff of ARHEC, Prof. O. Oladepo. Dr. I. O. Olascha, and Dr. A. J. Ajuwon and Dr. Fred Oshiname for their contributions, guidance to this work. I appreciate the fantastic roles played by Mr. Olubodun. Mr. Bello and others. My special thanks goes to my strong family support for their tremendous help during the most difficult times of this programme. Many thanks to the Ibadan North-West Local Government Area Health workers as well as my research assistants for their marvelous work.

#### CERTIFICATION

of Health Promotion & Education, Faculty of Public Health, College of Medicine, University of Ibadan, Nigeria.

DR. OYEDUNNI ARULOGUN, MPH. Ph.D. CCST.

Department of Health Promotion and Education Faculty of Public Health
College of Medicine,
University of Ibadan,
Ibadan, Nigeria

#### TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title	Poge
Dedication	ii
Abstract	iii
Acknowledgment	V
Certification	57
Table of Contents	vii
List of Figures	X
List of Tables	xi
List of Appendices	xv
Abbreviations	xvi
CHAPTER ONE - INTRODUCTION	1
Nature and Extent of the Problems	3
Justification	5
Research Questions	6
Objectives of the Study	6
Hypothesis	7
Definition of Terms	7
Organisation of the Text	9
CHAPTER TWO. LITERATURE REVIEW	10
Prevalence of Malnutrition During The Weaning Period	10
Causes Of Protein- Energy Malnutrition in Nigerian Children	12
Factors Affecting Weaning Practices	13
Timing Of Complementary Feeding	16
Problems That May Arise During The Wearing Period	20
Inadequate Calorie	20
Inadequate Protein	21
Inadequate Micronutrient Content	21

Poor Feeding Practices	22
Improper Timing of the Introduction of Complementary Food	22
Early Introduction	22
Delayed Introduction	23
Infrequent Feedings	24
Inappropriate Feeding Methods and Child care Practices	24
Contaminated Wearing Food	25
Improper Food Handling	26
Weaning Age: A Critical Period	26
Food borne Pathogens	28
Conceptual Framework	29
The Precede Model	31
CHAPTER THREE-METHODOLOGY	33
Description of Study Area	33
Study Design and scope	37
Sampling Procedure and Sample Size	37
Methods and Instruments for Data Collection	40
Validity and Reliability	41
Data Collection Process	42
Data Management and Analysis	43
Ethical Consideration	44
Limitations of the Study	44
CHAPTER FOUR RESULTS	46
Socio-Demographic Characteristics	46
Respondents' Weaning Practices	48
Respondents Knowledge about Weaning foods and Weaning Practices	56
Respondents 'Attitudes towards Certain Wearung Practices	57
General Comments of the respondents on Weaning Practices	60
Test of Hypothesis	63

CHAPTER FIVE - DISCUSSION	69
Demographic Characteristics Of The Mothers	69
Breast-Feeding Practice	70
Age of Introduction of Weaning/ complementary food	71
Respondents' Level of Knowledge about Wearing foods and Wearing Practices	73
Respondents' Attitudes towards certain Weaning Practices	74
General Comments of the respondents on Weaning Practices	76
Conclusion	77
Recommendations	79
References	80
Appendices	105

### LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1 Precede Model	31
2. Precede Model Adapted To The Weaning Practice Of The	
Nursing Mothers.	32

#### LIST OF TABLES

	No Page
I-Wards in Ibadan North-West Local Government	36
2. Name of the Compounds chosen in the wards	39
3 Socio-demographic variables	47
4 Number of Times Respondents Breastfeed Per Day	49
5. Duration of Time Respondents Intend To Breastfeed	49
6.Ages of Children At Termination of Breastfeeding	49
7.Respondents' Reasons For Termination of Breastfeeding	50
8. Children's Ages At Introduction to the Wearing Foods	52
9. Respondents' Reasons For Introducing Weaning Foods	52
10.Types of Weaning Foods First Introduced to Children	52
11. Reasons for The type of Weaning Foods Given to their children	53
12. Types of Weaning Foods Later Introduced to the children By Respondents	53
13. Mothers'24 Hours Dictary Recall of the Weaning food given	
to their children	54
14. Mothers' Sources of Information on the Choice of weaning Foods Given to	lheir
Children	55
15. Mothers' responses on Types of Weaning Foods that can be given to Children	en 56
16. Aspects Of Child Development that could be Affected by the quality of Wes	ming
Adopted by the Mothers	57
17 Weaning Foods that Could promote Child Growth and development	57
18 Respondents' Attitudes Towards Certain Weaning Practices	59
19 Bad Weaning Practices Identified by the mothers	60
20. Mothers suggested solutions to Bad Weaning Practices	60
21. Weaning Problems Encountered by Mothers	61
22. Mothers suggested Solutions to the Weaning Problems they Encounter	62
23. A sociation Between mothers Education and the children's Ages at	
Introduction to Weaning foods	64
24. A sociation Between mothers Occupation and the children's Ages at	
Introduction to Weaning foods	66

67

+7

68

- 25 Association Between mothers Occupation and Type of Weaning foods First Introduced to Children
- 26. A sociation Between mothers' sources of Information and Children's ages at Izeroduction to Weaning Foods
- 27 Mothers' Sources of Information on the Choice of wearing Foods Given to their

#### LIST OF APPENDICES

Pages

105

117

119

Appendix A: Questionnaire	
Appendix B. focus Group Discussion Guide.	
Appendix C: Map of Ibadan North West Local Government Area	

#### **ABBREVIATIONS**

CWFs - Commercial Weaning Foods

BFHI - Baby Friendly Hospital Initiative

EBF - Exclusive Breast-Feeding

UNICEF- United Nations Children Emergency Funds

NDHS -National Demographic Health Survey

FGD -Focus Group Discussion

W.H.O - World Health Organization

UNEP United Nations Environmental Protection Agency

FAO - Food and Agricultural Organization

#### CHAPTER ONE

#### INTRODUCTION

Weaming is a process by which foods other than breast milk are introduced gradually into the baby's diet, to complement breast milk and ultimately to replace it and with the adult diet, such that the child can get enough energy and nutrients from the family diet (Savage 1993). Winkoff (1994) also described wearing as an essential part of infant feeding which is a sequence of events from a period of exclusive breast-feeding specifically modified for infants, to the introduction of family foods and the caesation of breast-feeding. Exclusive breast-feeding for the first 6months is the World Health Organization (WHO) 's reconunended method of feeding full-term infants by healthy, well-nounshed mothers. [WHO2000]. However, after 6months, breast milk alone is not sufficient, both in quality and quantity, to meet the nutritional requirements of the child especially for energy and micronutrients notably tron, zinc and vitamin A. [Waterlovvl 992, Von Steenbergen 1991, Pipes 1993]. As the child grows older, therefore, it is necessary to supplement the breast milk with other foods. This is a weaning process: the introduction of foods other than breast milk into an infant's diet while slowly reducing breastfeeding, [WHO 2000, Cameron 1983] This weaning process usually begins from child's second six months of life and may be extended for more than two years. The well being of the infant during weaning depends on the length of the period of breast feeding alone, or whether the weaning is abrupt or gradual, the quality and quantity of weaning foods which are especially locally available (Cohen et al, 1994)

breastfeeding. Boby Friendly Hospital Initiative (BFHI) was launched in Nigeria in 1992. This BFIII is the United Nations Children Emergency Funds (UNICEF) approach to supporting the mandate of Innocenti declaration and its objectives are as follows:

- 1. Infants must be exclusively breast fed for the first 6 months of life. No foods should be given to the infants other than breast milk,
  - 2. Infants must be introduced to complementary foods and also continuation of breast

milk after 6 months to 2 years or more,

Weaning process is actually in line with the second part of the Baby Friendly Hospital Initiative (B.F.H.I.) objectives. Nutrition and Wellness 2005)

Breast milk has for a long time been recognized as the ideal food for babies. When given alone (i.e. exclusively) during the first 6 months of a baby's life, it leads to adequate growth and development, and reduces infant morbidity and mortality (Cuningham et al, 1991) Breastfeeding is the first step in life which ensures that infants and young children get a healthy until nutritious start in life. There is a wealth of information on the benefits of breastfeeding, especially exclusive breastfeeding (EBF), for the mother and infant. Some of these are adequate growth, anti-infective properties and increased intelligence quotient (Savage King 1994)

Weaning from a physiological point of view is a complex process involving nutritional, microbiologic, biochemical, and psychological adjustments (Lawrence 1999). The patterns assumed during this wearing process vary greatly around the world. Mitzner et al (1997) explained that the principal variations in weaning practices could be determined by three decisions women must make. These include; age at which weaning will begin and end: the length of the weaning period and the types of weaning foods provided to the baby.

However, many factors are known to affect weaning practices. In developing countries some of the factors identified are poverty, grave mal-distribution of income, various attitudes, traditional beliefs about foods and their weaning practices. Technological under-development and widespread illiteracy especially among women are not left out. Economic factors are the most obvious ones responsible for some mothers weaning practices especially, when income are barely inadequate. Poverty is the main contributing eause, which appears to be greatly aggravated by lack of proper dictary knowl dgc (Igbedioh 1994). The standard of living including food consumption, as well as income and housing varies widely within the country.

All these factors are so far at the root of the detrimental weaning practices which, eventually affect childhood nutrition. Some of these detrimental weaning practices include improper timing of the introduction of complementary foods, sub-optimal breast-feeding practices, infrequent feedings, in appropriate feeding methods, childrane practices and unhygienic ways of handling and preparing foods. The effects of these practices is even

more damaging when a child is sick. The danger and hazards of early supplementation and weaning have also been studied (Savage 1994, Cohen et al. 1994, Guldan et al. 1994, Casulo et al. 1996). These include growth faltering and increased susceptibility to infections.

Despite different reports on weaning practices in Nigeria, very little information is documented on the subject of the weaning practices in Ibadan North West local government Therefore, the current study was undertaken to assess and, document the weaning practices of the nursing mothers, the influencing factors as well as the weaning/complementary foods fed to infants and young children, in Ibadan North West local government. The results obtained can be applied to other parts of Ibadan and areas with similar food and eating patterns.

#### NATURE AND EXTENT OF PROBLEMS

Weaning is a transitional period from breast-feeding to adult diet usually associated with a number of concerns and problems in developing countries. The major concerns are what foods should be given to the child and how and when they should be given (Hovfvander 2000).

In developing countries, the main risks associated with weaning are malnutrition and infection (WHO 1995). Similarly, it was also stated by Cohen et al (1994) that in developing countries, the age of introduction of weaning foods is of public health importance because of the risk of diseases, particularly diarrhed diseases from the contaminated weaning foods and the risk of growth faltering and malnutrition from delayed weaning (Cohen et al 1994). Huffman (1994) reported that in most developing countries, the essential foods for children are woefully madequate in calories, protein and micronutrients resulting in growth faltering and malnutrition. Study in African countries by the United Nations Emergency Funds UNICEF (1992) also noted that poor weaning practices explain why child malnutrition are typically at a peak in the second year of child's life,

The age at introduction of wearing foods varies and is influenced by the tradition of the different ethnic populations in the country, urbanization and the socioeconomic status of households (UNICEI 1989). The introduction of supplementary foods is often accompanied by stress and ill health for the infants in developing countries, mostly because the foods are

traditional wearing foods in Africa are only a slight modification of adult foods involving only maslung and dilution without taking into consideration the specific nutritional requirements of young children. Adult diets, especially in developing countries consists of highly starchy staples which are bulky and unless properly modified, unsuitable for infants and young children with their small gasuic capacities (Moslia et al 1998), During the complementary feeding period, children require foods that are soft, hygienic, energy- and nutrient-dense to meet their high nutritional requirements (Mosha et al 1998). Moreover, wearing foods in developing countries are usually prepared under unhygienic conditions using water from unprotected sources thus exposing the child to wearling's dilemma (Rowland et al 1986).

In West African countries, weaning can be a period of problems and vulnerability for the survival of a child. Usually, before mothers embark on weaning, there is hardly any problem with the health of the babies especially those that have been exclusively breast fed for the first six months of life. However, with the introduction of complementary foods at about six months, many mothers run into problems. Many mothers introduced complementary foods much earlier than the recommended age of six months, often even in the lirst month of life. Some of the foods given are usually bulky and low in energy density. Another problem relating to the introduction of foods is that many mothers delay the introduction of semi-solid foods beyond the recommended age of six months. Some mothers do not even know the implications of introducing complementary foods either too early or late. Another problem related to timing is the inappropriateness of the foods that are introduced, some mothers even introduce food into the diet before a child can chew it adequately (Okeke 1989, Arinze 1984, King et al 1997, Usvaegbute 1982).

because of socio- economic factors, taboos, and Ignorance. The wearing foods available in our local markets are still beyond some mothers' affordable capacity. Many mothers are finding it increasingly difficult to give foods of good quality to their children. However, there are few mothers who can afford the cost of these weating foods but do not know the right choice, for their children and as a result give foods of poor nutritive value to their children (Onoliok 1992, Nnanyelugo 1985, Cherian 1981)

Availability of a great variety of artificial formula and impact of high pressure

commercial advertisement of commercial weaning foods (through the press and other media) especially in urban areas are also known in influence choice of foods given. This has led mothers to early abandonment of breast feeding and greater use of these Commercial Weaning Foods (CWFs). Some mothers have come to depend greatly on CWFs and have neglected the use of food items available in their locality. Despite the high cost and campaign against the use of these processed weaning foods, many mothers are still buying them. This may be due to the fact that they want to be regarded as modern mothers or for coovenience reasons (WHO -UNICEF 1990).

Finally, cultural beliefs can influence maternal-child health and nutritional status in important ways, and those affecting child weaning are of great interest. The diversity of young child feeding and weaning practices across specific local contexts has been attributed to different knowledge, attitudes and practices of individual parents and to various socio-conomic constraints. One challenge for this study is to tease apart the various weaning practices and the determinants of general pattern of complementary feeding in Ibadan North West local government.

#### Justification

Weaning is a large development step for both the infants and mothers. Apart from its being one of the most critical period in a child's life nutritionally, it is also a process of adaptation both nutritionally and socially. The child becomes less dependent on his mother and it is also a process of adaptation to the environment (UNICEF 1994). Weaning time (i.e. from 6 months to 3 years) can be dangerous for children. It is the time of a child's life when he is most vulnerable to malnutrition, morbidity and mortality. UNICEI [1992] stated that in African countries, infrequent and inappropriate weaning practices are common. It is therefore imperative to find out how far this statement is applicable to the nursing mothers' weaning practices adopted by the mothers.

Despite various reports, the subject of wearing practices among the nursing mothers has not received adequate scientific attention in Ibadan of Oyo state. Consequently, there is very little documented information on wearing practices among the nursing mothers in Oyo state.

Specifically, the study set out to assess and document the knowledge, attitudes and practices of the mothers towards wearing and the influencing factors responsible for their wearing practices. The results obtained can be applied to other parts of the country with similar food and eating patterns. This would also help in promoting awareness, proper mobilization and training of the health workers by using nutrition education, advise, and demonstration to teach appropriate and timely introduction of wearing foods, methods of food preparation as well as respond to the concerns and growing need for proper infantly young child feeding practices.

#### Research questions

- 1 What are the various types complementary food given to babies?
- 2. What are the reasons for giving these complementary foods?
- 3. When do mothers start giving complementary foods?
- 4 Is there any association between occupation of the mother and weaning practices?
- 5. Is there any association education of the mother and weaning practices?
- 6. Is there any association between parity of the mother and weaning practices?
- 7. To what extent do mothers breast-feed their babies?
- 8. What is the source of information that makes the greatest influence in mothers' decision making in respect to her wearing practices?

#### Objectives of the study

The broad objective of this study was to assess the weaning practices among the nursing mothers in Ibadan North West local government and to determine their implications for health education.

#### Specific objectives

The specific objectives were to:

- 1. Assess type of commonly weaning foods given to children
- 2 Identify the reasons why mothers give types of complementary foods given.
- Document the age at which weaning foods are commenced by the nursing Mothers.

- To assess mother's source of information and those, that influence her decision-making in respect to wearing practices.
- 5 To document the weaning problems encountered by the mothers
- Recommend, based on the findings of this study, appropriate nutrition education using the health workers and the nursing mothers.

#### Study hypothesis

The following null hypotheses were tested by the study. There will be no significant association between.

- 1. Education of the mothers and the children's ages at introduction to weaning foods.
- 2. Occupation of the mothers and the children's ages at introduction to wearing foods
- 3. Occupation of the mothers and type of weaning foods first introduced to children
- 4. Mother's source of information and the children's ages at introduction to wearing foods

#### Delinition of terms

Weaning foods mentioned by the respondents who participated in this study were classified into live groups as listed below. These categories of foods were used based on previous similar studies by (Odumodu (1994) and Onofiok (1992).

- 1. Maize- based only / roots and tubers /starchy grains only
- 2. Legumes and/or animal products
- 3. Maize based +milk &for animal products
- 4 Commercial Weaning Foods (CWFs)
- 4 Fruits and veget thies
- 1 Muize-based foods (pap only, tuwo, egbo and semovita).

  Roots and tubers (Yams cassava based foods)

Cassava based foods include lafun.eba served with only stew and for soup

Yam and its products include (amala, potatoes, pounded yam)

Starchy grams (Boiled rice) served with only stew and/or soup

#### 2. Legumes and/or animal products

Animal product food mentioned were boiled egg/fried egg, boiled fish/meat, milk, Plant products foods include soyabeans and its products (i.e. soymilk, soy moinmoin or soy akara)

red/white beans and its products (i.e. moinmoin, akara, ekuru).

#### 3 Maize-based + milk /animal products foods

- Pap + milk
- Agidi/pap + egg/fish

#### 4. Commercial Weaning Foods

Infant formula products (Nan, Similac, Cow and Gate, Babylac, Similac, Jerry, Comelac, S.M.A., Mix me and Millipa

Food supplement products include Nutrend, Golden Mom, Com flakes, Cerelac, Babeena, Cemelae, Weetabix, Faiex, Soyapap Powder, Mane,

- Beverage drinks (Milo, Bornvita, Pronto etc.)
- 5. Fruits and vegetables (orange, Pawpaw, Banana, Ribena, Tasty time.

#### Organisation of the Text

The first chapter serves as the general introduction, which discussed the research problems, justification of the study, objectives, and hypothesis.

Chapter two reviews relevant literature on weaning patterns, timing of introduction of complementary foods, weaning practices in Nigeria and other countries, problems that may arise during the wearing period, and conceptual framework.

Chapter three described the methodology used in the study, which comprised samplin g procedure, reliability, validity, and method of data analysis and limitation of the study.

Chapter 4 contains the findings of the study, which are presented graphically and in tabular forms with appropriate statistical analysis.

Chapter 5 rounds up the dissertation with a discussion of the implications of the findings, conclusion and recommendations.

#### CHAPIER TWO

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### Prevalence (If Malnutrition During The Weaning Period

Prevalence of PIM (Protein Energy Malnutrition) in infants after six months is high in Africa (Lalude and Fashakin 2006, Plahar and Hoyle, 1991; Ojofeitimi, 1982). This is because infants at this stage of development required higher energy and protein in their diet so is to meet increasing demand for metabolism. Wharton (1996) also reported that in the Third World countries, morbidity and mortality in infancy rise sharply at the time of weaning from human milk because of rapid onset of infections. The report stated further that malnutration is a major threat to the weaning in the developing world.

The most common form of malnutrition in Africa is protein energy malnutrition affecting over 100 million people; especially children under 5 years of age 30 – 50 million of the cases (Maletnlema 1992, Odedode 2005). Up till now, protein energy malnutrition (PEM), a known sequel of food insufficiency and poor socio- economic conditions continues to be a major public health problem and a source of major concern in health problem as well as major concern in developing third world countries including Nigeria (Dulger and Sekeroglu, 2002, Odebode 2005). The World Health Organization (1983) estimates that around 300 million children have growth retardation related to malnutrition. In many developing countries 20- 75 % of all children under 5 years of age have suffered from PEM (DeMaeyer 1996).

Studies in Nigeria found that protein-energy malnutrition was the second cause of death in under five years old. It is estimated that in Nigeria 40 percent of the children who die under the age of five years were severely malnourished (Ebrahim 1991). Children in less developed countries are at greater risk of nutritional deficiencies and secondary functional disturbances during the second half of infancy, when significant amounts of complementary foods are usually introduced into the diet in addition to breast milk, than at any other time in postnatal life (WHO 1995). For instance, a report in Nigeria, discussed the growth pattern of two hundred and fifty infants (0-12 months)

anending the University of Port Harcourt, Primary Health care center. The weights and height of the children were compared with the National Centre for Health statistics (NCHS) 50th centile standard. The growth of the infants (combined sexes), 4-12 months old fell below the 50th centile of NCHS reference standard, Infant's aged 0-4 months had a growth curve similar to that of the reference standard. There was a decline in weight between ages 6-12 months. The decline in growth was more pronounced during the weaning period (Ofuya 2002). The marked drop in growth (weight for age) between 4 and 10 months of age could be due to poor weaning practices among these infants by parents. Report has indicated that where weaning practice is poor, infants have been observed to suffer from malnutrition (Vella, Tomkin and Marshall 1995).

Furthermore, studies by Underwood (1995) reported that in developing countries, 184 million children represent one third of the under five population who are malnounshed with their weight-for-age less than 2. Standard deviation of the reference. The same report noted that malnutriuon is rare among infants in the poor populations who have been exclusively breast fed from birth through six months. Children are particularly vulnerable to malnutrition during the weaning process It is during this transition that the exposure to environmental pathogen is most intense, the likelihood of inadequate nutrient intake is most probable and the emotional trauma of less intimate maternal infant contact is most stressful (USAID 2003). Data of Demographic and Health Survey (1992) on nutritional status of Peruvian children showed the dramatic increase in malnutrition between six months and two years. During this period, under-weight (low weight for age), wasting (low weight for height) and stunting (low height for age) are most prevalent. This pattern is similar in most developing countries. A comparative study of the wearing practices and growth pattern in 3-24-month-old infants in Mushin local government area of Lagos, Nigeria noted a greater proportion of the infants were stunted in their 2<sup>nd</sup> year of life (Abidoye 2000). Similarly, a documented report on protein energy malnumtion in Nigeria indicated that, among the 67 (42 females and 25 makes aged 3 months to 5 years) children who participated in the survey, 18% were categorized as marasmus, 16% marasmie kwashiorkor, 15% kwashiorkor and 51% underweight (Odebode and Odebode 2005) The malnutrition and infections associated with them are responsible for a significant proportion of the 13 million deaths among infants and children under 5 years of age worldwide each year (Carlson 1993)

#### Causes of Protein-Energy Malnutrition in Nigerian Children.

Protein- energy inalautation is still highly prevalent in Nigeria due to faulty wearing practices, poverty, poor sanitary conditions, minimal medical attention and endemic childhood infections (Nweze 1995). It was also reported that the insufficient food intake affects the child principally as a result of one of these causes stated below;

1). when the child is offered little food and is unable to get more by him/herself. (for example, restricted intake of protein during illness or prolonged exclusive breast feeding;

2) when the child is offered ample foods but the quantity is of inadequate quality for his/her needs, resulting in low protein and/or energy density; 3) improper feeding practices such as non-hygienic preparation of over- diluted formula or starch gruels, which give rise to early age severe protein-energy malnutration (Nweze 1995)

Protein- energy malnutrition (PEM) can also results from prolonged deprivation of essential amino acids and total nitrogen and / or energy substrates. Dietary energy and protein deficiencies usually occur together, but sometime predominates the other and if severe enough may lead to the clinical syndrome of kwashiorkor (predominant protein deficiency) or marasinus (mainly energy deficiency). The origin of PEM can be primary, when it is the result of inadequate food intake, or secondary, when it is the result of other diseases that lead to low food ingestion which can include, inadequate nutrient absorption or utilization, increased nutritional requirements and / or increased nutrient losses (Nweze 1995). The causes of the protein-energy malnutrition, especially among young children, remained one of the principal health problems in the developing countries including Nigeria.

It is estimated that in Nigerio 40 percent of the children who die under the age of five years were severely malnourished (Ebrahim 1991). The causes of protein- energy malnutrition are multi-factorial though it is fairly well established that social and economic factors are the most important determinants in its etiology (Pagbule 1999). Other conditioning factors include lack of mothers' education, infectious disease, low food availability and poor feeding habits. Various diseases may also contribute to PEM. It has been reported that all malnourished children usually have one form of infection or another preceding or associated with malnutrition. The most common diseases associated with PEA1 include malaria, diarrhea, and bronchoppeumonia. These diseases reinforce the

well-known interaction between infection and malnutrition (Ighogboja 1992, Fagbule 1999. Among viral infections, measles is often the most serious one and the most important cause of kwashiorkor (Nweze 1995). Furthermore, Aikhohionbare, Yakubu and Naida (1999) study found that death due to measles complications was 24 percent (74 death) closely followed by PEM 23 percent (70 deaths) and respiratory tract infection was responsible for 18 percent (55 deaths). The age distribution of death over the study period was 1-12 months (35.2%); and 13-24 months (32%).

#### Factors affecting weaning practices

Cultural beliefs can influence maternal-child health and nutritional status in important ways, and those affecting child weaning are of particular interest (Winkoff 1998, Gray 1994, Sellen 2001). The diversity of young child feeding practices ocross specific local contexts has been attributed to different knowledge, attitudes, and practice of individual parents and child caregivers and to various ecological and socioeconomic constraints (Maher 1992 Van Esterik 1990). Study by Sellen (2001) reported that various factors have been identified to be intluencing the wearing practices of the mothers in developing countries. These may include maternal factors (such as seasonal patterns of work activity and food availability, household income, and access to clean water and primary health care), general cultural factors (such as health beliefs and practice and food taboos), and factors specific to individual mothers or caregivers (such as levels of social support for breastfeeding; and individual experience, attitudes, and practice). In a study among rural East African populations the focus group participants suggested that weaning patterns are strongly influenced by sensonal factors, and individual mothers often stated an intention to introduce adult staple foods and terminate breastfeeding at the end of the long rains (Sellen 2001) Similarly, a study in tural Mexico described the wearing practices of itual women in two Mexican towns and the cultural beliefs upon which practices are based. These women's decisions regarding infant feeding were influenced most by custom and the advise from doctors and family members (Lipsky, Stephenson, Koepsell, Gloyod and Bain 2004).

In Nigeria, mothers' choices of wearing practices are influenced by many factors, namely taboos, superstitions, religious factors, availability of alternatives such as formula and supplements on the market and their affordability. Other factors identified are mothers'

personal characteristics such as age, education, occupation, income, health status and the amount of time devoted to child care (UNICEF/FGN 1994). Though, poverty is the main contributing cause of malnutrition, it is greatly aggravated by lack of proper dietary knowledge Economic factors are also the most obvious ones responsible for weaning practices, which can lead to malnutrition. Social-economic status determines the type of weaning foods and weaning patterns adopted. This in turn reflects on the nutritional status of the weaned infants. Most ofteo, animal proteins are not included in the diet of the weaned infants because they are outside the reach of the under-privileged parents due to their high cost. As a result of which they suffer from inevitable vicious circle of malnutrition and poverty (UNICEF/FGN 1994).

In many families, food preparation is affected by certain factors which include poor sanitation which results in unsafe disposal of feaces thereby allowing faceal germs to spread to water, food, food handler's hand, food containers and utensils. Inadequate supplies of water, unless people have access to a plenty supply of water, they are unlikely to use scarce water for hygiene purposes such as hand washing. Other factor identified is the shortage of cooking fuel. Whenever adequate cooking fuel is not available or is expensive; families often cook large quantities of food stored in for the next meal. Refrigerators may be beyond the means of these families or they do not have access to electricity. Stored foods may then be served without adequate reheating. Low income also affects families' choices about the food to buy and how to cook and store it. (Dialogue on Diarrhea 1994).

FGN/UNICEF (1997) documented that with the prevailing economic condition in Nigerta, the prices of consumer goods have escalated beyond the reach of low-income groups. In the food markets, the prices of carbohydrate rich products are expensive; the prices of protein rich foods are completely beyond the means of most households. However, households with decreasing purchasing power are constrained to depend on cheap and affordable foods items, which include at times, rotten and left over food items. In fact, many households no longer triclude items like egg, milk, meat, fish and other foods that are rich in vitarnins, proteins and minerals in their menus. There is therefore considerable food insecurity and malnutration in the country. (Federal Government of Nigeria (FGN) / UNICEF 1997).

Many beliefs about the termination of breast-feeding depend on characteristics of

a child and the child's developmental level. Examples related to the initiation and completion of the wearing process includes the cruption of teeth (Almedon 1991a, 1991b. Flamison et al 1993), the onset of walking and a perception that the child was old enough to consume an adult diet (Harrison et al 1993). Another sector affecting beliefs is the child's appetite as perceived by the mother. The recognition of the child's appetite as an indication of ill-health is seen in many studies (Bentley et al 2003). Many food taboos for young children may limit the type of foods that can be offered. Similarly, food habits and beliefs have major implications for food safety during the weaning period. Unfortunately, in many societies the relationship between diarrhea and food contamination is not understood. For example, in Uganda, some parents believe that diarrhea is caused by false teeth (Kaukauna et al 2003). Another study in Orissa, India. revealed that, 65% of mothers believed that diarrhea is caused by the casting of the evil eye, 44% by Indigestion, 10% by eating "hot foods" such as mango and eggs, 8% by teething and 35% by food eaten by breast feeding mothers. Many mothers' a time blamed their own breast milk for causing diarrhea Interestingly, in many cultures, babies' stools are not considered to be dirty or contaminating (O) emade 1998) Harsouche and Osuhor (1990) also observed that Islamic Culture incorporates the art of weaning with religious teaching.

The knowledge, attitude and beliefs of a child's earetaker may be the most important determinants of whether the child will be well nourished. A mother's beliefs about the nutritional contents of foods and her understanding of the causal factors of disease may have very powerful effects on a child's well being. Also, most areas in India believed that children should not be given solids until they cut some teeth. Fruits and green leafy vegetables are rarely fed (Joshi 1994).

Apart from all these factors mentioned above, availability of time is one of the major factors that govern the teeding patterns of infants. If, in addition to caring for infants and ehildren, mothers have to work outside the home, the greater demand on their time competes with their care and nursing capacity in such circumstances, they do not always prepare food according to correct safety principle (Mitzner-Scrimshaur, Nevin and Morgan 1997). The report further stated that, mother's capacity to give improved complementary foods to her child depends on her access to cash and other family resources and the time she has to prepare and feed complementary foods. Most women in developing countries do time

consuming labor outside the home. Unfortunately, increasing a mother's income by non-domestic employment may decrease the time ovailable for food preparation and child rearing (Mitzner et al. 1997).

Education is said to increase both the ability to carn income and the ability to appreciate the importance of care giving . In the study of the infant weaning practices of some Tiv women resident in Markurdi, Nigeria, the study showed this mother's educational level and occupation influenced the time of inuoduction of weaning fixeds (Igbedioh 1996) The study also showed that price was a major determinant influencing the choice of foods fed to the infants Low level of education is a reflection of contain ination infections and diarrhoea during weaning (Mata and Leitig 1994) Similarly, a study conducted in rural Bangladesh found that maternal education is associated with variables that reflect more intense care given to their children that is less distraction while feeding, a cleaner feeding environment and more initiation of child feeding at the appropriate time (Guildan, Zhang, Hong Zhang and Fu 199-1), Also, in rural areas of Asia, under educated mothers' taboos and custominy food practices seem to be the significantly emusative factors for malnutrition in young children (Tontlsirum and Yamborisut 1995), It is becoming increasingly evident that maternal education affects a child's health and nutritional status through its effect on her health care seeking behaviors. Better-educated women are more likely to utilize available health care and community service facilities than women with no education (Joshi 1994, Caldwell 1986)

Women are an important target group in any nutrition programme because the maintenance of adequate health particularly of infants and children is a critical maternal role. Women are a crucial link between the family and the health care system and in addition, produce purchase, prepate and serve food and provide a clean and save environment. Therefore, inadequate maternal and childcare is one of the underlying causes of poor weaning practices (Popkin, Lasky, Litvin 1990).

#### Timing of complementary feeding

Good nutrition is fundamental to a child's health but its importance during the early years increases manifold, as the weight gain during the first year is dramatic, from 3 kg at the age of one year. Along with the physical growth, there are

qualitative changes in the child's behavior and social relationship that can be affected by the nutritional status of the child (Heir 2004). In order to fulfill the nutritional requirements of a rapidly growing child, addition of semi-solid and solid foods are essential for breast fed babies. As result, WHO now recommends the introduction of complementary foods around the sixth month of life, instead of between the fourth and sixth month, as previously recommended (WHO 2001). Similarly, it was also reported in another study that during the first 6 months of life, breast milk is the preferred nutrient source for the infant, bowever, after 6 months of age, the energy and nutrient requirements of the infant exceed what can be supplied by the best milk alone (Werk and Alpert, 1998).

The timely introduction of properly formulated and prepared weaning foods is necessary for the growth and survival of infants, especially in the developing world (Jansen 2002). The consequences of inappropriate weaning carry a lot of risks. Too early initiative of weaning is a risk factor for both increased morbidity due to diarrheas and food allergies, as external challenges are introduced into the immature digestive tract, and infant malnutrition set in to the normal decrease in maternal milk production as the baby is withdrawn from the breast. On the other hand, too late weaning can lead to faltering growth decreased immune protection, and again increased diarrhea disease and malnutrition when exclusively breastfeeding becomes inadequate (Abidoye 2000) Although no specific time for the introduction of complementary feeding has been universally shown to have positive short or long term effects on health (FGN/UNICEF 1990).

In developing countries, the age of introduction of wearing foods to breast fed infants has public health importance because of the risk of diarrhea disease from contaminated wearing foods, and the potential risk of growth faltering and malnutrition if appropriate foods are unduly delayed (Cohen 1994, Aregai 2000).

the age at introduction of wearing foods varies and is influenced by the tradition of the different ethnic populations in the country, urbanization and the socioeconomic status of households. In urban areas, the tendency is early wearing, but in some rural areas wearing is delayed up to one year or more (Tessenta 1997). In Nigeria, as in most other the Saharan countries, the timing of introduction of complementary foods varies

due to many factors. (Jansen 2002). FGN/UNICEF, [1994] report on the nutritional status of women and children in Nigeria showed that about 40% of children were introduced to complimentary foods before the age of four months and in most cases to a carbohydrate based diet that was enriched by only a small proportion of milk. Substantial number of children was also not introduced to complementary foods earlier. The report stated further that, complementary feeding practices observed by the majority of mothers did promote adequate nutrition.

Inadequate timing of complementary feeding was common among children who were started on complementary food before four month and those who started after nine months as well as those who did not give complementary foods at all (Sellen 1998). In a study about the weaning practices in llorin, 44.2 % of the mothers had commenced weaning by 3 months of age while 83.9 had done by 6 months. Hunger indicated by crying after a feed or demand for more breast milk was the commonest reason for weaning (Fagbule and Olaosebikan 1992). In another study, Savage (1995) reported that there is no exact fixed time for a baby to start taking other foods. All babies are different and all mothers are different. Most mothers have enough breast milk for their babies for six month; some have enough for nine to ten months. But, some babies begin to outgrow their mother's milk at about four to six months. The earliest they should be given is four months. One of the commonest reasons for introducing complementary foods is another pregnancy (or the desire for another child).

Weaning is initiated in many cultures at an even earlier age than is nutritionally necessary. A study in Asia revealed that complimentary foods are introduced much earlier than the recommended age of 4 months (Underwood 1999), often, even in the first month of life. Such foods are usually bulky and low in energy density. However, in a study on the patterns of child feeding and health seeking behavior in Bangladesh, the report revealed that mothers restricts complementary feeding because they believe foods cause tomach problems. Traditionally, Bangladesh does not persistently encourage their infants to cat other foods until 18 to 24 months (Zeitlin and Islam 1989). Another study done on weaning practices in developing countries, revealed that traditionally, weaning starts between 3 and 12 months of age. Before the end of maternity leave the working mother starts introducing food formula and then semi solids. Some people believe that

African women are wable to produce enough milk to sustain their baby's growth after 3 months of age. Various reasons were given by mothers for the early supplementation; some find it fashionable to put the child on the bottle, while others followed food advertisement blindly; a few believed that they were not producing enough breast milk to sustain the child's growth (Ajenifuja 1987).

Early weaning has been associated with interference with breast-feeding, increased risk of infection and in some places increased risk of developing celiac disease (Odumodu, Ighogboja and Okuonghae 1994). Furthermore, their findings on opinions of the women regarding the appropriate age for introduction of complementary food showed that only 4% of the mother believed that breast feeding should be supplemented for infants under 1 month of age. Also 44% of the women suggested 1 to 3 months as the best age for introducing complementary feeding white about 28% believed that breast-feeding should remain un-complemented for as long as 9 months. In marked contrast to their expressed beliefs, 43% of these mothers actually introduced foods to their infants before 1 month and as many as 81% used complimentary foods for infants from birth to 3 months. Only about 2% of the women waited until their infants were 6 months and older before initiating complementary feeding, an observation markedly different from their expressed opinion.

Furthermore, Soysa (1992) observed in their study, that faltering growth may be observed around the fourth month in urban and earlier in tural areas of Sri-Lanka. This relates to the late supplementary feeding as mothers were reluctant to feed earlier because of traditional rice eating ceremony around the end of the year or until teeth have enapted in Maharashtra and Gujarat areas of India, the mean age of the children at which supplementary foods were introduced was generally between eight and ten months. Regardless of the mean age, quite a few of the children did not begin to receive supplementary foods until after twelve months of age. This was especially nouceable in Maharashtra where at least half the children received only breast milk until they were one year old. Such a practice of delayed weaning together with frequent infections could be responsible for the growth faltering that has been reported in children from many developing countries. (Subar, Kreb- Smith and Kahle 1998).

#### Problems that may arise during the weaning period

At the age of six months and above when the child's birth weight is expected to have doubled, breast milk is no longer sufficient to meet the nutritional needs of the growing infants. Nutritious weaning foods are introduced which typically covers the period from the six to twenty four months of age in most developing countries (WHO OMS 2000). Due to the reduced consumption of breast milk, important nutrients such as proteins, zinc, iron and B- vitamins are likely to be deficient in the contemporary diets of the affected infants (La Leche 2002, Mariam 2005).

Hussman, Chowdhury, Chekrabotty and Simpson, (1994) categorized problems during the wearing process into two broad eategories, 1) poor diets and 2) detrimental feeding practices. Those problems that fall under the poor diets include;

1) inadequate colorie, ii) inadequate protein, iii) inadequate micronutrients.

#### Inadeduate calorie

Current WHO recommendations suggest that infants, age 6-8 months should receive at least 200 kcal/day from complementary foods. For 9-11 months- olds, energy from complementary foods should be 300keal/day, and for 12-23 months- olds 550 kcal/day. These guidelines are based on children receiving average amounts of breast milk. If infants and young children consume more or less breast milk than average, their requirements. From complementary foods will differ accordingly. (PAHO/WHO 2003).

However, many studies from developing countries reported low calorie intake in young children. In the Gambia, caloric intake for 12 months old infants was about 80kcal/kg with breast milk providing a major proportion of these calories (Prentice 1990). Brown and Zeitlin (1991) found that Bangladeshi children, ages 9 - 18 months (average of 13 months) were consuming only 65kcal/kg with breast milk making up more than three to fourth of total calories. The total amount of food consumed by infants in Bangladesh is slightly less, implying that the calories, fat and protein are markedly reduced.

In many cases, insufficient caloric intake is due to low caloric density of complementary foods. Poorly nourished children often consume similar amounts (grams) of food as well nourished children but their caloric intake is substantially less. In developing countries, starchy, staples prepared for weaning portidges become highly viscous when

cooked. Consequently, large quantities of water are typically added to make the consistency appropriate for small children. As a result the energy and nutrient concentration is greatly reduced. Due to their small stomach sizes, infants and young children carnot consume sufficient quantities to satisfy their nutritional requirements.

#### Inadequate protein

lead quate protein content is another problem of many wearing diets in developing countries. National Research Council recommended protein intake of 1.6gm/kg body weight for 6 months to 1 year old and 1.2gm/kg for children ages 1.3 years. (Brown, Dewey and Allen 1998; Dewey and Brown 2003) In a report by National Center for Health Statistics (1993), which showed that during the second half of infancy, a child with average weight for age needs 14gms of high quality protein. For 1 - 3 years old, the protein requirement is 16gm per day. A study in Bangladeshi found that protein consumption was only 8.2grams per day or 53% of requirements for children ages 9-18 months. This low protein consumption level was due to very inadequate caloric intakes (Zentlin1991). However, in Peru, among infants 10-12.5 months of age, protein intake averaged over 100% of requirement at 16gm/day (Creed de Karashiro 1990). Also, protein intakes in both Peru and Bangladeshi are substantially lower than those observed in the United States in many cases, protein intake will be adequate if caloric intake is sufficient. However, in places where the weaning diet is highly dependent on starchy tubers, efforts must be made to add sources of protein to the diet (Schmitz 1997).

#### Inadequate micronutrient content

Another characteristic of many wearing diets is inadequate micronutrient content. About 40 million pre-school children suffer from Vitamin A deliciency. It is estimated that adequate dietary intake of Vitamin A could prevent 23% of infant and young child death in developing countries (Sanghvi 1993). There are minimal quantities of other essential micronutrients such as Vitamin C, Iodine, Iron and Zine in the diets of many children in developing countries. Absence of these micronutrients over an extended period can result in blindness, stunted growth, mental and physical handlesps, and reduced immunity to infections and death. There is evidence that Iron and Zine deficiencies can result in anorexia

and decreased total dictary intake (Brown 1997). In a study of Protein energy malnutrition (P E.M) and the nervous system in Nigeria, the report stated that the impact of P E.M on the CNS is not determined by the deliciency of protein and energy alone but simultaneous deficiencies of micronutrient such as iron, iodine Vitainin A, Vitamin B complex, folic acid, Zinc and docosahexacnoic acid also have a large role to play (Kapril and Bhavna 2002; Odebode et al 2005).

22

In the United State, diets of young children generally contain adequate amounts of micronutrients whereas in developing countries, wearing diets frequently lack both variety and animal products. Breast milk is an important source of Vitamin A. Studies in Bangladeshi report that breast milk contributed nearly half of the protein intake and 60% of daily energy and Vitamin A intake in the diet of children over two years of age (Brown et al 1997). In another study in Bangladeshi, of over 2,500 children between the ages of 6 months and 3 years, the risk of Vitamin A deficiency among breast fed children was reduced by 74% (Mahalanabis 1991).

Studies in Mexico have examined the micronutrient content in the diets of young children ages 18 - 30 months. Although the mean energy and a protein intake (per kilo body weight) were adequate, only 7% of protein intake was from animal sources. The low intake of animal products was associated with inadequate consumption of several microoutrients including Vitamin A, and B<sub>12</sub>. Zinc and Iron. Malnutrition (Stunting or low height for age) was common among young children, in these areas studied (Allen 1991).

#### Poor feeding practices

The poor feeding practices, which can otherwise be referred to as detrimental practices include improper timing of the introduction of complementary foods, infrequent feedings, inappropriate, feeding methods and childrane practices and unhygienic ways of handling and preparing food.

## Improper tuning of the introduction of complementary foods Early introduction

Breast milk is the complete, perfect food for infants during the first 6 months of life, yet breast milk is frequently replaced in early infancy with contaminated and nutritionally

early infancy and can result in malnutrition (Cunningham, Jellife and Jellife 1991, UNICEF1999). Prelacted feeds and early supplementation reduce breast milk production and introduce pathogens that greatly increase the risk of lifethreatening diarrhes and other illness (WHO/OMS 2000). Prelacted feeds results in the baby receiving insufficient breast milk and may lead to lactation failure, diarrhea and shortening duration of breast-feeding (Blomquist, Jonsbo and Persson 1994; Hossain, Yosmin and Kabir 1999). It is for this reasons that UNICEF/WHO discourage the use of prelacted feeds unless medically recommended (WHO-UNICEF, 1990). Shamim (2006) his report of the effect of weaning period on nutritional status of children stated that it is well-established that early weaning can interfere with breast milk production and is unnecessary since breast milk caters for both the caloric and fluids requirements apart other micronutrients needed at that age.

In a study of the infant weaning practices of some Tiv women resident in Makurdi, Nigeria, it showed that all the mothers' breast-fed their infants and most introduced supplementary feed at 3 to 4 months (Igbediob 1996). A similar study on the breastfeeding and weaning practices in rural Mexico confirmed that the introduction of solid foods was made at 1 month to 8 months of age. Foods ranged from beans, tortillas bread, pasta, finit, chicken soup, flavored gelatin, to soft drinks. (Lipsky 2004). Fagbule and Olaosebikan 1992 also indicated in his study that 228 out of 516 mothers had commenced weaning by 3 months of age.

A study in an urban slum area of Lima, l'enu documented the role of exclusive breast-feeding in preventing diarrhea morbidity. Infants under five months of age who teces diarrhea milk plus other non-milk liquids had a two times greater risk of diarrhea then exclusively breast fed infants. Non-breast fed infants exhibited the highest rates of diarrhea (Brown 1991).

## Delayed introduction

The consequences of late wearing include inadequate intake of energy, proteins and micronutrient, that results in growth faitering and compromised micronutrient status (Sarvar 2002, Shamim et al 2006). Also, late wearing can result in deliance in eating

compromise the nutritional status (Arita, Singh, Rasania, and Mehra 2003), In Sudan, not even one fourth of infants received complementary foods in addition to breast milk by the age of 9 months. Around 45% of mothers waited until the child's second year of life to give complementary foods on a regular basis (El Bushra, Salih, Satti, and Kamii 1994). Furthermore, in their study of feeding practices in Bangladeshi, Brown et al (1991) observed that mothers did not actively encourage their children to eat complementary foods until around 18 months. This is due to mother's beliefs that introducing food at an earlier age would cause stomach problems. This delay can result in growth faltering and may mute the learning experience provided from exposure to new tasks and textures of foods (Underwood 1992). In a feeding program, in Thailand, infants with insufficient growth did not increase their food intake even when they were offered adequate food. Underwood attributes this behavior to the mother's failure to encourage early acceptance of various foods.

## Infrequent feedings

Another problem during weaning process and which can affect a child's nutritional status is feeding frequency. Given their small stomach sizes, young children need to be feed frequently during the day to ensure adequate food consumption (Gibbons 1984). In many developing countries, traditional weaning foods are neither calorically dense nor served even three times per day.

## Inappropriate sceding methods and child care practices

Besides breast-feeding, bottle-feeding and the use of cups and spoons, force hand feeding is another mode of feeding commonly practiced by the nursing mothers in most developing countries. Foods like fermented paps, other graels, tea and local herbs and water are mostly administered through this process. Forced hand feeding is mostly practiced when a child is sick and refuses to eat or drink as expected. Nursing mothers therefore use a hand to inhibit the breathing process through the nose thereby forcing such a child to swallow whatever is put in the mouth. Though, this practice is declining of late because of the inherent danger of suffocation, yet recent studies still revealed that the practice is still in use in some developing countries of the world. A survey research and behavioral observations in

Kwara State, Nigeria revealed that hand feeding was the most common feeding technique for children under 24 months. "Forced hand feeding tended to be more common among the children suffering from diarrhea (Brown et al. 1998).

## Contaminated weaning food

Children in West Africa are at high risk of infection during wearing. Malnutation increases susceptibility to infectious diseases and affects child mortality from diseases such as diarrhea, whooping cough, and acute respiratory infection (Scrimshaw, Taylor and Gordon 1998; Onofick 1992). It reduces the capacity of the host to resist the consequences of such infection, making death inevitable for some. As solid foods are introduced, infection with germs that cause diarrhea or other diseases is more likely to occur (WHO/IJNICEF 1994). Rural and poor urban mothers often contaminate the food because of poor handling, use of dirty water and utensils, and poor storage. The story is similar for working mother, who leave infants in the case of maids who are usually ignorant and inexperienced and sometimes very unhygienic. Because of its poor nutritional status, the infants can hardly resist these infections. The frequent occurrence of such infections leads to malnumum because of increased energy and nutrient requirements coupled with poor absorptive capacity. This in tum affects the nutritional status of the child and further lowers resistance to infection. (Onofiok 1992). According the available statistics from Nigeria, 93 % of these deaths are under-five years of age, 70% of which are attributed to preventable diseases. (Administrative Committee on Coordination/ Sub-committee on Nutrition of the United Nations (ACC/SCN) 1992)

Numerous studies have also shown that weaning foods prepared under unhygienic conditions are frequently heavily contaminated with pathogenic agents and are a major risk factor in the transmission of diseases especially diarrhea diseases. For example, Black, Siegel and Bentley (2001) in Bangladeshi showed that 41% of samples of food items fed to children of weaning age contained E.coli. Milk and foods prepared separately for infants were more frequently and heavily contaminated with E.coli than foods prepare d for adults such as boiled rice. The level of contamination was related to the storage of weaning foods at high ambient temperature.

## Improper food handling

The sources of food contamination are numerous; polluted water, flies, pests, domestic animals, unclean utensils and pots, dirty hands and a polluted environment caused by lack of sanitation, domestic animals, droppings, dust and dirt etc. Raw foods themselves are frequently the source of contaminants since some foodstates may maturally harbour pathogenic agents or have been obtained from infected animals.

Touching food with contaminated hands has been the cause of many outbreaks of food borne diseases. For those pathogens that have a low minimum infective dose and for which the human body is the main reservoir e.g. shigelia spp. contaminated hands are particularly important risk factor. There are more likely to be multiple cases of cholera in families or households if the index case is a woman or a food handler. In one cholera outbreak in Guinea, the contaminated rice-based meal responsible was prepared by a person who had cleaned the bed sheets and washed the body of a cholera victim, including evacuating the victim's bowel contents with chemas. Nevertheless, the washing of hands after defecation or changing infants' nappies and prior to the preparation of food is frequently neglected or ignored. Bryan (1992) observed that mothers did not always wash their hands after changing babies' nappies and when they did, it was often in the same pan of water used to prepare food and wash utensils. Also, in Lagos, it was noted that, out of 265 Cooks only 43 washed their hands before preparing a meal (in the presence of an observer); had no observed been present, the number would probably have been lower (Abidoye 2000).

Contamination of wearing foods with faecal matter has been frequently reported, and lack of basic sanitation certainly is a contributing factor. Water used for the preparation of food itself is a source of pathogenic agents. In addition to the above-mentioned sources there is also the imminent risk of cross-contamination during food handling. This can occur either by the direct contact between raw and cooked foods or indirectly through insects, rodents, contaminated hands, surfaces or utensils (WHO 1993).

## Weaning age: a critical period

The introduction of wearing foods is often accompanied by stress and ill health for infants in developing countries, mostly because the food s are not properly tailored to the infant needs (Pipes 1993, Kikafunda 2003). Many traditional wearing foods in Africa are

only a slight modification of adult foods involving only mashing and dilution without taking into consideration the special numeronal requirements of young children (Kakitachi 1991, Uwaczbute 1999). Adult diet, especially in developing countries, consists of highly starchy staples which are bulky and unless properly modified, unsuitable for infants and young children with their small gastric capacities (Mosha 1998). During the weaning feeding period, children require foods that are soft, hygienic and energy- and nutrient-dense to meet their high nutritional requirements (Cameron 1983, WHO 2000).

Moreover, foods in developing countries are usually prepared under un -hygienic conditions using water from unprotected sources thus exposing the child to diarrhea. This presents a dilemma to both mother and infant; to wear or not to wear, which is termed wearling's dilemma (Rowland 1986) Therefore, exactly when to wear and what to wear with is a subject that has preoccupied mothers and scientists alike for a long time.

In Nigeria, weaning was also identified to be a crucial growth period that needs to be handled properly to avoid under-nutrition (Nigeria Nutrition Network (NNN) 2000). For instance, the first Nigeria Nutrition Network (2002) identified poor feeding practices and / or shortfall in food intake, at the most important direct factors responsible for malnutrition and illness amongst children in Nigeria. As in most other developing countries, high cost of for tified nutritious weaning foods is always, if not prohibitive beyond the reach of most Nigerian families. Such families often depend on inadequately processed traditional foods consisting mainly of un-supplemented cereal porridges made from maize, sorghum and millet (kikafunda 2003).

Many studies report that the incidence of diarrhea diseases is especially high after weaning is initiated. In a study of infants and children in a Guatemalan Mayan village, Mata et al (1994) noted that the prevalence of many infectious diseases increased during the weaning period (6 - 24 months) and that infectious diseases were extremely high during the weaning period (6 - 24 months) and that infectious diseases were an important cause of weight loss, arrested height and impaired physical growth. Rowland (1986) reported that there is particularly high incidence of diarrhea diseases between 7 and 18 months with a peak at 9 months of age. Similarly, Black et al (2001) found that the prevalence of diarrhea was highest during the second 6 months of life.

## Foodborne pathogens

Intant, and young children are very susceptible to food borne disease and if they consume contaminated toods, are likely to contact infections or intoxications leading to illness and often death. In their chemical or biological agents may cause Foodborne diseases but the or biological origin are of special interest, since they are responsible for a considerable proportion of diarrhea diseases. However, it should be noted that infants and children also are sensitive to various chemical contaminants of fundatures e.g. lead. And, such contamination is a major public health concern in several countries (FAO/WHO 1998).

Infections due to passogenic Ecoli are probably the commonest illnesses in developing countries and produce up to 25% of all diarrhes episodes. Transmission of Ecoli has been specifically associated with wearing foods (WHO 1983). Cholera remains an important cause of morbidity and mortality in many developing countries, mainly in Asia, Africa and recently, South America. Rotavirus is commoner in children aged 6-24 months and is responsible for 20% of all diarrhes death among under 5 year olds; the virus is of concern in both developing and industrialized countries. Amoebiasis, ascariasis, etc are among he commonly occurring food bome parasitic infections. Amoebiasis is one of the common est parasitic intestinal diseases that can be fatal. Also, a high prevalence of amoebia sis has been reported among children of weaning age.

unthermore, many studies have also demonstrated that infections may induce growth altering during the weaning period. A study of the population of a Guatemalan village Iso revealed that the incidences of infectious diseases, particularly diarrhea diseases, were as important cause of weight loss, arrested high and impaired physical growth. Many investigations indicate that of all the common childhood illnesses, only diarrhea diseases have a significant negative effect on growth. Studies by Mantorell (1995) in Guatemala suggest that children who suffered from diarrhea for a short period exhibited a substantially greater increase on length and weight than children who were ill with diarrhea for a longer period.

and Vitamin A deficiency, have been reported in connection with food bome parasiti infections such as associasis. For example, in a study of a 14-month old boy in

Guate ala, it was noted that the child exhibited normal growth until weaning (which started 6 months of age). Introduction of semi-solid foods at that time was accompanied by bout of diarrhea and reduced growth rate. When he received treatment, the child was found to be infected with worms famorell, Khan and Grummer-Strawn 1998).

29

#### CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Ithough social and behavioral science theories are claimed to be able to contribute greatly the effectiveness of health education programs, many practitioners in the profession seem to doubt this, and very few ever deliberately use theories in their work. Theorie are essential statements identifying factors that are likely to produce particular results under specified conditions. Theories arm at identifying and helping us understand element that affect seemingly diverse classes of behaviors and tell us how the elements function blochbaum 1992).

will be used. This model is a diagnostic model (otherwise known as the antecedent model) that can be used in classifying health-related behaviors of people. This model can therefore be used to classify the behavioral patterns of the nursing mothers in Ibadan North West concerning their children weaning practices. Factors influencing health behaviors that are modifiable by educational intervention are broadly divided into three categories.

These fa tors are -

- (i) I redisposing factors
- (ii) I nabling factors
- hese factors can also be referred to as the ANTECEDENT FACTORS, which are respond for human behavior

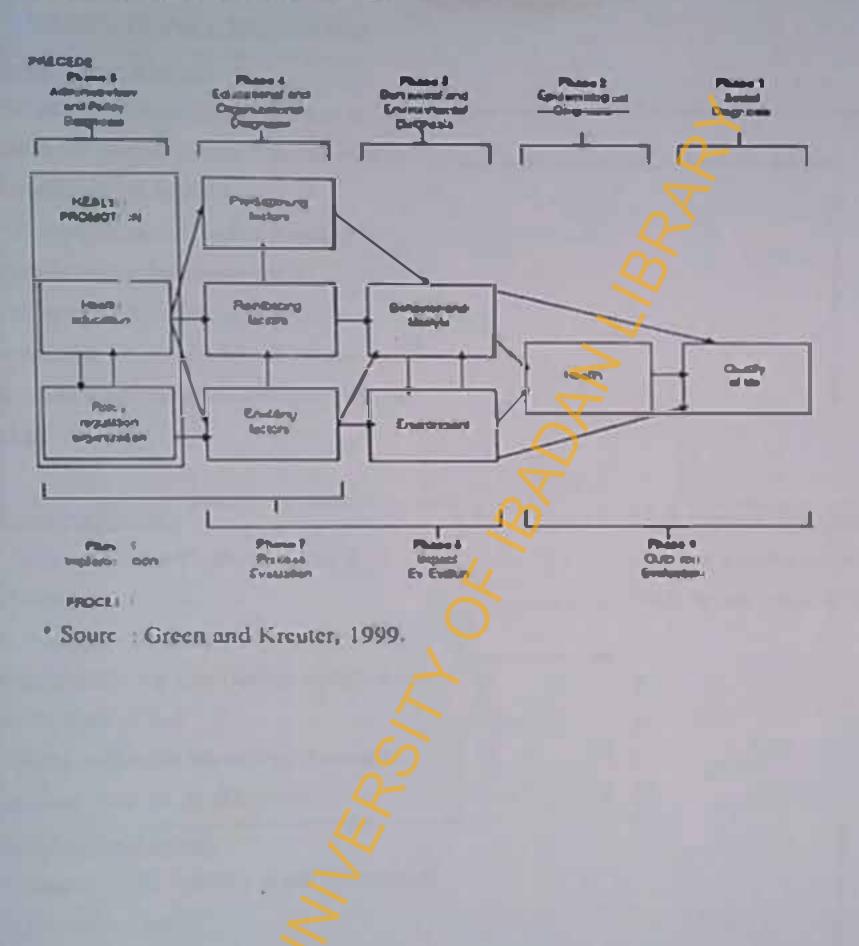
Predisposing factors include knowledge, attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and alues. Predisposing factors are characterized by motivational forces prior to the action. Such, predisposing factors as related to this study include mother's knowledge about when (i.e. the appropriate age to introduce complementary foods), what (i.e. that type of complementary

food o give) and how the complementary foods are to be introduced to her child. Beliefs about the time to introduce complementary food. For example, some mothers believe that complementary foods could be given to babies as from 3 months or even much earlier because of their beliefs that breast milk alone cannot satisfy the babies.

change in organization and management of resources are anticipated. These include skill facilities, and finance required. Such will usually be required by the nursing mothers to maintain appropriate wearing practices. Enabling factors in this study are, money to buy the appropriate complementary foods, occupation of the mother as well as that of the husband, maternal education; availability of certain wearing foods; time available for the preparation of child is food. Apart from the mother's knowledge about when, what and how to introduce the con plementary foods. She also needs money and skills to enable her accomplish the knowledge acquired.

Reinforcing factors are social or psychological in nature. They are the attitudes or behavior of the health professional, family members especially the husband, friends and neighbors. In this study, such factors include extent of information about wearing foods and practices on the media, health centers especially during the Infant Welfare Clinic (IWC) and/or immunization clinics; support of the husband in terms of providing money for the child's foods, support of the health workers as well as the advise given in the clinic. There are also the attitude or behavior of in-laws and neighbors which may or may not be helpful.

## FIGURE 1 : PRECEDE MODEL



# FIGURE 2: The PRECEDE MODEL adapted to the Weaning Practices of the mothers

#### **EDUCATIONAL DIAGNOSIS**

## Predisposing Factors

- Mother's knowledge-about when to introduce, what and how to introduce the complementary foods
- Beliefs about the kind of foods to introduce complementary foods
- . \*Maternal education in relation to knowledge i.e. reason why should certain foods be given (or should not be given) to a child.

## **Enabling Factors**

- "Time available for the preparation of child's food
- Nature of the mother's occupation that may disallow her from taking adequate care of the child's food.
- \*Skills nutration educational training received from the health clinics

## Reinforcing Factors

- "Health workers-extent of the information
- given in the inic
- \* Husband's support as well as the other family members (In-laws)
- \*- Friends or neighbors (the kind of information given)

\*Adapted from Green and Kreuter (1999)

## Behavioural Diagnosis

Mother's ability to carry out the appropriate weaning practices

#### CHAPTER THREE

#### METHODOLOGY

This chapter starts with a concise description of the study area. This is followed by the study design, scope and study variables. Other components of the chapter include the sample size and sampling procedure, methods and instruments for the data collection; validity and reliability of the study instruments; data collection process, data management and analysis. This chapter ends with limitations of the study.

#### Description of the Study Area:

Government which generally do not have many interactions with each other. Ibadan North West is one of the five Urban Local Government of Ibadan that came into existence in August 1991. The Ibadan North West was carved out of Ibadan Municipal Government (IMG). Ibadan contains eleven Local Government Areas (LGAs) (five urban and six rural).

## Physical Characteristics

in Ibadan. And, it occupies 1% of the total land area of the metropolitan area. It contains one of the water works-the Eleyele water works, army and police barracks and a golf course.

## (a) Physical Infrastructure

There are 3 categories of roads that run across the Local Government (LG); Federal, State and Local Government roads. The only federal road that passes through the Local Government (LG) is that portion from Ekotedo junction (near Queen's Cinema) to Dugbe intersection; this is followed by State roads, which include among others Anny Barracks road, Dugbe-Eleyele and Olona Motors road and Ayeye-Idikan-Feleye road. The last category constitutes the longest length, since all other residential access roads fall under it.

## (b) Water Supply

The residents of the Local Government (LG) depend on the municipal water system from the water corporation of Oyo State (WCOS) and on wells. Some parts of the Local Government (notably Eleyele, Jericho and Idi-Ishin) get their water supply from the Eleyele water works while the remaining areas depend on the Asejire water darn located along the Ibadan-Ife road for their water supply. The water supply from the Water Corporation is ciratic, so people have to depend more often on wells for water.

34

## c) Housing

There are 3 types of housing in this Local Government (LG). The highly dense core areas have poor quality housing while the housing in moderately dense area is of fair quality. Those in the least dense areas have good quality. These latter areas are in the Government Reservation Areas in Jericho and Onireke. In general, the poor quality houses have inadequate or no infrastructure and sanitation facilities. In some cases, the population in these areas does not have access to any of the basic services.

## (d) Land Use

The total Land area of the Local Government (L.G) as given by the survey Department of the Oyo State Ministry of Lands, Housing and Physical Planning is 31.38km<sup>2</sup> out of this, residential land use takes the largest share of about 60% which is 18.83km<sup>2</sup>

The residential areas in the Local Government (LG) can be classified into 2 densities, namely high and low densities. A high density area is a densely populated residential neighborhood, which has as many as four or more dwelling units per plot of land. On the other hand, a low-density area is a sparsely populated neighborhood having as low as one dwelling unit on a plot of land. The low-density neighborhoods are found in Jericho, Onireke Government Reservation Areas (GRAs) and Idi-Ishin. These latter places are well planned with infra-structural facilities and services while the high-density residential areas are not well planned. Such as found in both the core areas and the newly developed parts of the Local Government. These include Agbeni, Idikan, Oke-paade, Eleyele, Arometa and ljokodo to mention a few

The commercial activities in the Local Government (LG) take place mainly on Agbeni, Ogunpa and Dugbe markets. These account for 3% of the total land area Commercial activities also take place along the major roads in the Local Government (LG)

## (e) Health Facilities

There are a total of 13 health facilities owned by the Local Government (LG) located in various part of the Local government. They range from health centers to dispensaries, primary health care centers to state supported health centers. Besides the public health facilities, there are also about 23 private clinics/hospitals in the Local Government (LG). The services available in these facilities include primary health care such as immunization, distribution of oral re-hydration therapy (ORT), growth monitoring, health education, nutrition and family planning services.

The five common diseases of children are malaria, diarrhea and broncho-pneumonia, anemia and tetanus. The major causes of death in children under five years old also include anemia and tetanus

## (f) Population and Population Density

The total population of (badan North West Local Government Area was estimated to be 223,331 in 2006 using the Nigeria population growth rate of 2.4% quoted in the World Fact Book (World Fact Year 2007). The population of the Local Government accounted for 8% of the total population of Ibadan region (i.e. the eleven local governments) The female proportion was 50.6% (86,938) while the male proportion was 49.4% (84,854). The population of children under one year old is 6,872 while those under live years old is 34,359 The population of women in reproductive age is 37,794.

The population density of the Local Government is about 4,677 persons per km<sup>2</sup>.

The ec e residential quarters of the Local Government (LG) account for the highest population density. This is followed by the newly developed high-density residential quarters such as Elevele and Arometa. The Jericho and Onireke and low-density are as of idialabin are passely populated.

The Local Government (LG) comprises of 10 political wards with the headquarters at Ourcke (Table 1)

Table 1: Wards in Ibadan North-West Local Covernment

Ward No	Ward Name
NWI	Всте/Аусус
NW2	Oopoyeosa
NW3	Agbenii Ogunga
NW4	Idikan
NW5	Olorisaoko
NW6	Abebi ()
NW7	Ekotedo
NW8	Inalende
NW9	Jerichor Onireke
NW10	Eleyele

## Study design and scope

The study utilized the descriptive cross-sectional design

This study is limited in scope to the wearing practices antong the nursing mothers whose children aged 6 months -24 months in Ibadan North-West Local Government Area.

#### Study Variables

The categories of variable considered in this study are:-

- (i) Dependent Variables Wearing Practices adopted by the nursing mothers
- (ii) Intermediate variables-Knowledge, Attitude, Perception, and belief of the owsing mothers on their weating practices.
- (iii) Independent variable- Socio- demographic characteristics of the mothers such as age, marital status educational levels, and occupation.

## Sampling procedures and sample size

A combination of multistage, stmtified and simple random sampling techniques were used. Firstly, applying the delineation of local government by National Electoral Commission (NEC 1996). The ten wards in the local government area were grouped into two residential areas. Nine wards fall under the high-density residential areas while one ward falls under the low-density residential area. Those nine wards that fall under high-density residential area include NW1, NW2, NW3 NW4, NW5, NW6, NW7, NW8, and NW10. However, the low-density residential area has only one ward, which is NW9

Secondly, simple balloting was used to select 50% of ward from the high-density groupings while the only one in low density was purposely selected. By using a simple random method, four wards out of the nine wards in the high-density residential areas were chosen. Those four selected wards were Ayeye/Bere [NW1];Orien/Idikan [NW4] Olorisaoko [NW5];Abebi [NW6] and Onireke/Jericho [NW9].

Thirdly, each of the selected wards in the high-density area was then broken down into the compound clusters while that of low density area was broken down into street clusters and 50% of the compounds were randomly selected in the high density area while and 50% of streets from the low-density ward were randomly selected by balloting. The list of the selected compounds in each ward was gathered from the ward councillors in the local

there were nursing mothers with children of ages 6-24 months were selected. In houses where the nursing mothers were more than two, only one nursing mother was selected by balloting. A total of five hundred (500) nursing mothers were interviewed.

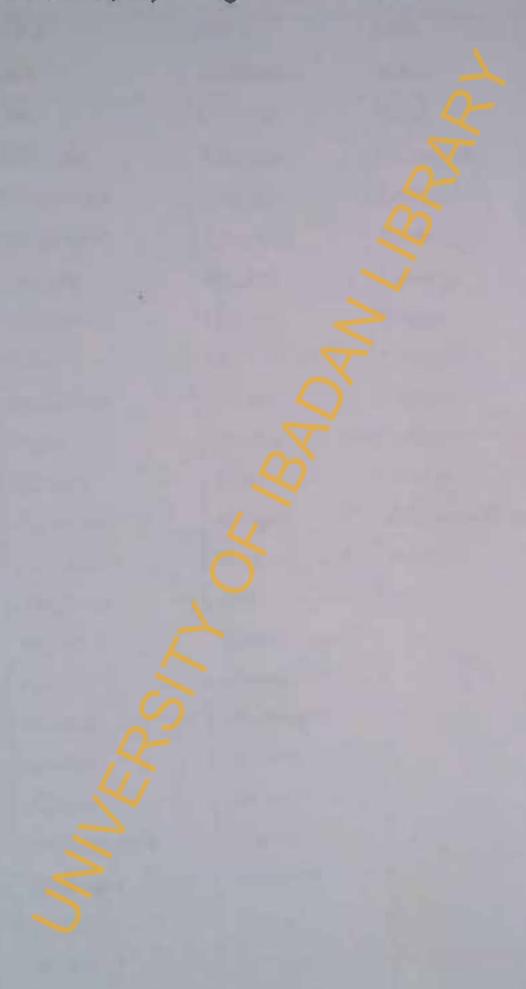


Table 2 Name of the Compounds chosen in the four selected Words of the High-density residential areas.

NIVI (Berelayeye)	N'IV4	NIVS	אוויה
	Idikan	Olorisaoko	Abebi
Aragba	Ota	Onimalu	Faloo
Patako	Babajide	Adenase	Ogbonkoko
Ayegun	Olonusogo	Elekuru	Ladapo
Laniba	Akanyanmi	Adegbolu	Amumeji
Orankan	Laogun	Akande	Lakanlu
Alckuso	Kanmodi	Ogcroju	Elegun
Araba	Sulu	Eye	Oyedija
Olajumoke	Banıgbola	Ayisa	Asodele
Idi-Omo	Pegba	Osunde	Ayibiowu
Asia-Lelc	Okiribiti	Agbo	Abudu
Raji	Ajobiewe	Adegun	Adeyemo Owonbuwo
Ado	Adebisi	Kangun	Adcojo
Adeleye	Alagbede	Ake	
Ayilegbe	Agunloß	Ojuoye	
Asinkuna	Epo	Lamini	
	ljometa	Wajawaja	
	lbikunle	Apaoyin	
No.	Agoro	Daolu	
The state of the s	Awonigbagbe	Olokun	
	Olaboopo	Onikolobo	
	Orugele		
	Akeka		
Share and	Balogun		
	Ajole		

# Name of the streets chosen in the only ward of the low-density residentlal area (Ward 9)

#### .lcricho/Onircke included.

- Shalom Nursery&primary school avenue.
- Ayomide Street.
- Okc-Aanu Area
- Onireke Layout, Nestle Area
- Reservation Area.
- Oba Akenzua Avenue
- Link Road
- Stone Road.
- Mogazine Road.
- Oke-race Area off Ayorinde.

#### Methods and Instrument for Data Collection

Two methods of data collection were used. The first consisted of the qualitative method, which is the focus group discussion while the second comprised of the quantitative using questionnaire.

## Design of the Instruments

Two instruments; questionnaire and focus group discussion (FGD) guide were used to collect information on the wearing practices among the nursing mothers

## The Focus Group Discussion (FGD) Guide

The FGD guide was developed based on literature review and consultation with researchers who had conducted similar studies. Open-ended questions were framed The questions addressed issues relating to knowledge, attitudes, and practices of the nursing mothers' wearing practices. This qualitative approach helped to collect in depth information on the wearing practices among the nursing mothers. The information obtained was used to modify the draft questionnaire for quantitative data.

## The Questionnaire

This was the second instrument used for the data collection from the nuising mothers. The idea is to quantify some of the themes that emerged during focus group discussion. The questionnaire consisted of twentysix questions, which were divided into the following sections.

Section A: socio-demographie characteristics of the respondents

Section B: respondents' weaning practices.

Section C: respondents' level of knowledge about weaning

Section D: respondents' attitudes to certain wearing foods.

Section E: general comments on weaning.

## Validity and Reliability.

Validity is the extent to which an instrument actually measures what it suppose to measure while reliability is the degree to which an instrument yield constant responses (Davitz & Davitz, 1997). Steps taken to enhance the validity and reliability of the instruments are described in the sub-section as follows;

## Review of Instruments

To ensure validity, other experienced researchers from the department reviewed the instruments. The objectives of the study were reviewed along with the instruments.

## Translation of Questionnaire and Discussion Guide

Yoruba. The questionnaire too was translated into Yoruba Language by an expert and was back translated into English again by another person to ensure there was no information lost and also that the meaning of the questions were not distorted. The Yoruba translation is included in the appendices.

## Troining of Research Assistants

Research assistants were trained for their specific roles for the FGDs and the interviews. Training lasted for three days and included roles plays. These allowed for on the

spot correction and clarification of issues.

#### Pre-testing of Instruments

The FGD guide and questionnaire were pre-tested among the nursing mothers with children of ages 6-24 months in Adeoyo Maternity Hospital. Ayeye/Agbeni Maternity Centre in Ibadan North LGA and also in Oni and Sons Children Hospital in Ibadan South West LGA. Five [5] FGDs were conducted in all. Twenty questionnaires were also pre-tested at Bashorun Area (As low density residential area) and Oranyan Area (as high density residential area). Field-testing lasted for five days and each questionnaire took an average of thirty-five minutes to complete. At the end of the FGD exercise, questions that were not easily understood were re-framed or removed.

#### Data Collection Process

## Focus group discussion [FGD]

The FGDs were conducted by a team of three pre-trained female research assistants consisting of an ordinary National Diploma (OND) holder, who was designated as a moderator, an undergo duate student as a recorder and another undergraduate as an observer. They were all experienced in research works. Each FGD session had 8 participants.

The FGDs took place in the infant welfate/immunization clinic of the respective selected wards. Each FGDs lasted between 30-60 minutes and the exercise lasted for 5 days. Comments were transcribed and recorded on tape recorder. FGD guide used is included in the appendices.

## Selection of Sumples for Focus Group Discussions [FGD]

The FGDs were conducted in the remaining five wards that were not selected for the survey. The participants were nursing mothers with children of 6-24 months who came for Infant welfare and immunization clinics. Those nursing mothers selected came from different wards. In all, there were forty (40) participants for the FGD sessions. Five (5) different FGD sessions were held where five (5) different groups of nursing mothers were involved. Two FGD groups of nursing mothers were used for the FGD pretest while three

groups of nursing mothers were used for the study.

The venue and time for the discussions were done at the respective immunization elinic. The number of the nursing mothers that constituted each FGD sessions was eight [8] and each session lasted between 30-60 minutes. In order to ensure that the instrument measured what they vere intended to measure, they were drawn in English and then translated into Yoruba. The FGD sessions were conducted in both Yoruba and English languages to ensure that mothers were able to communicate in the language of choice in which they were most comfortable and also to ensure better understanding of their responses. The Yoruba version was used in the high density areas since it is language of choice commonly used by the indigenous mothers while the English version was used for those in the low density areas as requested by the mothers. All sessions were recorded on audiotapes with the pennission of the participants.

#### Interviews

Five semale research assistants were employed and trained by the investigator to administer and still the questionnaire. The interview was face to face and the nursing mothers were interviewed at their various homes.

Each research assistant together with the investigator completed an average of six questionnaires a day. In all, a period of three weeks was used to conduct the interviews. The investigator ensured that all questionnaires were answered, submitted and collected on daily basis. Detected, incomplete responses or onussions were promptly corrected in the field. Most of the interviews were conducted in the afternoons and evenings when the nursing mothers were back home from their respective working places.

## Supervision

The research assistants were supervised throughout the data collection exercise by the investigator and this gave room for the on-spot correction of mistakes.

## Data Management and Analysis

All FGD data obtained from the audiotape were transcribed and compared with ones written by the recorder before drawing conclusions. Data obtained from the questionnaires

were sorted out manually. All open-ended questions were coded using the already developed coding scheme. The data was then entered into the computer using the software EPI-INFO (Version 6). Frequency distributed tables, means and percentage were analysed for descriptive purposes. Chi-square test of association was used to determine any significant statistical association between wearing practices and those variables identified in the stated hypothesis

#### Ethical Considerations

It is an established principle to obtain informed consents from all participants in health researches (Smith and Morrow, 1993). During the course of data collection, the research assistants greeted the people and introduced themselves as necessary, informed consent to participate in the study was verbally sought and obtained from the participating nursing mothers. It was also made known to them that their participation in the study was voluntary it was after they had agreed to participate in the study verbally that both FGD and administration of the questionnaire were done. The nature of the investigation was explained and contidentiality of all information collected was assured.

#### Limitations

This study is not without some limitations. A common limitation of interviews is that investigator relies only on what the interviewees disclosed or reported. In this study, the freely expressed views or opinions by the respondents are just assumed to be honestly made.

This study focused on a sensitive topic, which reflects the economic, sociodemographic and educational status of the respondents and their husbands. Most nursing
mothers hesitated to speak on these topics because of various reasons best known to them.

Some mothers even wanted incentives before they could volunteer to give information as
regards their children while some were of enoneous impression that the research assistants
were tax of licers. This was, however, overcome after explaining the purpose to the mothers
and their husbands.

It was difficult to gather information from most mothers especially when just back from work. Most respondents who had been away from home almost throughout the day prefer to use their evening for rest and to prepare food for their families. Therefore, they felt

disturbed and uncomfortable to find time to attend to the interviewer, who had to be extra patient and repeat questions many times. This led to the extension of anticipated duration for the data collection.

#### CHAPTER FOUR

#### RESULTS

This chapter presents the results related to the weaning practices among nursing mothers in Ibadan North West local Government of Oyo State. The survey results are in two broad categories:

- (a) demographic characteristics; and
- (b) Weaning practices among respondents

#### Soclo-demographic characteristics

A total of 500 mothers with children of ages 6-24 months participated in this study. The age distribution of the children whose mothers were interviewed ranged from 6-24 months with the mean age of 15months. Most of the children 150 (30%) belonged to the age range of 6-9 months, followed by 129 (25.8%)children within 10-13 months and 108 (21.6%) children with the age ranges of 22-24 months. Age distribution of the respondents as seen in Table 3 showed that their ages ranged from 16-50 years with a mean of 26 years.

The educational status of the mothers as shown in Table 3 revealed that the largest number were those who had primary six education 224 (44.8%). Others attained secondary school education 128 (25.6%), Post secondary school education 85 (17%) which comprised of Technical College, Grade 2 Certificate, National college of education (NCE), Nursing, Polytechnic (OND/HND) and University education. Those with no formal education were 63 (12.6%).

Occupational distribution of the respondents showed that majority of the respondents were Pcity Traders 310 (62%), while the other occupations indicated by the remaining mothers have very tow percentages as shown in Table3. Similarly, occupational distribution of the respondents' partners indicated that the highest number of their husbands were artisans 191 (38.2%); followed by Trading 120 (24%); and Civil Servant 101(20.2%). Those categorized, as Artisans were drivers, mechanics, carpenters, bricklayers, electricians, fashion designers and interior decorators.

Table 3 Socio-demographic variables

Childrens'ages (in months)	Number	1'ercent	
6-9	150	30	
10-13	129	25.8	
14-17	48	9.6	
18-21	65	13	
2224	108	21.6	
Total	\$00	100	
Mothers' ages			
16.20	66	13.2	
21-25	198	39.6	
26.30	161	32.2	
31-35	55	11	
36.40	15	3	
41-45		0.2	
46-50	4	0.8	
Primary six	224	44 8	
Scondary school	128	25 6	
Post-secondary school	85	47	
Total	500	00	
Respondents' occupation			
Housewife	40	8	
Petty trading	310	62	
Artisan	C94	18.8	
Civil son and salary carner	18	96	
Large scale business	В	1.6	
Total	500	100	
Respondents' Husbands of	cupation		
Trading	12	10 24	
Artisas	19	38.2	2
Civil servant/sulary camera	10	1 202	
Large scale braines		g 1,6	
No idea/ No response	3	3 66	
Total	54	00 10	0

## Respondents' Weaning Practices

## Breast-feeding Practices

Breast-feeding was found to be popularly practiced among the mothers. Out of the 500 mothers interviewed, 320 (64%) were still breast-feeding as the time of this study while the rest of the mothers 180(36%) had already stopped breast-feeding their children. However, the number of times per day in which mothers breastfeed their children varied. The number of those mothers who breast feed their children on demand was very high 284 (88.8%) compared to the other mothers who breastfeed at certain number of times as shown in Table 4. Those mothers who were still breastfeeding were further asked about how long they intend to breast feed their babies, 112 (35%) intend to breast feed for duration of 16-19 months. 111 (34.7%) for more than 24 months. Very few of the mothers indicated their intention to breast feed for as long as 20-23 months while some mothers (5%) gave no response as shown in Table 5.

Specifically, those mothers who had already stopped breastfeeding as at the time of this study were asked to state the ages of their children when they terminated breastfeeding. Their responses (Table 6)) indicated that 100 (55.5%) mothers had stopped breast-feeding their children between the ages of 12-15months, a small proportion of the children 11 (6.1%) were removed from breast quite early (before 1 year) while only 10 (5.6%) of children were weaned totally off breast milk after 19 months.

The reasons given by these respondents for termination of breast-feeding varied. The most common reasons given by the respondents 127 (70.6%) were because they felt that child was matured enough to be introduced to complementary foods and to get the child accustomed to eating other foods besides breast milk. Other reasons given were child refusal to suck breast milk 29 (16.1%); nature of the mother's job 9 (5%) and preparation to have another child. 15 (8.3%) Table 7.

TABLE 4: Number of Times Respondents Breastfeed Per Day

No of times mothers breast-feed per day	1 requency	%
Less than 5 times	2	0.6
5-10 times	24	7.5
11-15 times	10	3.1
On demand	284	88.8
TOTAL	320	100

Table 5: Duration of Time Respondents Intend To Breastfeed

Duration of times mothers intend to breast-feed	Frequency	%
12-15 months	53	16.6
16-19 months	112	35
20-23 months	28	8.4
24 & Above	111	34.7
No Response	16	5
TOTAL	320	100

## Table 6: Ages of Children at Termination of Breastfeeding

Ages of children when terminated from breast feeding	Frequency	%
Less than 12 months	11	6.1
12-15 months	100	55.5
16-19 months	59	32.8
Above 19 months	10	5.6
Total	180	100

viothers' reasons for termination of breast feeding	Number	%
Child matured to be introduced to complementary foods to get child accustomed to eating other foods	127	70.6
Refusal of breast milk by the child	29	16.1
Preparation to have another child	15	8.3
Nature of mother's job	9	5
Total	180	100

## Age of Introduction of weaning foods

All the mothers in this study had started the weaning process, in that their children had been introduced to foods other than breast milk. A very small proportion of the mothers 113 (22.4%) started the weaning process at exactly 6 months. However, more than half of the mothers 299 (59.8%) started weaning process before 6months while only 79 (15.8%) introduced to their babies weaning foods after 6 months of age Table 8.

Respondents were asked the reasons for introducing weaning foods to their children A greater proportion of the respondents 338 (68.4%) introduced weaning foods because breast milk alone cannot satisfy their babies as they cry too often Other reasons given by the mothers are shown in Table 9

Mothers were asked to name the weaning foods liest introduced to their children, 326(65.2%) of the mothers commenced the weaning process with maize- based foods only such pap, amala/eba foofoo with only stew or boiled rice only (l'able 10).

Out of all these foods mentioned, pap made from maize or millet guinea corn was the most popularly mentioned by the mothers in this study. Thereafter, commercial weaning foods became the next popular weaning foods introduced by the mothers 85 (17%). Various commercial weaning foods mentioned by the mothers include Frisalac with iron, SMA. Nan Cow & Gate, Jerry to mention a few as well as baby supplements such as Nutrend. Golden Morn, Corn flakes, custard, and babeena. However, only a very small proportion of the mothers 55 (11%) gave Legumes and / or animal products, which were boiled egg, boiled fish, powdered cow milk, soybeans, beans and its products. Other foods which was barely given by the mothers were fruits and vegetables as shown in Table 11

Various reasons were given by the respondents for introducing weaning foods to their children. A large proportion of the respondents 233 [44.6%] stated that baby cries too often since breast milk alone cannot satisfy them. Other reasons included, ability to have healthy and strong child 156(31.2%); to get child accustomed to eating weaning foods 57[11.4%]; breast milk and commercial weaning foods could no longer satisfy the babies 49 [9.8%] and advice given by the health workers 15[3%] as shown in Table 12.

Table 8: Children's Ages At Introduction to the Weaning Foods

Children's ages when wearing foods were introduced	No	%
Before 6months	299	59.8
6months	113	22.4
Above 6months	79	15.8
No response	9	1.8
TOTAL	500	100

Table 9: Mother's Reasons For Introducing Weaning Foods

Mothers' reasons for introducing weaning foods	No	%
Breast milk alone cannot satisfy babies as they cry too often	338	68.4
Baby is old enough to be commenced on other foods To get child accustomed to eating other foods	70	14
Pressure from family/Neighbors & Friends	35	7
No response	30	6
Hospital workers' advice	19	3.8
Preparation to have another child	4	0.8
TOTAL	500	100

Table 10: Types of Weaning Foods First Introduced to Children.

Number	%
326	65.2
85	17
55	11
31	6.2
3	0.6
500	100
	326 85 55 31

Table 11: Reasons for The Type Of Weaning Foods Given to Their Children

Reason for weaning	Frequency	9%
Baby cry often as only breast milk cannot satisfy the baby	233	44.6
Make child healthy and strong	156	31.2
To get child accustomed to eating other foods	57	14.4
Breast milk and commercial weaning foods [CWFs] can no longer satisfy baby especially when away at work	49	9.8
Health workers' advice	15	3
TOTAL	500	100

Table 12: Types of Weaning Foods Later Introduced to the Children by Respondents

Types of weaning foods	Breakfast	%	Lunch	%	Supper	%
oter introduced to the						
children						
Amala/eba/	211	42.2	299	59.8	181	362
foofoo/boiled rice only					1	
Beans and its	179	35.8	160	32	162	32.4
products/boiled	411			-		
fish/meats	7					
Ogi + milk	93	15.8	29	5.8	123	24.6
Commercial weaning	14	18.6		0.2	10	2
foods						
Fruits & vegetables	1	0.2	5	1	5	1
No response	2	0.4	6	1.2	19	3.8
TOTAL	500	100	500	100	: 00	100

Amala/eba/ foofoo/boiled rice and stew were ranked as the most popular weaning foods mentioned by the majority of the mothers given to their children during the meal times (breakfast 42.2%; lunch 59.8% and supper 36.2%) Table 12

Consumption of food groups in relation to Legumes and for animal products was low, as only a few mothers included these into foods given in a day. These foods items mentioned were beans, soybeans and its products, milk and boiled meat/fish

The result of the 24 hours dietary recall maintained further that majority of the mothers gave Ogi, amala/cba/ foofoo/boiled rice. These same food were reportedly given three times a day as 223 (44.6%) mothers gave them in the morning; 273 (54.6%) in the afternoon; and 184 (36.8 %) at night. This is followed by those mothers who gave foods that are legumes and /or animal products (bears, meat, fish, milk etc.), which was also low Consumption of fruits and vegetables was very low in both Tables 12 and 13.

Table 13: Mothers' 24 Hours Dietary Recall Of The Weaning Foods
Given to their Children

24hrs Dictary	Morning	%	Astemoon	%	Evening	%
Recall			4			
moots &	223	44.6	273	54.6	184	36.8
tubers starch only						
Legumes &/or	138	27.6	140	28	167	33.4
animal products						
Maize-	111	22.2	66	13.2	103	20.6
based+milk						
Commercial	10	2	2	0.4	10	2
weaning foods						
Fruits &	6	1.2	3	1.6	11	2.2
vegetables						4
No response	12	2.4	11	2.2	25	5
TOTAL	500	100	500	100	500	100

Respondents were asked their major source(s) of information on weaning cods, 402 (804%) claimed that the clinic was their source of information on choice of waning foods given to their children Other sources mentioned by the respondent included; Radio/I'clevision/Magazine 64 (12.8%); and parents/neighbours/friends 34 (6.8%) Talle 14.

Table 14: Mothers' Sources Of Information On Choice Of Weaning Foods Given To Their Children

Mothers' sources of information on choice of weaning foods given to their children	No	%
Clinics	402	80.4
Television/Radio/ Magazine	64	12.8
Parents/Neighbours/Friends	347	6.8
TOTAL	500	100

# Respondents' knowledge about weaning foods and weaning practices.

The majority of the mothers 230(46%) stated that weaning foods should be introduced before 6 months; followed by only 181 (36.2%) mothers who supported that 6 months should be the appropriate age. However, only a few proportion of the mothers 79 (15.8%) mentioned that weaning foods should be stated after 6 months

When mothers were asked to mention those weaning foods that could first be introduced to children. 240 (48%) mentioned pap /amala with stew only, followed by a fairly high number of mothers 202 (40.4%) who mentioned boiled fish/meat, beans and products. However, there was a very low frequency of those mothers 44 (8.8% who mentioned pap with protein-based foods. In addition, 11 (2.2%) mentioned commercial weaning foods (such as frisolae with irons, SMA, Nan, Cow & Gate, Jerry) while very few of the mothers 3 (0.6%) mentioned fruits and vegetables (Table 15).

Table 15: Mothers' responses on types of weaning foods that can be given to children

Weaning foods that can be given to children	Frequency	%
Paplamala with stew	240	48
Boiled fist/meat. beans and products	202	40.4
Pap + milk	44	8.8
Commercial weaning foods	11	2.2
Fruits and vegetable	3	0,6
TOTAL	500	001

Mothers level of knowledge were finther assessed by asking them to state those aspect of child growth and development that could be affected by the quality of the Weaning Pattern adopted and those foods that could promote it Almost all mothers 99.2%) mentioned retarded growth, low body resistance to diseases and untimely death as aspects of child development that could be affected by the quality of the Weaning Pattern adopted by mothers Table 16

Furthermore, 301 (60.2%) mothers mentioned legumes and for animal products foods (which include milk, fish, ment beans and products) as foods that could promote child growth and development and this time around, a low frequency of mothers 143 (24.6%)

mentioned maize-based foods/ root and tubers/ starch only. Other foods rarely mentioned were faults and vegetables Table 17.

Table 16: Aspects Of Child Development That Could Be Affected By The Quality Weaning Adopted By The Mothers

Aspects of child development that could be affected by the quality of weaning adopted by the mothers	Frequency	%
Retorded growth/Low body resistance to disease/Untimely death	496	99.2
Noidea/ Don't know	4	0.8
TOTAL	500	100

Table 17: Weaning foods that could promote child growth and development

Weaning foods	Frequency	%	
Maize-based/roots & tubers/starch only	143	28.6	
Protein -based foods	301	60.2	
Pap + milk/ animal products	39	7.8	
Commercial weaning foods [CWFs]	11	2.2	
Fruits and vegetables	6	1.2	
TOTAL	500	100	

## Respondents' attitudes towards weaning practices (Table 18)

The respondents' attitudes towards wearing practices were assessed by asking them to express their opinions on certain wearing practices. Majority of the respondents 397(79.4%) strongly disagreed with the statement, that eggs should not be given to a baby because it can make him steal while less than ten percent respondents 42 (8.4%) strongly agreed with the statement. Indeed, the respondents' attitudinal level towards this statement could be regarded as being positive. This is because respondents' responses are well above the expected mean of 250.

Furthertnore, 228(45.6%) respondents strongly disagreed with the statement that only breast milk should be introduced to a baby before 6 months of age while 216(43.2%) respondents strongly agreed. This reflected a negative attitudinal level of the respondents. A greater proportion of the respondents 439(87.8%) strongly agreed that locally available foods are equally as good as processed foods for weaning diet, which indicated a positive attitudinal level by the respondents. Most of the respondents 331(66.2%) strongly agreed that commercial weaning foods are good for babies if only the prices are affordable. This also indicated a negative attitude by the respondents. However, only a few respondents' 54(10.8%) respondents strongly disagreed with the statement.

Majority of the respondents 465 (93%) strongly agreed that fruits could be given to babtes as soon as they are 6 months and above. 287(57.4%) respondents strongly agreed that vegetables are good for children while 139(27.8%) strongly disagreed. In relation to the last two statements above, the overall attitudinal level of the respondents was positive

Table 18: Distribution Of Respondents' Attitudes Towards Certain Weaning Practices

weaning practices	Strongly	%	Strongly disagree	%	Disagree	%	Undeenled	94
Eggs should not be given to a baby because it can him steal	42	8.4	397	79.4	49	9.8	12	2.
Only breast milk should be introduced to a baby before 6months of age	216	43.2	228	45.6	32	6.4	24	4
Locally available foods are equally good as   occssed foods for wearing diet	439	87.8	27	5.4	18	3.6	16	3
Fruits can be given to babies as soon as they are 6 months & above	465	93	12	3.4	7	1.4	11	2
Vegetables are not good for children	139	27.8	287	57.4	50	10	24	14
Commercial weaning foods	331	66.2	54	10.8	67	13.	48	

# General countrients of the respondents on weaning practices

Respondents were asked to comment generally about those weaning practices that are not good. 290(58%) identified poor hygienic preparation and handling of children foods as well as their feeding utensils. Other common responses given by the respondents included poor environmental condition of the house and mothers' dirty habit 103 (20.6%); Wrong timing of introduction of complementary foods and early termination of breast-feeding 47 (9.4%) see Table 19. When asked to offer suggestions as to what can be done to correct these bad weaning practices, the following responses were given. Maintenance of good hygienic preparation of children food 292 (58.4%); listening to the health workers advice 94 (18.8%), use of feeding bottles 23 (4.6%) See table 20.

Table 19: Bad weaning practices identified by the mothers

Bad weaning practices identified by the mothers	Frequency	%
Poor hygienic preparation / food handling and feeding utensils	290	58
Poor environmental condition and mothers dirty habit	103	20.6
Wrong timing of introduction of complimentary foods and carly termination of breast feeding	47	9.4
Giving unhealthy diet to children	32	6.4
No response/Don't know	28	5.6
TOTAL	500	100

Table 20: Mothers suggested solutions to bad weaning practices

Mothers suggested solutions to bad weaning practices	Frequency	%
Good hy gienic preparation of children foods	292	58.4
Making use of the health workers advice	94	18.8
Close monitoring of children especially during the	15	3
weaning period	02	1
Use of feeding bottle	23	4.6
Don't know	76	15.2
	500	100
TOTAL		

The nio popular wearing problems 320(6-1%) mothers claimed they encountered during this period were teething problems. These teething problems mentioned were frequent fever, diarrhea, vomiting, cough consupation and frequent crying. Also identified by the respondents 38 (7.6%) is lack of good knowledge of those easily affordable local wearing foods that can provide a wellness diet (Table 21)

Mothers were further asked for their suggested solutions to these weaning problems already mentioned The commonest suggestion mentioned were; taking the child to the clinics use of the prescribed drugs 208(41.6%). Only a few mothers mentioned counseling by the health workers about wearing foods 72(14.4%). Also, 130 (26%) suggested preparation of several dishes to give child room to select food of choice (Table 22).

Table 21: Wenning problems encountered by mothers

Weaning problems encountered by the mothers	Frequency	%
Teething problems usually accompanied by frequent fever, diarrhea, vomiting, cough, constipation, sleeplessness and frequent crying	320	64
Refusal of foods besides breast milk/ difficulty in knowing the appropriate time and how to introduce wearing foods	104	20.8
Lack of good knowledge of those easily affordable local weaning foods that can provide a wellness diet	38	7.6
Don't know	38	7.6
TOTAL	500	100

Table 22: Mothers' suggested solutions to the weaning problems they

Solutions suggested by the mothers	Frequency	%
Taking children to clinic and use of prescribed drugs	208	41.6
Preparation of several dishes such that the child can select food of choice	130	26
Taking to counseling done by the health workers on weaning foods	72	14.4
Buying of cooked foods from the food vendors to reduce the number of times mothers herself cook	20	4
No idea	70	14
TOTAL	500	100

#### TEST OF HYPOTHESIS

The following null hypotheses were tested by the study. There will be no association between the following:

Education of the mothers and the children's ages at introduction to weaning foods.

Occupation of the mothers and type of weaning foods first introduced to children

Mother's source of information and the children's ages at introduction to weaning foods

The confidence level is tested at 95 percent hence the null Hypothesis is rejected if P <0.05 in all the tests. And the null Hypothesis is accepted if P >0.05 in all the tests. Hypothesis I stated that there would be no significant association between the education of the mothers and, the children's ages at introduction to wearing foods. Table 23 shows that, there was a significant association between the mothers' education and the children's ages at introduction to wearing foods. This implies that the higher the educational level of the mothers, the more appropriate the age at introduction to wearing food will be

Table 23 Association between Mothers education and the children's ages at introduction to weaning foods

Age of the child (Months)	Low Edu	ication Gre	oup	High Education Group	Total
	No formal education	Primary	Secondary	Post-secondary school	
લ	26	73	19	28	146
4	8	D5	19	15	77
5	11	29	23	13	76
6	11	H3	HI	18	113
7	is	15	9	1	30
8	1	24	17	7	49
X	63	224	128	85	500

X2 (high education mothers) Smonths

X2 (low education mothers) = 4.6 months

P = 0.033

Hypothesis two stated that there would be no significant association between the ecupation of the mothers and the children's ages at introduction to weaning foods. Table 24 hows that there is no significant relationship between the mothers' occupation and the hildren's ages at introduction to weaning foods. This implies that the mothers' work does not affuence the age at which the child would be started on weaning foods

Table 24: Association between Mothers' occupation and the children's ages at introduction to weaning foods

age of	Housewife	Petty trading	Artisan	Civil servant	Self employed	TOTAL
be child		Group 2	Group 3	Group 4	Group 5	
monuts)	Group 1					
Before 4	9	103	24	8	2	146
	10	45	12	8	1	77
	7	49	10	8	2	76
5	9	60	25	17	2	113
	2	16	11	0	1	30
Above 7	3	29	11	16	0	49
No	0	8	1	0	0	9
response				4		
TOTAL	10	310	94	48	8	500

x<sup>2</sup> 4 586 P= 6 006932 Hypothesis 3 stated that there would be no significant association between the Occupation of the mothers and type of weaning foods first introduced to children. Table 25 showed that there is significant association between the occupation of mothers and the types of weaning foods based upon the differences perceived between the Civil servant occupational group and the other groups represented by the modal proportion (Petty traders). This implies that mothers' occupation does affect the types of weaning foods given to their children.

Table 25 Association between mothers occupation and type of weaning foods first introduced to children

Classification of	Housewife	Pelly	Artisan	Eivil	Self	TOTAL
loods given		trading		scivant	employed	
faize-based	26	217	66	12	<b>J</b> 5	326
cods						
Boiled fish/meat	2	28	13	12	p	55
Pap + Milk	B	15	5	6	2	βı
Commercial	8	49	10	17	L	85
weaning foods			<u> </u>	1	0	3
Fruits & vegetabl	H0	310	94	HB	8	500

 $X^2=48.55$  P=0.00

Hypothesis 4 stated that there would be no significant association between the mothers' sources of information and the children's ages at introduction to wearing foods Table 26 showed that there is no significant relationship between wearing practices as indicated by wearing age and sources of information obtained. This implies mothers' sources of information do not influence the children's ages at which wearing foods were introduced.

Table 26 Association between the mothers' sources of information and the children's ages at introduction to weaning foods

ge of the child	Parents Neighbors/friends	Clinics	Television/	TOTAL
	Group 1	Group 2	Radio	-12-0-
			Group 3	
t months	6	127	13	146
months	11	54	12	77
months	4	63	b	76
maths	5	93	15	113
	3	21	<u>k</u>	30
monte	3	HO	<u> </u>	<b>H</b> 9
7 months	2	#	B	B
no response		102	64	500
TOTAL	34			

X<sup>2</sup>=2.879

Degree of freedom = 487

P=0.4745

### CHAPTER FIVE

#### DISCUSSION

The results of the study are discussed under the following sub-headings:

## Demographic characteristics of the mothers

The lindings revealed that in Ibadan North West Local Government area, the mean age of the modiers interviewed was 26 years while that of their children was 5 months. The result attained in this study showed that there was a significant difference in the children's ages at which weaning foods were first introduced and education of the mothers (P = 0.033). Those mothers with higher education introduced weaning foods to their children at approximately 4.6 months of age while those mothers with lower education introduced foods to their children at 5 months of age. Based on this result, it can be implied that those mothers with higher education had introduced wearing foods earlier to their children than those mothers with lower education. This finding agreed with those studies done on (i) the weaning practices of the Hausas, Yoruba and Ibos in Nigeria (Uwaegbute 1999); and (ii) the Influence of mothers' education and occupation on breast- seeding and weaning children in Markurdi, Nigeria (Igbedioh 1994). Various reasons may be held accountable this practice. This problem of early introduction of weaning foods was more evident among the educated mothers who work a long hours outside home, which results in separation from their children for long periods especially after the completion of their maternity leave. Mothers with higher education level usually work away from home, hence the need to introduce supplements earlier. A literature also reported that mothers having a better education status tended to wear earlier, possibly due to their workload and time constraints, unlike the illiterate or lower educational status mothers who tended to wean much later (Kikafunda 2003). Sometimes, the effects of marketing breast-milk substitutes on breast- feeding decisions and duration can also be influenced by the education level of the mothers

In this study, sinding also revealed that, occupation of the mothers has no significant effect on the children ages at which weaning foods was introduced (P=0.069).

Contrarily, study done in Ethiopia indicated that mothers' occupation was significantly associated with early weaning, in which case, mothers working outside their home had 3.5 times higher chance of early weaning compared to housewives.

Furthermore, the findings in this study indicated that, a significant association existed between the types of weaning foods given to children and the mothers' occupation (P =0.000). This could be based on the perceived differences between the civil servant occupational group and the other groups represented by the modal proportion (petty trading). Many factors may be responsible for this result, even though, some mothers may be fully nware of the importance of breastfeeding for their children. they are limited to the extent on which they can practice exclusively breast-feeding on their children. Some mothers have to resume back at work after a short period of maternity leave. As a result of which they are lest with the option of introducing different types of weaning foods in an effort to make for this shortcoming. Some of the mothers tend to rely on commercial advertisements for baby formula and other weaning foods, which can be viewed on the national television as well as through influence from the clinic and even from their neighbours, Most time, mothers resulted to those wearing foods that are cost effective, convenient and less time consuming.

Breast-Feeding Practice

Out of the 500 mothers interviewed, 320 (64%) of the mothers were still breast-feeding their children while the remaining mothers 180(36%) had already stopped breast-feeding their children as at the time of this study. Early termination of breastfeeding before 12months was reported by a small proportion 11 (6.1%) of the mothers. On the other hand, a greater proportion of the mothers (93.9%) had breastfed their children for greater than 12 mothers. Less than 50% of the breastfeeding mothers had indicated their intention to breastfeed their children for as long as 24 months (35%). Furthermore, in this study, 127 (70.6%) mothers had already stopped breastfeeding because they felt that child is matured enough to be introduced to complementary foods as well as getting the child accustomed to cating other soods besides breast milk. Other reasons given were child refusal to suck breast milk 29 (16.1%); nature of the mother's job 9 (5%) and preparation to have another child, 15 (8.3%). Overall performance of the mothers in this result reflects an indication of poor weaning practices by the mothers, which deviates from World Health Organization current infant and child recommendation. However, the lindings in this study are similar to previous studies, which reported that, reasons given by the mothers for tennination of breastfeeding were variable depending on individual mother's circumstances. Some mothers remove their children from the breast because they felt that breast milk was not sufficient, or due to pregnancy or some because the child is old, mother's occupation, or mother's lliness or sudden death (Fawzia 2005). Mothers in Kuwait also gave similar reasons for terminating breast-feeding (Amine and Al-Awadi 1990). The important fact is that, adequate breastfeeding and supplementary feeding during the lirst two years of tife prevents malnumino and retardation in growth and mental development in the formative years.

### Age of Introduction of Weaning/ complementary food

Findings of this study indicated that a small proportion of the mothers 79 (15.8%) had started the weaning process at exactly 6 months whereas, 299 (59.8%) mothers started weaning process before months. Further findings in this study revealed that 338 (68.4%) respondents had introduced weaning foods because breast milk alone carnot satisfy their babics because they cry too often. Some mothers introduced foods in order to get the child accustomed to cating adult foods regardless of the age of the child. In order to fulfill the nutrational requirements of a rapidly growing child, addition of semi-solid foods are essential for the breast milk fed babies. This accounts for the recommendation made by World Health Organization about exclusive breastfeeding for the first 6 six months and, introduction of weaning foods thereafter. However, literature reported that most mothers in African setting rately breast fed their infants exclusively for a full 6 months Mothers usually give some water, juice, cow's milk; cereal etc in addition to breast milk (Kikafuda 2003). In a study done in Horin, Nigeria, 44.2% mothers commenced wearing by 3 months of age (Fagbule 2002). Similarly, another study done in Uganda reported that, negative waning practice of introducing complimentary foods too early was prevalent among half of the children mothers started the children on wearing foods as cariy as 3 month (Kiksfurds 2003). These above practices are obvious deviations from the WHO recommendation. The consequences of inappropriate wearing practices carry a lot of nake especially in developing countries. The age of introduction of complementary

foods to breast fed infants is a public health importance; too early initiating of weathing foods is a risk fuctor for both increased morbidity due to diarrhen and food allergies. because, external challenges are introduced into the immature digestive tract leading to infant malnutrition (Abidoye et al 2000).

Further findings in this study also showed that, majority of the mothers 326(65.2%) commenced the weaning process with maize- based foods only, amaja/eba soloo with only stew, boiled tice only llowever, pap was the most popular sood mentioned by the mothers. Pap or ogi is made from maize, millet, or guinea com. Even when the mothers were asked to recall the foods given in the last 24 hours, the food pattern rentained the same. Obviously, these energy based diet topped up the list of those foods items given by the mothers three times on a daily basis. This weaning food given by mothers in this study especially pap was barely fortified, few mothers (15%- 25%) included pap with milk in the diet given to their children. Some of the probable reasons may have been caused by lack of correct information about the appropriate weaning foods to give to children, influence from neighbors or supporting family members or even previous experience acquired from nursing older siblings, time and economic constraint to mention a few A previous study on effect and causes of Protein energy malnutrition in Nigerian children indicated that 62 % of the mothers of malnourished children gave only pap (a maize-gruel) to their children with salt or sugar added to taste. None used multi-mix feeds of locally available foodstuffs such as millet, groundnut, beniseed and soybeans (Nweze 1995) Literature also showed that traditional wearing foods in West Africa are known to be of low nutritive value (Akinrele et al 1977. Guiro et al 1997) that is characterized by low protein, low energy density, and high bulk. Maize pap or koko has been identified as one of the common causes of protein- energy malnutrition in children during the wearing period (Fashakin et al 1992. A study in Uganda showed that a very high proportion of the porridges were sed to the children with a thin consistency. However, the energy density of these watery portidges was very low and to compound the problem, the porridges were not adequately supplemented with energy- and nument supplements such as milk, groundnut and eggs (Mosha 1998:kikafunda 2003),

Another important study in this study showed that consumption of wearing

food groups that included legumes, animal product and even fruits and vegetables were

barely given by the mothers to their children. Cereals form the primary basis for most of the traditional weaning foods in West Africa. The protein content of maize and guinea com is of poor quality, low in lysine and tryptophan; these two minino acids are indispensable to the growth of the young child (Oyenuga 1978; Onliok et al 1992). Underwood (1995) also, reported that monotony of the diet might act synergistically with the consequences of repeated infectious morbidity, and result in chronically depressed appetite, limited acceptance of additional food in quantity and variety at the time when it becomes critical for meeting the nutitional needs of the growing infant.

Use of commercial weaning foods, known as a risk factor for infant malnutrition in the developing countries was found to be low in this study. This may be as a result of elforts by UNICEF to discourage the use of commercial weaning foods. Besides, the exorbitant prices of these commercial weaning foods could be beyond the linancial capacity of most mothers especially those of poor socio-economic status.,

Impressively, majority of the respondents claimed that the clinic was their source of information on the choice of wearing foods given to their children. Health professional play an active role by ensuring that not only are families well informed but also, that mothers receive appropriate help (Okolo 2002). This finding is consistent with a similar study done on the weaning proctices of mothers in llorin. Nigeria, which also reported that health workers played a key role by positively influencing the fortification of pap among the mothers (Fagbule 1992. Therefore, it becomes very important to reinforce the importance of attending the clinic such that reliable and more accurate information could be acquired from the trained health professionals

Respondents' level of knowledge about weaning foods and weaning practices.

To enable children to grow normally, there are many parental case giving behaviors related to food that are essential to ensuring adequate nutritional intake Therefore, to engage in any of the critical care giving behaviors, mothers need access to the foods their children require; access to water, fuel and other resources to prepare and preserve these foods. They also need knowledge. This study showed that mothers did not have a clear knowledge about those issues raised about their weaning practices such as weaning diet that can be given to children. Vegetables and finits are necessary primarily for the prevention of diseases and

deficiencies in the human body, however, assessment of the mother's knowledge in this study revealed that very sew mothers know about the importance of sruits and vegetable Out of the 500 mothers interviewed in this study, only 181(36.2%) bad a clear knowledge of the appropriate age when complementary foods can be commenced for children Also, the study found that knowledge was not matched with practice among respo dent who knowledgeable about their wearung practices. For instance, a greater number of the mothers in this study 301 (60 2%) mentioned legumes and animal products foods (which include milk, lish, meat beans and products) as those foods that could promote child growth and development. Whereas, mothers were hardly giving these foods items to their children in their actual weaning practices. Furthermore, majority of the respondents were knowledgeable regarding the aspects child development that can be affected by the quality of weaning adopted by the mother. Over ninety percent 496(99.2%) of the mothers 99.2%) mentioned retarded growth, low body resistance to diseases and untimely death. This disconnection between knowledge and practices need to be addressed by building a synergy between knowledge, resources available and child health.

# Respondents' attitudes towards certain weaning practices

397(79.4%) mothers interviewed in this study strongly disagreed with the statement, which stated that eggs should not be given to a baby because it can make him steal. This findings clearly showed that there has been some improvements in the attitudes of mothers towards this food taboos which is convary to the reports of the study done on nutritional Anzards of food taboas and preserences in Nigeria (Ogbeide 1994) Training and nutrition education of the mothers bas helped in improving the mothers feeding practices (Fetuga, Babatunde and Oyenuga 1993). However, it is pathetic to note that, a very low percentage of the mothers disagreed with this statement. This indicated this food taboos to some extent, still existed in Ibadan North-West local government areas and thus, warrants an immediate attention. Ogbeide in his study of the food taboos and food preferences in Nigeria wrote that lack of adequate protein intake could further be depleted by food prejudices or taboos which can adversely affect the health status of a population i e. cause protein-calorie malnutrition in children (Ogbeide 1994).

The attitude of the mothers in this study indicated that, a greater proportion of the respondents 228(45.6%) still strongly disagreed with the statement that breast milk alone should be introduced to infants for first 6 months of life. Even though, 216(43.2%) respondents strongly agreed, there is still more to be done in term of proper assessment of the health professional on their beliefs and attitude towards exclusive breast-feeding. Attitudes can be changed through persuasion. A message can appeal to an individual's cognitive evaluation to help change an attitude. Doctors and other health professional can be used to change the attitude of the mothers to exclusive breastfeeding

A greater proportion of the respondents 439(87.8%) strongly agreed that locally available foods are equally good as processed foods for avearing diet. A study done on the nutritive value of three potential complementary foods based on cereals and legumes in Jos. Nigeria reported that these cereals and legumes are readily available with high nutrient potentials that could complement one another if properly processed and blended. It further stated that efforts are being made to ascertain the nutritive adequacy of these locally available blends (cereals and legumes) are for possible use as complementary foods especially by the mothers during the aveaning period (Oduntona et al 1995; Fernandez et al 2002; Miriam 2005).

The result of the mother's attitude to the statement "commercial wearing foods are good for babies if only the prices are affordable" indicated that 331(66.2%) strongly agreed with this statement. This is very unfortunate, because some mothers are obviously unaware of the recent improvements on the traditional wearing diets in the country. Miriam (2005) reported that, local formulations compared favorably with the proprietary formula like Nestle Cerelae in terms of protein, fat, ash, fiber and energy contents, as formula like Nestle Cerelae in terms of protein and fat. When it comes to the well as recommended daily allowance (RDA) for protein and fat. When it comes to the question whether such local diets can be used to substitute the more expensive proprietary formula products, the researchers believe that complementary foods proprietary formula products, the researchers believe that complementary foods proprietary formula products, the researchers believe that complementary foods proprietary formulation and fortification, these local diets can provide natritious. Besides, proper reformulation and fortification, these local diets can provide natritious foods that are suitable not only for weaning, but also as rehabilitation diet to foods that are suitable not only for weaning.

# General comments of the respondents on weaning practices

The most popular comment by the mothers interviewed in this study did show that (290) 58% were able to identify those bad wearing practices as poor hygietic preparation and handling of children foods as well as their feeding utensils. Other important bad practices mentioned included poor environmental condition of the house and mothers' dirty habit; wrong timing of introduction of complementary foods/force/use of feeding bottles and early termination of breast-feeding. Furthermore, majority of the mothers attribited some symptoms (frequent fever, diarrhea, vomiting, cough constitution and frequent trying) as being a normal teething process. These symptoms are referred to as "teething problems" by those mothers interviewed in this study. This finding therefore calls for an educational intervention to assist the mothers to the link between poor wearing practices and the perceived teething problems.

A similar study done in Haiti on a group of women who had children age 6-24moths stated that women interviewed believed that the period of teething itself was associated with symptoms of diarrhea. Some of the participants also believed that teething diarrhea could occur when a nursing mother spent too much time in the sun and did not drink enough water before breast feeding her child (Purnima et al. 2003). However, it is very encouraging in the study finding that mothers seemed aware of the solution to these defective wearing problems mentioned. Taking the child to the clinics/ use of the prescribed drugs 208(41.6%) was the commonest suggestion mentioned. In a previous study done in Markudi, Nigeria it was also reported that mothers' decision to feed children with the appropriate diet was based on the hospital advice received from the health workers (lgbedioh et al. 1995).

#### CONCLUSION

The weaning foods were dominated by energy-based foods. Early weaning with watery, maize-based/root / tubers/starchy grains and poor staples was widespread in Ibadan North-west local government. Consumption of protein, fruit and vegetables were very low and these could have negative implications on the micronutrient nutrition of children in Ibadan North- West Local government. The results of this present study indicate that, improper weaning practices, particularly the tinning and consumption energy-based foods as weaning foods are prominent in this local government and thus, requires prompt interventions. Prompt interventions are needed to address these ongoing challenges. This is important in order to be able to reduce the high incidence rate of infection and childhood malnutration that are usually associated with poor weaning methods.

#### RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are as follows.

## Promotion Of Breast-Feeding And Good Weaning Practices Among Mothers

Mothers are to practice exclusive breast-feeding for 6 months, and introduce complementary foods at 6 months while continuing to breastfeed until 2 years or beyond. Mother's nutritional knowledge is a factor of malnutrition. Therefore, the training and nutrition education of the mothers is necessary to change feeding practices and provide correct information. It is recommended that mothers and caretakers of young children be sensitized on the unportance of proper nutrition to the growth and health of their children. They should be trained and equipped with childrene and feeding skills to enable them care out appropriate breast-feeding and weaning practices.

More emphasis on food consistency after 6 months is important. Gradual increase of food consistency and variety as the child gets older as well as adapting the wearing foods to the child's requirements and abilities. Reinforcement of the mothers' knowledge on adequate and good wearing foods and practices are very important such that positive changes in health and nutrition of the children could be manifested

Need to feed a child with a variety of foods to ensure daily nutrient intake is met. More legumes or animal products foods are recommended; meat, poultry, fish or eggs should be eaten daily as often as possible. Consumption of finit and vegetables is also recommended. There should be diversification of food items that are less expensive, nutritive as I there should be diversification of food items that are less expensive, nutritive as I convenient to give. Mothers need to be educated on food preparation from the commonly convenient to give. Mothers need to be educated on food preparation from the commonly available weating food items especially cost effective home—based complementary foods

More emphasis should be made on improvement of mothers' practices of good hygiene and proper food handling, which include (1) washing of mother and the child's hygiene and proper food handling, which include (1) washing of mother and the child's hand before food preparation and eating (2) good environmental conditions of the house hand before food preparation and eating (2) good environmental conditions of the house hand before food preparation and eating (2) good environmental conditions of the house hand its surroundings, (3) proper disposal of refuse and sewage, (4) using clean cups and bowls when feeding children and (5) avoid prepare and serve food, (4) using clean cups and bowls when feeding children and (5) avoid the use of feeting boules, which are difficult to keep clean.

## Nutrition education promotion

Nutrition education need to be incorporated into primary health care programs therefore the health workers and nutritionusts can play key roles in relaying the information especially, the importance of adequate wearing foods and practices, infant health, host defense systems, home -based fortified foods, importance of varying the child's diet and practicing good hygiene when handling and storing the baby's food

The development of recipe books of recipes (both in English and Yoruba) for weaning foods with high nutrient density using locally available foods is useful. When recipe books are available, they should be properly distributed to mothers. For those mothers with no or little formal education formal education, nutrition counseling and demonstrations are appropriate.

## Training of the Health Workers and Child Care takers

she is inexperienced or lack the knowledge or experienced support at home. It is therefore necessary for health professionals to play an active role by ensuring that not only are mothers well informed but also they are also able to receive appropriate help There is the need for properly trained and professionally supported specialists who can lead and educate students and practitioners in this subject and reinforce the already the existing standards practices in health care institutions.

Health workers are another group requiring nutrition education. Their own knowledge of nutrition and good feeding practices may be limited. This can be corrected by retraining such health staff on the weaning and weaning foods. Health workers in anternatal, post-natal clinics and those in the maternity and lying-in-wards must be periodically trained to update their knowledge on various weaning foods and weaning practices. Seminars and workshops could be organized by the government and non-government organization to ensure that workers are well informed about weaning period and complementary foods.

## Nutrition education promotion

Nutration education need to be incorporated into printary health care programs, therefore the health workers and nutrationists can play key rules in relaying the information especially, the importance of adequate wearing foods and practices, infinit health, host defense systems, home—based fortified foods, importance of varying the child diet and practicing good hygiene when handling and storing the boby's food

The development of recipe books of recipes (both in English and Yoruba) for wearing foods with high nutrient density using locally available foods is useful. When recipe books are available, they should be properly distributed to mothers I or those mothers with no or little formal education formal education, nutrition counseling and demonstrations are appropriate.

## Training of the Health Workers and Child Care takers

Health professional need to be able to help a mother to do it right, especially, when abe is inexperienced or lack the knowledge or experienced support at home. It is therefore necessary for health professionals to play an active role by ensuring that not only are mothers well informed but also they are also able to receive appropriate help. There is the need for properly trained and professionally supported specialists who can lead and educate suderus and practitioners in this subject and reinforce the already the existing standards practices to health care institutions.

Health workers are another group requiring nutrition education. Their own browledge of nutrition and good feeding practices may be limited. This can be corrected by remaining such health staff on the weating and weating foods. Health workers in antematic product climics and those in the nutrition and lying-in-wards must be periodically trained to update their trained to update their trained to produce their trained to the product of the potential and recognized by the potential and recognized and remaining period and manufactures are well informed about weating period and

### REFERENCES

- Abidoye R.O (2000): A Comparative Study Of The Weaning Practices And Growth Pattern In 3-24 Month Old Infants Fed Formula And Food In NITEL Health Centres And PHC'S Of Mushin Local Government Area Of Lagos, Nigeria Vol 20. No 10 pp 1377-1387.
- ACC/SCN (1992): Nigeria: Report on the nutrition situation. Geneva: United Nations
  Administrative Committee on Coordination / Sub-committee on nutrition.
- Adac U (1990): Weaning Practices And Weaning Foods Of The Hausas, Yoruba, And Ibos Of Nigeria, Ecology Of Food And Nutrition. 26:139-153
- Agostoni; M.D. Enrica Riva, M.D.; and Marcello Giovanninu M.D. (1995): Dictary liber in weaning foods of young children. In: Pediatrics 96 1002-1005
- Agrepong E, Valle A, (1991):Improvement of weaning practices for the future. Bulletin of Noguchi Memorial Institute for Medical Research 4:82-92
- Aikluionbare H.A. Yakubu A.M. Naida A.M (1999): Mortality Pattern In The Emergency
  Paediatries Unit Of Ahmadu Bello University Teaching Hospital, Zaria, Nigeria.
  The Central African Journal Of Medicine 35 (5) 393-396.
- Ajenifuja B. (1987): Weaning Proctices In Developing Countries Weaning Why, What, And When? New York: Raven Press, Ballabriga A. Rey J. Edition 205-210.
- Akuse R.M.; And Obinya E.A (2002): Why Healthcure Workers Give Prelacteal Feeds.

  European Journal Of Clinical Nutrition, 56, 729-734

- Akinrele I.A. Baseir O. (1977): Nutritional Value Of "Ogi". A Nigeria Infant Food.

  Journal Trop Med Hyg. 70: 279-81.
- Akinnele TO, Omotola BO (1986): Energy and protein intake of Infants and children from the low-income group of Ibadan. Nutr. Res. 26 129-37
- Almendon A (1990): Infant Feeding In Urban Low- Income Households In Ethiopia: The Weaning Process Ecol Food And Nut. 25 (2)): 97-109.
- Almendon A.M (1991): Infant I ceding In Urban Low-Income Households in Ethiopia. In:
  The Weaning Process. Ecol. Food Nut. 25 (2)). 97-101.
- Amine 1 K; Al-Awadi F (1990) Impact Of Mother's Education On Infant Feeding Patterns
  And Weaning Practices In Kuwait. Ecology. Food And Nutrition 24 29-36.
- Arega W Gabriel (2000) Determinants of wearing Practices. Ethiop J. Health Dev 14(2): 183-189.
- Arita K, Singh R.S, Tolwar S.K, Rasania J. Badhan S.R, and M.Mehra (2003): A Study Of Malnutration Among Children Aged 6 Months To 2 Years I from A Resettlement Colony Of Delha Indian Pediatric Journal. 57: 286-9
- Arinze P.C. (1984): The Pattern Of Weaning In Different Socio Economic Groups In Nsukka, Bachelor Science Degree Thesis, and University Of Nigeria Nsukka.
- Amstrong. 11: (1993): Breast Feed First Or Give Soft Foods First. A Review Of Current Recommendations. Discussion Paper Prepared By The Training Coordinators Baby I tendly Hospital Initiative UNICEF New York. July: Pg 1-5.
- Bentley Pelto (2003): The Household Production Of Nutrition. Social Science And dicine.33: 1101-1102.

- Bentley, M.E., Dickin, K.L., Mebrahtu, S., Kayode, B., Oni, G.A., Verzosa, C.C., Brown, KHAN Idowu, J. R (2003): Development Of A Nutritionally Adequate And Culturally Appropriate Wearing Food In Kwara State, Nigeria: An Interdisciplinary Approach Social Science And Medicine, 33, 1103-1112.
- Black M M. Siegel E H. Abel Y. Bentley M.E (2001): Home And Videotape Intervention

  Delays Early Complementary Feeding Among Adolescent Mothers Pediatrics May,

  107(5): E67.
- Blomquist H. K. Jonsbo F, Persson L.A (1994): Supplement Feeding In The Maternity Ward Shortens The Duration Of Breastfeeding. Acta Paedint 83, 122-1126. MEDLINE.
- Brakohrop: L.A., Yartey J., Bille A., Harrison E., Quansah M.A., Kishi K. and S. Yamamoto (1998). Does Prolonged Breast Feeding Adversely Affect A Child's Nutrition Status. Lancet 2 (8608): 416-418.
- Biea Bon Dianne R. Fernandez Dorothy J. Vanderjagt, Margaret Williams, and Robert II.

  G w (200-1): Fatty acid, amino acid and trace mineral analysis of three
  complementary foods from Jos. Nigeria. Journal of food composition and analysis
  11 675-690.
- Briend A. Deannon N. Ferguson E, and G Erhhardt (2003), Linear Programming: A Mathematical Tool For Analysing And Optimising Children's Diets During The Complementary Feeding Period. J. Pediatric Gastr. Ent. And Nutr. 36: 12-22.
- Brown K 11 [1991] The importance of dietary quality versus quantity for weaning in less developed countries: a framework for discussion. Food and Nutrition Bulletin June, 1/01/13 (2): 86-93

- developing countries: a review of current scientific knowledge. World Health Organization, Geneva, WHO/ NUT/ 98.
- Brown L.V. Zeitlin, M.F., Peterson, K.E., Chowethurg, A., M.R. and Rogeao B.L. (1992):

  Evaluation of the impact of weating food messages on infant feeding practices and child growth in rural Bangladesh. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 56:994-1003
- Brown K. H. Dewey K. G and L. H. Allen (1998) Complimentary Feeding Of Young Children
  In Developing Countries: A Review Current Scientific Knowledge World Health
  Organization (WHO), Geneva.
- Brownice A [1990] Growth monitoring and promotion the behavioural issues. Monograph
  No. 6, Behavioural issues in child survival programs. California International
  Health and Development Associates.
- Bryan F.L. (1992). Hazard Analysis Critical Control Point Evaluation. A Guide To Identifying Hazards And Assessing Risks Associated With Food Preparation And Storage, WHO. Geneva.
- Coldwell J.C (1986). Education As A Factor In Mortality Decline, An Examination Of Nigeria Data Population Study, pp395-413
- Cameron, M and Hofvander Yngre, (1984) Manual On Feeding Infants And Young Children 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. United Nations New York, Pp 21, 105-110.
- Carlson B.A., Wardlaw T.M (1990): A global regional and country assessment of child malnutrition. UNICEF Staff Working Papers, No. 7.

- Creed de Knnashiro H (1990): Consumption of food and nutrients by infants in Huascar (Lima) Pent, American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 52, 995-1001.
- Cohen R.J., Brown K. H., Canahauti J., rivera L., Devey K.G (1994): Effects Of Age Of Introduction Of Complementary Foods On Infant Breast Milk Intake, Total Energy Intake And Growth: A Randomized Intervention Study In Honduras The Lancet, 344: 288-293.
- Costellor A (1993) Prenatal Health In Developing Countries. See Trop. M. Hyg. Pp 87: 1-2.
- Costello, C; Ataloh, E; Riumollo; J and Castro, R, (1996). Breast feeding and the nutritional status of Nursing children in Chile. Bulletin of PolHO, 30(2), 125-132 In. Breast-feeding paper of the month (Dec).
- Chandrashckhar T.S, Josiui H.S, Binu V, Shankar P.R, Rona M.S, Ramachandra U

  (2007) Breast-Feeding Initiation And Determinants Of Exclusive Breast-FeedingQuestionnaire Survey In An Urban Population Of Western Nepal Public Health

  Nutr 10 (2), 192 -7
- Cherian A (1981) Attutudes And Practices Of Infant Feeding In Zwin. Ecol Food Nutr 11:
- Cohen; R.J., Brown, K.H., Canahuati, J., Rivere; L.L. And Dewey, K.G. (1994): Effects Of Age Of Introduction Of Complementary Foods On Infant Breast Milk Intake, Total Energy Intake And Growth: A Randomized Intervention Study In Honduras.

  Lancet Vol 344 (8918). 288-293
- Cunningham A.S., Jellife D.B., Jellife E.B (1991) Breast-Feeding In The 1980s: A Global Epidemiological Review. J. Pediattic. 118: 569-666 MEDLINE

- Das D.K. Talukder M Q, Sella G.E (1992) Infant Feeding Practices In Rural Bangladesh.
  Indian J Pediatr. Sep-Oct; 59 (5), 573-7
- Daviz, J.R and Daviz, I.L. (1997): Evaluation Research Proposals In The Behavioral
  Science Teachers College Press. New York Pg. 26-28
- Davics- Adetugbo A. A (1997): Socio-Cultural Factors And The Promotion Of Exclusive
  Breast-Feeding In Rural Yoruba Communities Of Osun State, Nigeria. Soc. Sci.
  Med 45: 113-125. Medline
- Dewey, K.G. and K. 11 Brown (2003) Update on technical issues concerning complementary feeding of young children in developing countries and implications for intervention programs. Food and Nutrition Bulletin 24 (1):5-28
- Demasyer E.M (1996): Protein- Energy Malnutrition. In Nutrition to Preventive Medicine (Beaton. G.H., Bengoa J.M., Eds.) Geneva. Who. Monograph 62 23-54.
- Denuyler K.A. (1986) Infant Feeding Lu Mali. West African Variations In Belief And Practice Social Science And Medicine 23(7), 651-663.
- Detruyler K.A. Strumt- Macadadam P. (1995): Breast Feeding: Biocultural Perspectives
  | lawthorne, Ny. Alding De Gruyter.
- Dielogue On Duarrhea (1994): The International Newsletter On The Control Of Diarrhea

  Diseases Issue, No. 56 March-May Pg 2-3,
- Dewry, K.G. Poerson, J.M.: Heisting, M.J.; Brown, K.H.; Black R.C.; (1993): Growth

  Patterns Of Breast-Fed Infants in Affluent (United States) And Poor (Peru)

  Communities: haplications For Timing Of Complementary Feeding: In: Breast

  Feeding Paper Of The Morah (November)

- Dulger, H.M Arik and M.R Sekeroglu (2002): Pro- Ullanumatory Cytokines In Turkish Children With Protein Energy Malnutrition Mediators Inflamm, 11: 363-365.
- Ebrahim G.J. (1991): Nutrition And Its Disorders. In Pediatric Practice in Developing Countries. Macmillan, London 17-22
- Practices In Urban And Rural Communities Of The Sudan. Tropical Geogr. Med 46 (5): 309-12.
- Ehiri E. John. Azubuike C. Marcel, Collins N., Ubbaonu, Ebere C. Anyanwu, Kesimir M. Ibe and Michael O. Ogbonna (2001): Critical control points of complementary food preparation and handling in Eastern, Nigeria. Bull World of the Health Organ vol. 79 no. 5 Geneva.
- Fagbule D.O, Olaosebikan A (2002): Wearing Processes In Ilorin Community, Nigeria.

  West Afr J. Med, Apr Jun; 11 (2): 92-9
- Fagbule D (1999): Malnutrition-A Reappraisal Of The Major Predisposing Factors Nigeria.

  Journal Of Pediatrics 17: 7-13
- Fagbule D.O. Olnosebikan A (1992): Weaning Practices In Horin Community, Nigeria.
  West Afr J. Med, Apr Jun; 11 (2): 92-9
- FAO/WHO/UNU (1985): Expert Consultation. Energy And Protein Requirement Series.724, 113-130.
- FAO/WHO (1998) Preparation And Use Of Food. Based Dietary Guidelines Report Of A Joint FAO/WHO Consultation. WHO Technical Report Series 880. Geneva

- Fauzia A. Al-Awadi and Ezzat k. Amine (2005): Recent trends in infants' patterns and weaning practices in Kuwait. Eastern Mediterranean health Journal Vol 3, issue 3, pp 501 510.
- Fashakin J.B. Ogunsola F (1992): The utilization of local foods in fermentation of wearing foods. Trop Pacdiatr 28: 93-6.
- Federal Ministry of Health (1990); National Breast-feeding Policy 1-2, Natrobi: Federal Government of Nigeria.
- FGN/UNICEF. (1994): The Nutritional Status Of Women And Children in Nigeria. Pg 10: 37-40
- Fomon S.J., Ziegler, E.C., Nelson, S.C.; and Edward, B.B. (1983): Sweetness of diet and food consumption by Infants. Proc Soc. Exp. Biol Med. 173: 190-93
- Fomon SJ (1979) Recommendation for feeding normal infants, Pediatrics 63:53
- Fox M K; Reidy K, Novak T, Ziegler P (2006): Sources of energy and nutrients in the diets of infants and toddlers. J. Am. Diet Assoc 106 (1 suppl 1): S28-42.
- Fetuga B.L.; Babatunde G; Oyenuga V.A (1993) Protein Quality Of Some Nigerian
  Foodstuffs. Chemical Assay Of Nutrients And Amino Acid Composition. J. Sci Food
  Agric 24-1505
- Ferdinaz D.E. Vandeijgt D.J. Williams M. Huarg Y S. Chung Lutte, Milson M. and Andrew R. Pastuszyn A and R.H Glew (2002). Fatty acids, amino acids and trace mineral R. Pastuszyn A and R.H Glew (2002). Nigeria. Plants foods for Human Nutrition analyses of five wearning foods from Jos. Nigeria. Plants foods for Human Nutrition 57: 257-274.

- FMOH and USAID (1990): Federal Ministry Of Health And United Agency For International Development. Nigeria Demographic And Health Survey. Nigeria
- Gibbons G (1984) Long-Terrn Consequences Of Early Childhood Malnutrition. Discussion Papers ( December )
- Genera World Federation Of Public Health Association.
- Green W Lawrence and Kreuter W Marshall (1999) Health Promotion Planning, Att Educational and Ecological Approach. 3rd Edition, Mayfield
- Guiffiths M. (1993): Comprehensive Strategy Francwork For Improving Young Child Feeding. Washington, D.C. The Manoss Group.
- Green, L. W. (1980). Health Education Planning: A diagnostic approach. California, Maylield Publishing Company
- Guildan: G.S. Zhang M.Y. Zhang Y.P.; Hong J.R.; Zhang X.X and Fu. S.Y. (1994) Growth in Rural Sichuan Infants: A positive Deviance study. Breast-feeding paper of the month November.
- Guildan, G.S. Zhang M.: Zhang Y.; Hong J; Zhang H, and Fu. S.N. (1994): Weaning
  Practices And Growth In Rural Sichuan Infants: A Positive Deviance Study J. Trop
  Practices And Growth In Rural Sichuan Infants: A Positive Deviance Study J. Trop
  Practices And Growth In Rural Sichuan Infants: A Positive Deviance Study J. Trop
- Guiro A. T., Sail M.G., Kane O., Ndiaye A. M. and Diaro D (1997): Protein-calorie malnutrition in Senegalese children, Effects of rehabilitation with a pearl millet weaning food. Nutr Rep Int 36: 1071-9
- Gray S.J. (1994): Comparison Of Effects Of Breastfeeding Practices On Bitth Spacing In

  Three Societies" Normadic Turkana, Gainj And Quechua J Biosocial Sci. 26, 69-90.

- Harper, J.M.; and Tribelhorn, R.E. (1985): Companson Of Relative Energy Cost Of Village Prepared And Central Processed Weating Foods. Food Nutri. Bull. 7(4): 34-60
- Hawdon J.M. Platt M.P. Aynsley Green A. (1993): Neonatal hypoglycemia blood glucose monitoring and baby feeding, Midwifery: 3.6, MEDLINE.
- Harrison G; Zaghloul S; Galal O, (1993) Breast-feeding and wearing in a poor urban neighborhood in Cairo, Egypt: Marenal Beliefs and Perceptions. Social Science and Medicine. 36:1063-1069.
- Hansen, M., Birthe Pedersen; Lars Munck, And Bjorn O Eggum (1989): Weating Foods
  With Improved Energy And Nutrient Density Prepared From Germinated Cereals
  Preparation And Dietary Bulk Of Gruels Based On Barley. In: Food And Nutrition
  Bulletin Vol. 11 No. 2
- Heird W.C (2004): Nutritional Requirements. In: Behrman R.E, Kliegman R.M, Jenson H.B. Nelson Textbook Of Pediatrics. 17th Ed Philadelphia: Saunders 153-7.
- Hendrickse R.G (1994): The influence of allatoxins on child health in the tropics with particular reference to kwashiorkor. Trans. Roy. Soc. Trop. Med. Hyg 78: 427-435
- Heywood, P (1982). The Functional Significance Of Malnutrition: Growth And Perspective Risk Of Death In The Highlands Of Papua New Guinca. J. Food Nutr. 39: 13-19.
- Hoarse K. (1994): Tackling Infant Malnutrition In The Gambia. In Health Visitor 67(3)
- Hossain M.i. Yasmin R. Karbir I. (1999); Nutritional And Immunization Status, Weaning Practices And Socioeconomic Conditions Of Under Five Children In Three Villages Of Bangladesh Indian J Public Health; 43: 37.41.

- Huffman S.L, Chowdhury A. K. M; Chekraborty J; and N. K. Simpson, (1994) Breast Feeding Patterns and Weaning Processes In Developing Countries. Am. J. Clin. Nutr. 33: 144
- Hussan A.M.; Rasiguzzaman M. (1994): Determinants Of Weaning Age In Rural Bangladesh In: Social Biology 41(1-2): 78-83 Spring-Summer.
- Igbedioh S.O, Edache A, Kaka H.J (1995): Infant Weaning Practices Of Some Idoma Women In Makurdi, Nigeria Nuir Health 10 (3): 239-53
- Ighedioh S.O.; (1994) Influence Of Mother's Occupation And Education On Breast-Feeding And Weatung In Infants And Children In Makurdi, Nigeria In: Nutrition And Health 9(4): 289-302
- lgbedioh S.O., Ogbeni A.O., Adole G.M. (1996): Infant Weaning Practices Of Some Tiv Women, Makurdi, Nigeria. Nutr. Health 11: 13-28.
- Ighogboja S.1 (1992): Some Factors Contributing To Protein- Energy Maloutrition In The Middle Belt Of Nigeria. East African Medical Journal 69 (10): 566-571
- Ighogboja I. S. Odumodu C.U. Olancwoju R.S (1996): Breast feeding pattern in Jos.
  Nigeria J Trop Pediatr 42: 178-9
- Jansen, G.R., (2002): Centrally Processed Weaning Foods For The Use In Developing Countries, Food Reviews International 307-347.
- Joshi HS (1994): Breast-Feeding And Determinants Of Exclusive Breast-Feeding Public Health Nutr 10 (192-7).
- Kapril U and A. Bhavno (2002) Adverse effects of poor micronutrient status during childhood and adolescence, Nutr. Rev., 60(S Pt 2); S 84-90.

- Kazimi L. J. and Kazimi H.R. (2001): Infant Feeding Practices Of The Igbo. Ecol Food Nutr 12: 88-95.
- Kazimi J, and Kazimi H. (1979): Infant Feeding Practices Of The Igbo.
  Ecol Food Nutr 8: 111-6.
- Kakitahi J.T and (1981): Child Weaning In Uganda, In: Jga Hautvast And T.N Maletnlema (Eds). Practical Considerations For Child Feeding In East, Central And Southern African Countries. Netherlands International Institute, The Netherlands.
- Ketiku A, and Ayoku S. (1984): Nutritional Studies Of A Nigerian Multi-Mix Westing Food Apapa Multi-Mix. Nigeria J Nutr Sci 5: 39.45.
- King J, and Ashworth A. 1987): Changes In Infant Feeding Practices In Nigeria: A
  Historical Review Occasional Paper No. 9. London: Center For Human Nutrition,
  London School Of Hygiene And Tropical Medicine
- King J. Nnanyclugo D.O. and Enc-Obong H.N. Ngoddy P.O (1985): House Consumption Profile Of Cowpea (Vigna Unguiculata) Among Low Income Families Of Nigeria. Ecol Food Nutr 16: 209-21.
- Kikafunda. J.K. (2003) Wearing Foods And Practices In Cenual Uganda: A Crossectional Study Africa Journal Of Food, Agriculture, Nutrition And Development.

  Vol 3, No 2
- Kikafunda J.K., Walker A.F. And Tumwine (2003): Weaning Foods And Practices In Central Uganda: A Crossectional Study Africa Journal Of Food, Agriculture, Nutrition And Development Vol 3, No 2
- Kikafunda J.K. Walker A.F., Collet D. And J.K. Tumwine (1998): Risk Factors For Early

  Childhood Malnutrition In Uganda Pediatric, 102 (4) 45-54.

- Kleinnian, Ronald, E. (2004): Pediatric Nutrition Handbook 5th Edition. American Academy Of Pediatrics, Pages 103-105.
- From Sorghum And Oil-Seeds Pakistan Journal Of Nutrition 5 (3) 257-260.
- Edition By Mosby, Inc., Page 335-341.
- in: Food Agriculture Organization 9 pg 17, 19
- Lavrijsen G. Jansen A. A (2003): Child feeding survey at Kimalewa center. Kenya Nurs J.

  11 (1): 34-7.
- Breastfeeding and weaning practices in sural Mexico. Nutr health 9 (4): 255-63.
- Livingstone A.S. Feng J.J and G.N. Malleshi (1993): Development and nutritious wearing foods on malted, popped and roller dried wheat. Techno, 28:35-43
- Marguret C. Hor france Y (2000): Wearing and wearing foods. Manual on Feeding Infants and Young Children. New York: Oxford University Press 110-116.
- Maletnlema, T.N (1992): Hunger and malnutrition: the determinant of development: the case for Africa and its food and nutrition workers. East Afr. Med. J., 69: 424-427.
- Mahalanabis D. (1991): Breast feeding and Vitamin A deficiency among children attending a diarrhea treatment center in Bangladesh: a case-control study. British Medical Journal 303:493-496.

- Mata. L.J. Umita, J.J. and Lectig, A, (1994): Infection and Nutrition of children of a low socio-economic raral community Am.J. Clin Nutr. 24, 249
- Maher V (1992): The Anthropology Of Breast Feeding; Natural Law Or Social Cooract.

  Oxford, U.K.: Cross-Cultural Perspectives On Women.
- Martorelli R. Khan L.K; Gnunmer- Strawn L (1998): Obesity In Latin American Women And Children. The Journal Of Nutrition 128: 1464
- Marlin D.W., Picciano M.F., Livant E.C (1980); Infant-feeding Practices. Dec; 77(6):668-76
- Martorell R: K (1995). Acute Morbidity And Physical Growth In Rural Guatemalan Children American Journal Of Diseases Of Children 129, 1296-1301.
- Mwadine, R.K.N., Muita, J.W.G.; Omwega A.M. and Havemann, K. (1995). Dietary

  Considerations In Designing Nutrition Intervention Programmes In Rural Areas Of

  Kenya. In East African Medical Journal July Vol. 72 (No. 7) 442-8
- Miniam S (2005): Nutritive Value Of Three Potential Complementary Foods Based On Cereals And Legumes African Journal Of Food, Agriculture, Nutrition And Development. Vol 1.No 2
- Mitzner, Karen; Sertmshaur, Nevin, and Morgan; Robert (1997): Improving the nutritional status of children during the weaning period. A manual for policy makers, program planners and field worker pg. 1 7, 33, 27
- Motarjemi Y, Kanserstein F, Moy G, and Quevedo F; (1993): Contaminated wearing soods:

  A major risk sactor for diarrhea and associated malnutrition. In: Bulletin of the

  World Health Organization 71(11) 79-92
- Mosha A C and U Syanberg (1998): Preparation Of Weaning Foods With High Nutrient Density Using Flour Of Germinated Cereals. Food Nutr. Bull. 5 (2): 10-14.

- Lalude L.O. And Fashakin J.B (2006): Development And Nutritional Of A Wesning Food
  From Sorghum And Oil-Seeds Pakistan Journal Of Nutrition 5 (3): 257-260.
- Lawrence, Ruth A (1999): Breastfeeding A Guide For The Medical Professional, 5th Edition By Mosby, Inc., Page 335-341.
- In: Food Agriculture Organization 9 pg 17, 19.
- Lavrijsen G, Jansen A. A (2003): Child feeding survey at Kimalewa center, Kenya Nurs J. 11 (1): 34-7.
- Lipsky S, Stephenson P A, Koepsell T.D, Gloyd S.S, Lopez J.L, Bain C.E (2004):
  Breastseeding and weaning practices in rural Mexico Nur bealth 9 (4): 255-63
- Livingstone A.S. Feng J.J and G.N. Malleshi (1993): Development and nutritious wearing foods on malled, popped and roller dried wheat Techno, 28 35-43
- Margaret C. Hovfwander Y (2000): Weaning and weaning foods. Manual on Feeding Infants and Young Children, New York: Oxford University Press 110-116.
- Maleinlema, TN (1992); Hunger and malnutrition; the determinant of development; the case for Africa and its food and nutrition workers. East Afr. Med. J., 69: 424-427.
- Mahalanabis D. (1991): Breast feeding and Vitnmin A deliciency among children attending a diarrhea treatment center in Bangladesh; a case-control study. British Medical Journal 303:493-496

- Mara I.J. Urnitia, J.J. and Lectig, A; (1994): Infection and Nutrition of children of a low socio-economic rural community. Am J. Clin. Nutr. 24, 249
- Maher V (1992): The Anthropology Of Breast Feeding: Natural Law Or Social Contract.

  Oxford, U.K.: Cross-Cultural Perspectives On Women.
- Matorelli R; Khan L.K; Grunumer-Strawn L (1998): Obesity In Latin American Women And Children. The Journal Of Nutrition 128: 1464
- Marlin D.W., Picciano M.F. Livant E.C (1980): Infant-feeding Practices. Dec; 77(6):668-76.
- Manorell R. K (1995): Acute Morbidity And Physical Growth In Rural Gusternalan Children American Journal Of Diseases Of Children 129, 1296-1301.
- Mwadine, R.K.N., Muita. J.W.G.; Omwega A.M. and Havemann, K. (1995). Dietary

  Considerations In Designing Nutrition Intervention Programmes In Rural Areas Of

  Kenya In: East African Medical Journal July, Vol. 72 (No. 7) 442-8.
- Minum S (2005): Nutritive Value Of Three Potential Complementary Foods Based On Cereals And Legumes African Journal Of Food, Agriculture, Nutrition And Development. Vol 1, No 2
- Mitzner, Karen: Scrimshaur, Nevian and Morgan: Robert (1997): Improving the nutritional status of children during the weaning period. A manual for policy makers, program planuers and field worker pg. 1 7, 33, 27.
- Motarjemi Y; Kanferstein F: Moy G, and Quevedo F; (1993): Contaminated wearing foods:

  A major risk factor for diarrhea and associated malnutrition. In: Bulletin of the

  World Health Organization 71(11) 79-92
- Mosha A.C. and U Svarberg (1998); Preparation Of Weaning Foods With High Nutrient Density Using Flour Of Germinated Cereals, Food Nutr. Bull 5 (2): 10-14.

- Naissmith D.J (1973). Kwashiotkor in Western Nigeria: A Study Of Traditional Weaning Foods With Respect To Energy And Linoleic Acid Br J Nur 80: 567-76.
- National Institute of Nutrition acceptability trials of ready-to-cat annual report (1992)

  National Institute of Nutrition. 1-13.
- NCHS National Center For health statistics (1977). NCHS growth curves for children birth

   18 years. Publication No. (PHS) 78-1650, Rockville Maryland; US Department of

  Health, Education and Welfare, Nutrition. In: Hancef S.M., Maqbool S., Alif M.A.

  (2004) Textbook of Pediatrics. Pak Pediatr Assoc. 129-37
- Nigerian Nutrition Network (NNN) (2000): Communiqué and papers presented distributed at the 1st Annual NNN Meeting, Abeokuta, 12-13 Dec 2000
- Nweze Nnakwe (1995): The Effect And Causes Of Protein- Energy Malnutrition in Nigeria Children Nutration research, Vol 15, No 6, pp 785-794.
- Odebiyi A (1989): Food Taboos in Maternal and Child Health: The views of gaditional Healers in Ile Ife. Nigeria. Social science and medicine 28 985-996.
- Odebode T.O. and Odebode S.O. (2005) Protein Energy Malnutrition And The Nervous

  System: The Impact Of Socioeconomic Condition, Weaning Practice, Infection And
  Food Intake, An Experience In Nigeria Pakistan+ Journal Of Nutrition 4 (5): 304
  309
- Odumodu C.U.; Ighogboja I.S.; Okuonghae H.O; (1994). Performance of children on wearing foods in Jos. Nigeria. In: East African Medical Journal. 71(3): 155-8
- Ofuya, Z.M; Iwuji S.C (2002): The Growth Pattern Of Infants (0-12 Months) In A Rural Area Of Rivers State, Nigeria Journal Of Applied Sciences And Environmental Management, Vol. 6, Num 2, Pp 67-70.

- Ogleide 0, (1994) Numitional Hazards Of Food Taboos And Prefences In Nigeria. The American Journal of Clinical Numition 27 pp. 213-216
- Osbora C. Ökolo S., Eziogu A (2000): Factors influencing exclusive breast-feeding in Jos.
  Platenu, and State, Nigeria West Afr J Med., 107.
- Onc. 5.N. Adewunmi Y.B., Okonji M.C (2002): The Current Breast-Feeding Knowledge, Attitude And Practices Of Mothers In Five Rural Communities In The Savarnah Region Of Nigeria. J. Trop. Pediatr. 45: 323-326
- Citalo S.N and Ogbona C (2002): Knowledge, Attitude And Proctice Of Health Workers In Keth Local Government Hospitals Regarding Baby-Friendly Hospital Initiative (BFHI) Practices. European Journal Of Clinical Nutrition Vol 56, Number 326-337
- Otangbowa (1996). Nigerian Weaning Diets. Federal Nutrition Division, Federal Ministry
  Of Health Lagos.
- Giofennu E.O.; Abiose 5; (1996): Prevention of Nutrient loss during preparation of the most popular wearing diet in Nigeria-Practical Considerations. In Nutrition and Health 11(2): 127-32
- Gueram E.O. S. Abiose and K.T. Ijadunola (2001) Modification and improvement of number of quality of company "Ogi" with cowpen and groundnut milk. Nutr. Health, 15. 47-53.
- E.O. LEleghe, M.K. Jinadu And C.A Oladipo, (1984) Factors Affecting Delayed
  Walking Skill in Malnounshed Children. And Child Abused in Nigeria., 8:369-372
- E.O. (1982) Causes Of Protein-Fresty Malnutrition As Viewed By The Clients
  Wither J Trop Pacdiett 11:234-236

- Ojoseitinii E.O. Olaogun A.A. Osokoya, And Owolabi S.P. (1999): Infant Feeding Practices In A Deprived Invironment: A Concern For Early Introduction Of Water And Glucose D Water To Neopales. Nut. Health 13 (1): 11-21.
- Ogunlesi, Tinuke A. Olabisi O.F, Dedeke, John A.O. Okeniyi, Gabriel A. (2005): Feeding Practices In The Baby Friendly Initiative (BFI) Rea In Ilesa, Nigeria. The Nutrition And Wellness, Vol 1 Number 2
- Oguntona E.B And I.O. Akinyele (1995): Nutrient Composition Of Commonly Eaten Foods In Nigeria -, Processed And Prepared. Food Basket Foundation Series.
- Olfat A: Darwish, Ezzot K. Amine, And Ahmed F. El-Sherbiny (2005): Health, Hunger And Society. Weaning Practices In Urban And Rural Egypt. High Institute Of Public Health, Alexandria University, Alexandria Egypt.
- Okeke E.C. Okafor U.S. (1989): Current Breast-Feeding And Wesning Practices In Anambra State, Nigeria. J Nutr Sci 10: 21-3.
- Onofiok NO And Nnanyelugo (1992): Weaning Foods In West Africa: Nutritional Problems And Possible Solutions. Occasional Paper. Nsukka: Department Of Home Science And Nutrition At The University Of Nigerla In Nsukka, Nigeria.
- Osuhor P C (1990): Weaning Practices Among The Hausas. Journal Of Human Nutrition
  273-280
- Onthor P.C (1986): Wearing Practices In Kaduna, Northern Nigeria. Indian J Public Health Jul-Sep; 30 (3): 138-44
- Ornuga V.A (1978); Nigeria's Foods And Feeding Stuffs: Their Chemistry And Nutritive Value, Ibadan; University Press.

- PAISO W110 (Pan American Health Organization) World Health Organization) 2003.

  Coulding principles for complementary feeding of the breasfed child. Washington,
- pipes P 1 And C M Trahm (1993): Nutrition In Infancy And Childhood, 5th Ed. Mosby
  1 ublishing Co., London.
- Plahar, W. A. And N.T. Hoyle (1991): Estimated Protein Quality Of Weaning Blends From

  J. ocal Cereals And Legumes. In: The Development Of High Protein Energy Foods

  From Grain Legumes. Proceedings Of The AAU/UNU International seminar, Accra,

  Chana Pp: 75-87
- Popkin B (1980): Time Allocation Of The Mother And Child Nutrition. Ecology Food Nutr 9 1-14
- Popkin B. Canahuati J. Bailey P.E. Ogara C. (1991) An Evaluation Of A National Breastfeeding Promotion Programme In Honduras. J.Biosoc. Sci. 23: 5-21. MEDLINE.
- Popkin B; Lasky T; Litvin J (1990): The Infant-Feeding Triad: Infant. Mother, And Household.
- Purnima Menon, Marie T.Ruch, Cornelia Locchi, And Gretel Pelto (2003): From Research
  To Program Design: Use Of Formative Research in Haiti To Develop A Behavior
  Change Communication Program To Prevent Malnutrition. FCND Discussion Paper
  No. 170.
- Prentice A.M. (1990) Total energy expenditure of free-living infants and children obtained by the doubly labeled water method in: Seiturch B, Serimshaw N.S. editors.

  Activity, energy expenditure and Energy requirements of infants and children.

  Switzerland: 1/DF/C/G, P8. 83.101.

- Prentice A. (2001) Breastfeeding and the older infant. Acta Paedistric Scand Suppl 374: 78
- Profile of the Urban Local Governments of thadan Planning Baseline Data. [1996] Prepared by Oyo State Government and UNICEF B. Zonal Office.
- Raphael D. Davis F (1985) Prepared Under The Auspices Of The Human Lactation Centre
  Ltd. Only Mothers Know. Pattern OfInfant Feeding in Fraditional Cultures
  Westport. CT: Greenwood Press.
- Reddy V (1987) Weaning: When, What And Why Indian J. Paediatries 54 (4): 547552.
- Rowland M.G. Barrel R.A and R.G Whitehead (1986); The Weanling Dilemma: Are We Making Progress? Acta Paedistrics Scandinavian. 323:33:42.
- Sarwar T (2002):Infant Feeding Practices Of Pakistani Mothers In England And Pakistan.

  J Hum Nutr Diet 15: 19-28
- Savage King F (1994) Helping Mothers to breastfeed, 2nd Ed, 24-28, Nairobi; African Medical and Medical Research Foundation
- Schmitz, J. (1997) Development of Structure and Function of the gastroin testinal tract.

  Schmitz, J. (1997) Development of Structure and Function of the gastroin testinal tract.

  Reven Press: 1-43.

  When? New York. Raven Press: 1-43.
- Sanghvi TG. (1993): Micronutrient deficiencies. Testimony before the subcommittee on Foreign Agriculture and I lunger of the U.S. House of Representatives July 20.
- Savage Felicity K; Burgess Ann (1993): Nutrition for developing countries 2<sup>nd</sup> edition.

  Oxford Medical Publication.

- Sermshaw N. S. Taylor C. E., Gordon J. E. (1998) Interactions of Nutrition and infection.
  WHO Monograph series No. 57. Geneva. World Health Organization
- Sellen W Daniel (1998) Infant And Young Child Feeding Practices Among African
  Pastoralists: The Datogn Of Tonzania Journal Of Biosocial Science 30: 481-499
  Cambridge University Press.
- Sellen G. (2001): Weaning, Complementary Feeding, And Material Decision Making In
  Rural East African Pastoral Population. J Hum lact 17: 233
- Sunondon K B, Simondon F (1995): Infant feeding and Nutritional status: the dilemma of mothers in mural Senegal. Euro J. Clin Nutr 49 (3): 179-88
- Shamin Samina, Furah Nuz, Syed Waseem Jamalvi and S Sanower Ali (2006). Effect Of Weaning Period On Nutritional Status Of Children JCPSP Vol 16 (8) 529-531.
- Soysa P: (1992): The introduction of sessimi-solid and solid foods to feeding infants In:

  Food and Nutrition Bulletin. Pg 19
- Solomon Miriam (2003): Nutritive Value Of Three Potential Complementary Foods Based
  On Cereals And Legumes
- Subar A, Krebs-Smith S; and Kahle L (1998) Food Classifications And The Dicts Of Young Children in Rural India Social Science And Medicine 25, 401-404 (Food Categories; Infant And Child Nutrition)
- Taba; A.H. (1990); Nutritional Problems in the weaning period in J. Trop Pediatric 16:212-

- Temple V. J. Badamosi E.J., Ladeji O And M Solomon (1996): Proximate Chemical Composition Of Three Locally Formulated Complementary Foods. West Afr. J. Biol. Sci 5: 134-143.
- Tessema H, Flailu A (1997) Child Feeding Practices In Northern Ethiopia East African Medical Journal 74 (2): 188.194
- Foods To Prevent Protein-Energy-Malnutrition: An Asian Review In: Food And Nutrition Bulletin Vol. 16 No. 34-38
- Tsal C.Y. Dalby A And R.A. Jones (1975). Lysine And Tryptophan, Cereal Chem. 48: 201-204.
- Underwood A. Barbara (1999): Weaning Practices In Deprived Environments: The Weaning Dilemma Pediatrics Vol 75, No 1 Jan. Pp 194-198
- UNICEF (1989): Children And Women In Ethiopia. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia: The United Nations Children & Fund.
- Uwaegbute A.C. (1999) Weaning Practices and Weating Foods Of The Hausas, Yoruba
  And Ibos Of Nigeria. Ecol. Food Nutr. 26 (2) 139-153
- Unguiculata). For Infant Feeding In Nigeria. In: Kwik Whei L, Kiang Ai K, Eds.

  Unguiculata). For Infant Feeding In Nigeria. In: Kwik Whei L, Kiang Ai K, Eds.

  Trends In Nutrition And Food Policy. Proceedings Of The 7th World Congress Of

  Trends In Nutrition And Food Policy. Singapore: Institute Of Food Science And

  Food Science And Technology. Singapore: Institute Of Food Science And

  Technology. 20: 201-5.
- Uwaczbute A.C. Nasnycługo D.O (1997) Differences In The Infant Feeding Practices in Urban And Rural Nigerian. Journal Of Nutrition Education 19:83-89

- Formulated Weaning Foods Based On Vegetable Proteins. Doctoral Thesis,
  University Of Nigeria, Nsukka
- Underwood, B.A. (1995): Weaning Practices In Deprived Environment: The Weaning Dilemma. In: Feeding The Normal Infant Supplement To Pediatrics: 75 (Suppl): 194-98 American Academy Of Pediatrics.
- United Nations Children Fund (1990): The Situation Of Women And Children In Nigeria.
  UNICEF/FGN Lagos, Nigeria.
- Underwood B.A; Hofvander Y. (1992): Appropriate Timing For Complementary Feeding
  Of The Breast Fed Infant: A Review. Acta Paed. Scand, Suppl. 294.
- UNICEF (1999): Breastfeeding: Foundation For A Healthy Future. UNICEF. New York. .

UNICEF (1992): Atlas Of The African Child Pp 22-23

UNICEF/FGN (1994): The Numitional Status Of Women and Children In Nigeria.

July, Pg. 1

UNICEF (1997) The Progress Of Nigeria Children, Abuja Federal Office Of Statistical/ Lagos, UNICEF, Nigeria Office, 6-7,

UNICEF/FGN (1990) Children And Women In Nigeria. A Situation Analysis Pp 38, 39, 45-6.

USAID (2002): Commodities Reservaces Guide - Part II. Module I Maternal Child Health
And Nutrition

- And Ibo Of Nigeria Ecol Food Nutr 26 (2): 139-153
- Van Estenk P (1990) Women, Work And Breastfeeding. Geneva: United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund Interagency Group For Action On Breastfeeding.
- Van Steebergen W.M., Kusin J.A, Kardjati S and U.H Renqvist (1991): Nutritional

  Transition Duting Infancy In East Java, Indonesia: A Longitudinal Study Of Feeding
  Pattern, Breast Milk Intake And Consumption Of Additional Foods. Euro.

  J.Clin Nutr. 45:67-75
- Valdes, V; Edda, P; and Adler; M.R; (1995): The Effects On Professional Practices Of A

  Three-Day Course On Breast-Feeding In: J. Hum. Loct. 11:185-190
- Vella, V. Tomkin, A. Marshall, T (1995): Determinants of Nutritional status in South-west Uganda. J. Trop Pediatric 41: 89-98.
- Vella V. Tompkins A. Borghesi A. Midlioni G.B. Adriko BandCrevanin (1992).

  Determinants Of Child Nutrition In North West, Uganda, Bull. World Health Org.

  70 (5): 637-643.
- Waterlow J.C. (1992): Protein Energy Malnutntion. Edward Amold, London.
- Waterlow, J.C; Read, W.W.C (1992): Classification Of Nutritional Status In Early
  Childhood Lancet 11: 146-149.
- Whanon B. A (1996): Food For The Weanling: The Next Priority In Infant Nutrition, Acta Pediatric Scand Suppl 323: 96
- Winikoff B, Castle M A, Laukaran V II (1988): Feeding Infair's In Four Societies: Causes

- And Consequences (If Mothers' Choices New York, NY Greenwood Press Contribution In Family Studies, Vol 14
- WHO (1983) Infant And Young Child Nutrition. Report By The Director General To The World Health Assembly Mar (Document WHA 36/ 1983/7).
- WHO-UNICEF (1990) Innocenti Declaration On The Promotion, Protection And Support Of Breastfeeding. Breastfeeding In The 1990s. A Global Initiative UNICEF, New York
- WHO (1996): Not Enough Milk Division Of Child Health and Development. Update No. 21, Pp 1-4, Geneva: WHO
- WHO/OMS (2000): Child And Adolescent Health And Development: Nutrition And Infant
  Feeding
- World Fact Book (2007) https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/print/ni.html
- World Health Organization/UNICEF (1989): Ten Steps To Promote Successful Breastfeeding Geneva WIIO, Mother And Child Health Division.
- Who/UNICEF (1994): Weaning From Breast Milk To Family Food. A Guide For The Health And Community Workers. Geneva: World Health Organization.
- Willo (2001): Infant And Young Child Numion. The Fifty. Fourth World Health Assembly Resolution. Agenda Item 13-1, 18th May.
- WHO (1995): Infants Feeding Recommendations. Weekly Epidemiol Rec 70: 119-120

- WHO (World Flealth Organization). (2000): Complementary Feeding: Family Foods For
- WHO (World Health Organization) (1994). Joint AO/WHO Expent Consultation: Vitamin And Mineral Requirements In Human Nutrition. Geneva.
- World Health Organization Expert Committee (1995): Physical Status: The Use And Interpretation Of Anthropometrics. WHO Technical Report Series 854. Geneva.
- Williams, H.E. And Carnichael, A; (1981): Nurition In The First Year Of Life In A Multi-Ethnic Poor Socio Economic Municipality In Melbourne. In: Aust. Pediatric. J. 19:73-77.
- 2eitlin M. E.A. (1990). Positive Deviance In Child Nutrition With Emphasis On Psychosocial And Behavioral Aspects And Implications For Development Tokyo:

  The United Nations University.
- Zeitlin M. [1989] Nutritional Resilience In Hostile Environment: Positive Deviance In Child Nutrition. Nutrition Reviews, 49(9). 259-268
- Zeitlin; S. And Islam: F (1989): Patterns Of Child Feeding And Health Seeking Behaviors In Bungladesh. Two Case Studies Dhaka; Bangladesh. International Center For Diarrhea Diseases Res.

# WEANING PRACTICES AMONG NURSING MOTHERS IN IBADAN SORTHWEST LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA OF OYO STATE: IMPLICATION FOR NUTRITION EDUCATION

### INTRODUCTION

This questionnaire is based on a study aimed at identifying the weaning practices of mothers in Ibadan North West Local Government Area

Wearing practices means foods given to babies other than breast milk when they each a certain age. This process is usually done gradually whenever mothers are about to applicate feeding these babies. Therefore, the purpose of this questionnaire is to obtain assume in related to wearing practices. Information given will contribute to the findings of this such, which will eventually be used to improve practices and the overall health of the arangement.

Please note that any information obtained will be regarded highly confidential.

Thanks for your co-operation.

ROS	OFFICI	AL USE ONLY
	FORM	10
	DATE.	1
	HOUSE	NO:
	ADDRE	SS:
	SECTION	ONA
ocio	o-demogra	phic Information)
	Age of t	he child:
	Age of 1	the mother:
	Education	on of the mother:
	1.	No formal education.
	2	Primary Six.
	3.	Secondary School
	4	l'ost-secondary School
4	Educati	ion of the Husband:
	1-	No formal education
	2.	Primary Six.
	3.	Secondary School
	4.	Post-secondary School
5.	Оссир	ation of the Mother:
	1.	House Wife
	2.	Petty Trader.
	3.	Artisan (Sewing Mistress, Hairdresser, etc.
	4.	Civil Servant or (Salary eamer).
	5.	Large scale business Owner
6.	Occup	pation of the Husband:
	1	Trading  Artisan (e.g. Driver, Welders, Apprentice etc.)  Artisan (e.g. Driver, Welders, Apprentice etc.)
	2.	Artisan (e.g. Dhiver,
	3.	Civil Scryant/Salary Earners-
	4.	Busines Self employed

## SECTION B (PRACTICES) Are you currently breast feeding your haby? : Yes? If yes, go to question 7b. 2 No. ? If No. go to question fa. If yes, how many times in a day. 1 5 - 10 times 11 - 15 times. On demand Others specify: How long are you going to breastfeed your baby? 12 - 15 months 16 - 19 months 10 - 23 months 3 24 above Other specify 5 If No, why? 3301 How long did you breast-feed your baby (5) Less than 12 months 1 12 - 15 months 16 - 19 months. 3 Above 19 months 4 Others Specify How old was your child when you first gave other foods? 5 9(a) Before 6 months 1 6 months Above 6 months Why did you introduce foods other than breast milk to your baby at this age? 3 Breast milk alone cannot satisfy her as baby cries too often Preparation to have another child 3 Pressure from family neighbors and friends

	ugh to be commenced on other foods and/or also to get her
5 Others Specify.	
What lookis other than br	east milk did you first introduced to your baby and state your
reasons for giving the	em?
Type of Foods	Reasons
1.	
What other foods did	you add later and state your reasons for giving them?
Type of Foods	Reasons
1.	
What did your child	eat yesterday? (24-Hours dictary Recall)
Time food was given	Type of food given
MORNING	
AFTERNOON	
EVENING	
	4
(a) Where do you rece	eive information on the choice of weaning foods given to you
child?	
1 Radio	
Amongst these sou	rces mentioned which one influence your decision making on the
choice of weaning	foods given?
	436 100 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
p	.,
101 1010 101	

## SECTION C (ATTITUDE)

What are your views on the following statements? Tick the Appropriate answers in the columns created:

cas of mothers on certain weaning practices				
Test of mental sections practices	1.Strongly	2.Strongly	3	4.Undecided/
	ogree	disagree	Disagree	not certain
should not be given to a child because it can				
ed c him steal		0		
by breast milk should be given to a child before 6				
grants of age				1
wolly available foods are equally good as processed				
hods for wearing diet				
rescan be given to babies as soon as they are				
Comples & above.	X			
Signables are not good for children				
temercial weaning foods are good if				
Day the prices are affordable.				

- represents totally agree
- ? represents totally disagree
- 3 represents disagree
- 4 represents undecided / not certain

	TION D (KNOWLEDGE)	ce food other than breast milk to her baby?
20.	Mention 2 Weaning Foods that coul	d first be introduced to a child:
	2 22 2 4 2 2 2 4 2 4 2 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	
2		ment that could be affected by the quality of

23.	List 2 W	earning Foods that could promote child growth and development?
	1	
		, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
		and a shild by since 5 in a
24.	At what	age should a child be given fuits?
٥٣٥	TION'S	
	TION E	List the Wesning Spectices that am not good:
25.	(i).	List the Weaning practices that are not good:
	(ii)	And, how can they be changed?
	*******	
86	20.00	What are the Weaning problems encountered by the mothers?
10.	(i).	
	1	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,
		++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
	*****	

FIFI ORO WA AWON IYA OLMO L'ENU WO LORI FIFI OUNJE MIRAN YATOSI OMI OYAN FUN AWON OMO ON ONI AGBEGBE ARIWA IN'O OORUN MILU IBADAN, IPNLE OYO: ERE RE FUN IMO NIPA OUNJE

ORO ISAJU:

If pro wa ni lenu wo yi da lori iwadi ijinle nipa bi awon iya olomo ti se nfi owije man fun awon onto yato fun omi oyan nikan ni agbegbe Ariwa iyo Oorun ilu ibadan.

Fisi ounje miran sun omo owo je ounje ti avon iya olmo wewe n sun omo won pelu omi oyan nigbati won ba dagba to akoko kon lgbese yi miaye diedie nigboti awon iya olimo ba ngbero lati gba oyan lenu awon omo

Fun idi eyi, ero ngba ifi oro wani lenu wo yi, ni lati wadi awon ono ii a ngba fun mon ono ni ounje miran yato fun omi oyan nikan. Gbogbo ohun ii e ba sa, yoo fun iwadi yi ni oanfaani ati se oseyori ati popa julo yoo tun mu igbega ba ono ti a ngba lati se eto bi a u nfi ouje miran yoto si omu fun awon omo owo. Eeleyi yoo si mu igbega ba eto lera uwon wa ilu

Jowo se akiyesi pe gbogbo ohun ti o bu wa so nipa eto iwadi yi ni yoo je asiri ti emkem ki yoo mo
E se pupa fun ifowo so wo po yin.

FUNILO ILE-ISE NIKAN
IUNIEG

FUNILO ILE-IOE	
Nomba fomu	
0/0	
Nomba Ile Oludahun	
Adiresi	

# IEILO TABI IMORAN KATI TELE

Jowo ko nomba idahun si mu iho ti o wa ni iwaju ibeere kookan pelu awon idahun sepese, ati pe . Ji Idahun re si ibi ti o ba ye .

ABALA KINNI
l Ojo ori omo
2. Ojo ari lya omo ——————
3.Eko iya:
1. Nko lo si ile- iwe
2. lwc mcfa
3. hve menva
I. Ile- iwe eko se owo (technical, Grade II)
5 Onimo eko erol onise owo bi (Olmo ju alaisan, N.C.E.)
6. lle eko giga julo (University)
Eko Oko
I. Nko lo si ile- iwe
2. twe meta
3 lwe mewa
1 lle- iwe eko se owo (technicol, Grade II)
5 Onimo eko ero/ onise owo bi (Olutoju alaisan, N.C.E.)
6 se eko giga julo (University).
Le ha
1 Iyaneo ile
2 Oniworobo
3. Oni se owo (aso rerun, Irun sise)
1 Osise ijoba Olono osu
5. Iyoku (se ala) =')
5 Tyoku (3e dia)

- 1 Onosise
- 2. Ise agbe
- 3. Lse owo ( awako, jorinjorin, kafinnia)
- 1 Ost se tjoba / olowo osu.
- 5. Iyobu (Se alaye): -

#### АВАЦА КЕЕЛ

Tal Nie o si tun n Sun omo yi loyan lowo lowo?

- 1 Becni
- ? Becko

No ba je beeni lo si ibeere ti o tele (7b). Ti o ba je beko, lo si ibeere ikejo (8).

7 (b) Ti a ba beeni, ighu melo ni ojumo?

- Igba ma run Igba mewa
- Igba mkanlı igba meedogun
- Gbogbo igba
- lyoku (se alaye)

(c) Igbawo ni o ma fun omo yi omo yi loyan da?

- ! Osu mejila Osu Meedogun
- 2 Osu merindallogun Osu okandin-logun
- 3. Osu ogun Osu Metale logian
- I osu merin dinlogun -Osu metadin logbon
- 5 Iyoku Se ulaye

8(a). Ti o ba je beeko, ki mi idi re?

(b) Igba wo m o fun omo y loyon do?

- I Osu mejila Osu Merala
- ? Osu merinia Osu meedogun
- 3 Osu meerin din logun- Osu metudinlogun
- 1 Osu meji dinlogun Osu okundin logun
- 5 lyoka (se alaye) -

oyan?  1. Ki o to pe osu mefa.  2. Osu meefa geerege 4. Iyoku (se alaye) b) Kini ichre ti o se beere si fun ni ounje miran yato si oni oayn ni osu yi? 1. oyan nikan ko to fun mo, ni to ri pe, oma nsokun ni gba gbogba. 2. Ma palemo latt bi omo miran. 3. Awon alabagbe iOre mi ko je ki ngbadun 4. Wahala odo awon ebi. 5. omo to dagba to latt bere si ni je ounje 6. Iyoku (se alaye	(a) One odun'osti niclo ni ono re nici	huti a t
3. Ole nt osu mefa  4. Iyoku (se alaye)  1. oyan nikan ko to fun mo, ni to ri pe, oma nsokun ni asu yi ?  2. Ma palemo latt bi omo miran.  3. Awon alabagbe /Ore mi ko je ki ngbadun  4. Wahala odo awon ebi.  5. omo to dagba to latt bere si ni je ounje  6. Iyoku (se alaye)  1. Iru awon ounje wo ni o koko fun omo re je yalo si oyan att pe kini idi re to se fun ni san iru ounje wonyi?  Ori si ri si ounje  1. 2.  1. Iru awon ounje mi ran yato si awon to ti daruko siwafu ni o tun nfun oma yi fe. Kini idi  2. Itu awon ounje mi ran yato si awon to ti daruko siwafu ni o tun nfun oma yi fe. Kini idi  2. Kini awon ounje ti omo yi je lana (wakali merin din logun sehin)?  Iru ounje ti o je  2. Kini awon ounje ti omo yi je lana (wakali merin din logun sehin)?  Iru ounje ti o je	oyan ?	o bere si sum m ounje akoko yato si omi
Alyoku (se alaye)  Kint where to are beere si fun ni ounje miran yato st ont oayn ni asu yi?  oyan nikan ko to fun mo, ni to ri pe, ama nsokun ni gba gbogbo.  Ma palemo latt bi omo miran.  Awon alabagbe /Ore mi ko je ki ngbadun  Wahala odo awon ebi.  omo to dagba to latt bere si ni je ounje  lyoku (se alaye		2. Osu meefa geerege
1. oyan nikan ko to fun mo, ni to ri pe, oma nsokun ni gba gbogbo.  2. Ma palemo latt bi omo miran.  3. Awon alabagbe /Ore mi ko je ki ngbadun  4. Wahala odo awon ebi. 5. omo to dagba to latt bere si ni je ounje 6. Iyoku (se alaye		f haby (so alm )
2. Ma palemo latt bi omo miran. 3. Awon alabagbe /Ore mi ko je ki ngbadun 4. Wahala odo awon ebi. 5. omo to dagba to latt bere si ni je ounje 6. Iyoku (se alaye	) Kini whre ti o se beere si fun ni oun	le miran valu si quit amus mi accessos
3. Awon alabagbe (Ore mi ko je ki ngbadun 4. Wahala odo awon ebi 5. omo to dagba to tati bere si ni je ounje 6. Iyoku (se alaye	l oyan nikan ko to fun mo, ni to	ri pe, oma usokun ni gba ghasha
4. Wahala odo awon ebi 5. omo to dagba to lati bere si ni je ounje 6. Iyoku (se alaye	2 Ma palemo latt bi omo miran	
5. omo to dagba to latt bere si ni je ounje 6. Iyoku (se alaye	3. Awon alabagbe 'Ore mi ko je	ki ngbadun
hru awon ounje wo ni o koko fun omo re je valo si ovan att pe kini idi re to se fun al san iru ounje wonyi?  Ori si ri si ounje  L  2.  Iru awon ounje mi ran yato si awon to ni daruko siwafu ni o nun nfun omo yi fe. Kini idi?  Ori si ri si ounje  Idi re ti o fi fun omo re  Idi re ti o fi fun omo re  I ti re ti o fi fun omo re  I ti re ti o fi fun omo re  I ti re ti o fi fun omo re  I ti re ti o fi fun omo re  I ti re ti o fi fun omo re  I ti re ti o fi fun omo re  I ti re ti o fi fun omo re	1 Wahala odo awon ebi	
Iru awon ounje wo ni o koko fun omo re je yato si oran att pe kini idi re to se fun ni san iru ounje wonyi?  Ori si ri si ounje  Littu awon ounje mi ran yato si awon to ti daruko siwaju ni o tun nfun omo yi fe. Kini idi  Ori si ri si ounje  Idi re ti o fi fun omo re  Idi re ti o fi fun omo re  Idi re ti o fi fun omo re  Ekini awon ounje ti onto yi je lana (wakati merin din logun sehin)?  Iru ounje ti o je siko ti o jeun	5. omo to dagba to lati bere si n	i je ounje
Ori si ri si ounje  L  L  L  L  L  L  L  L  L  L  L  L  L	6 Iyolai (se alaye	
Ori si ri si ounje  Lili re ii o fi fun omo re  Lili 2.  Iru avon ounje mi ran yato si avon to ri daruko sivaju ni o nun nfun omo yi fe. Kini idi  Ori si ri si ounje  Idi re ii o fi fun omo re  Iru ounje ti o je  Ikko ii o jeun  Iru ounje ti o je  Iru ounje ti o je	In anon omje wo ni o koko fun on	no re je volo si ovan ati pe kini idi re to se fun ni
Ori si ri si ounje  L.  2.  Iru avon ounje mi ran yato si avon to ti daruko siwaju ni o nun nfun omo yi fe. Kini idi ?  Ori si ri si ounje  Idi re ti o fi fun omo re  Iru ounje ti o je		
Iru awon ounje mi ran yato si awon to Maruko siwafu ni o nun nfun omo yi fe. Kini idi  ?  Ori si ri si Ounje  Idi re ti o fi fun omo re  Idi re ti o fi fun omo re  Iru ounje ti o je		ldi re ti o fi fun omo re
Iru avon ounje mi ran yato si avon lo ti daruko siwaju ni o nun nfun omo yi fe. Kini idi?  Ori si ri si ounje  Idi re ti o fi fun omo re  Idi re ti o fi fun omo re  Iru ounje ti o je		
Iru awon onnje mi ran yato st awon to ti daruko siwaju ni o nun nfun omo yi fe. Kini idi  Ori si ri si Onnje  Idi re ti o fi fun omo re  Idi re ti o fi fun omo re  Kini awon onnje ti omo yi je lana (wakati merin din logun sehin)?  Iru onnje ti o je  san		
Ori si ri si Ounje  Idi re ti o fi fun omo re  Iru ounje ti o je		
Ori si ri si Ounje  Idi re ti o fi fun omo re  Iru ounje ti o je		de la civalu ai o nun nfun omo yi je Kini idi
Ori si ri si Ounje  Idi re ti o fi fun omo re  Itu ounje ti o je	Iru avon omje mi ran jato si avon	10 TE CONTINUE STATE OF THE STA
Cri si ri si olinje  Kini awon ounje ti omo yi je lana (wakati merin din logum sehin)?  Iru ounje ti o je  san	?	Litture et a fi finn ama re
san	Ori si ri si Ounje	Tat re it of fun one
an san	Co	
san		to Januar sahin 12
san	Kini as on ounie Il omo yi je lana ("	vakati merin din logun senari
san		fru ounge n o je
san		

Biaj Niho m ot gho trohin tabi imoran nipe si si cunse miran sun omo yato si omi vyen Am 2

1 asoromagbes v Mohunmanvoran 2 obV awon alabagbe/ awon ore

(b) Amu awon ti odaruko wonyi. e wo ninu won ni o ma ndari re ni po awon otinje to o ma

epon omo ?

#### ARALA KETA

Kom awon ero re ni pa avon gbolohun yil. Fa ila si ibi idahun ii a ba ibeere kokan mu ni Hoye ti ape se si iwaju Ji.

	Mo faro mo	Mi o fara	Ko ri	Nku leso
	daada	rara	be	
14) Eyin ko dara lati fun omo je nitori R yo o jeki o ma o jale				
15) Omi oyan ni kon lo ye ki omo ma	4			
16). Awon ounje ti o wa ni agbegbe wa				
ma dara bi awon omje inu agalo sun				
17) A le fun awon omo osu mesa ali				
phe lo m eso se.				
18) Ewebe ko dara sun omode				
19) Awon ounje inn agolo na dara ti				
ma wa ba lati ra won				

## ABALA KERIN

Osu Odini meloni o ye ki ojo ori omoje, ki lya ta bere sil fun ni ounje mi ran yato si omi
Doruko ounje meji ti a le koko sun omo owo je nigball o ba se beere sil sun ni ounje mon yato si oini oyan? 1
Daruko ona meji ti idagba soke omo le si je ipa lara nipu bi iya se nsun omo ni ounje
Daruko ounje meji ti o n mu omo dagba ni akoko ti a bo nfun ni ounje miran yato si omi
21 Daruko ounje meji ti kii mu ki omo dagba bi oti ye
25 Osw odunnielo ni ojo ori omo le je lati bere Si fun ni eso je ?
ABALA KARUN
?6(i) Kini an on ohun/ ise ti anon iya olomo ma nse ti ko dara ni gbati won ba n fun omo ni
owye miran yato si onil onni?
Il Bawn ni a se le se alunse?
17(1) Kini awon isoro ti awon iya olmo ma ndojuko ni akoko ti u ba n sun omo owo ni
swon ounje miran yato si omi oyan?
ni) Bawo ni a se le bori avon isoro wonyi?
1. ————————————————————————————————————

## Focus Gron Discussion

(Atroduction (Section 1)

we are students of the University of Ibadan. We are here to learn about ways of and wearing children. You have been selected to participate in this discussion because of your walth of experience as mothers.

Let me inform you that in this discussion there are no right or wrong answers. All we are interested in are your views about issues that will be raised for discussion. I would like to make that whatever you tell us will be made confidential and will only be used to design programme to assist other nursing mothers. For the avoidance of doubts your names will not be written down or recorded

We however crave your indulgence to allow us use a tape recorder to record what we will because So that we will not easily forget what has been discussed.

lhank you for coming

## Discussion Points

	Questions		
No		Probe	
<b>\</b>	Why is it important to breast-feed babies?		
3	What age do mothers start introducing foods other than breast- milk?		
3	What are the types of foods usually given?		
1	Among those foods mentioned what are those types of foods first introduced?		
5	Why do mothers give these foods?		
6	(a) What are the mothers' sources of information on choice of complimentary foods given?  (b) And which source influence mothers' decision making on the choice of weaning toods given		

Vote of thanks

Closing.

