

General Overview of Malnutrition under five children in low income countries and solution to mitigate

Caresma Chuwa^{1*}, Anju K. Dhiman¹ and Deepika Kathuria

¹Department of Food Science and Technology, Dr YS Parmar University of Horticulture and Forestry,
P.O BOX 173230 Nauri Solan (H.P) India.

Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration among all authors. Author AKD designed the study and wrote the protocol, CC and DK wrote the first draft, revised of the manuscript and performed all figures. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Article Information

DOI: 10.9734/CJAST/2020/v39i4831266

Editor(s):

(1) Dr. Ashish Anand , GV Montgomery Veteran Affairs Medical Center, USA.

Reviewers:

(1) Parama Tirta Wulandari Wening Kusuma , Indonesia.

(2) Ioannis Kyriazis , Kat General Hospital , Greece.

Complete Peer review History: <http://www.sdiarticle4.com/review-history/66087>

Review Article

Received 25 October 2020
Accepted 28 December 2020
Published 31 December 2020

ABSTRACT

Malnutrition is a broad concept that includes both under- and over-nutrition. It is the most serious public health problem and the leading cause of child mortality. About a third of children in developing countries are either underweight or stunted. Micronutrient shortages affect more than 30 percent of the world's rising population. Under nutrition, there is a mechanism whose results are routinely spread not only in later lifestyles, but also into future generations. It is a severe problem that affects children under the age of five in developing countries, resulting in stunted growth, muscle weakness, and underweight. Vitamin and mineral deficiencies are still common, and they frequently occur in conjunction with a general lack of nutrients. Malnourished children are at risk of developing marasmus, kwashiorkor, anaemia, rickets, and blindness. Malnourished children have a higher risk of dying from diarrhoea, malaria, or pneumonia than children with perfect nutritional status. Effective malnutrition prevention and treatment, including the use of low-cost food available in communities, is urgently needed. These meals contain sufficient nutrients, such as protein, carbohydrates, fat, vitamins and minerals, to combat malnutrition in infants and children in developing countries. The focus of this review article is on promoting low-cost, locally available ingredients in groups to alleviate malnutrition in toddlers and children in low-income countries.

*Corresponding author: E-mail: carechuwa@gmail.com;

Keywords: Malnutrition; children; infants; low cost foods; developing countries; poverty.

1. INTRODUCTION

Malnutrition is a general concept that includes "all deviations from sufficient and optimal nutritional status [1] due to particular nutrient deficiencies or diets mainly focused on off-the-beaten-path combinations or proportions of meals." Malnutrition is classified into two types: over nutrition and under nutrition. Over nutrition is a form of malnutrition in which the body absorbs more nutrients than it requires per day. It's a form of malnutrition that occurs as a result of consuming too much energy over time, resulting in weight gain. Fats would be processed in the body as a result of eating more calories from sugar, carbohydrates, and protein. Obese and obesity are caused by the accumulation of excess fats. Obesity or overweight is a risk factor for cardiovascular disease, some types of cancer, and Type 2 diabetes. In established foreign locations, over nutrition is not uncommon. Under nutrition is a form of malnutrition that occurs when the body does not obtain enough nutrients on a daily basis. It may also be caused by infections that prevent key nutrients from being absorbed [1]. Inadequate consumption of macro nutrients (carbohydrates, protein, and fat) and micro nutrients (vitamins and minerals). A man or woman is categorized as acutely or chronically malnourished depending on the type of nutrition deficiency [2]. Acute malnutrition occurs when a person's food intake is suddenly decreased, resulting in rapid weight loss and a physical inability to satisfy the bodies active desires. Extreme wasting (disproportional weight for peak) and/or edoema describe acute malnutrition, which is the most common form of malnutrition (the retention of fluid). Acute malnutrition can cause stunting, immune dysfunction, fluid overload, heart failure, infection, and death [3]. The occurrence of acute malnutrition among displaced people is frequently used as a barometer for the severity of humanitarian crises [4].

1.1 Chronic Malnutrition

This is the result of insufficient nutrients over a long period of time, and it is not always as obvious as acute malnutrition. It can start in the womb with inadequate maternal nutrition and continue through insufficient feeding practices and poor food choices [5]. Frequent exposure to bacterial infections may also play a role [6]. Chronic malnutrition is most generally manifested

by bodily stunting, a term that refers to people whose weight and height seem proportional but who are shorter and smaller than their full genetic capacity. Anthropomorphic tests are used to assess the severity of chronic and acute malnutrition. All of these types of malnutrition are widespread in low-income countries, affecting babies and young children [7,8,9]. In 2016, one-quarter of children under the age of five were stunted, accounting for 38 percent, while a quarter of children under the age of five were wasted, accounting for 27 percent, and one-quarter of children under the age of five were overweight, accounting for 24 percent in Africa [10]. Children who are chronically malnourished normally show signs of behavioural change and mental retardation over time. Even when treated, under nutrition can have long-term effects in children, resulting in intellectual disability and digestive disorders that can last a lifetime [11]. Vitamins A, C and B, as well as minerals like iron, zinc, fluoride, calcium and copper, are the most common nutritional deficiencies in Sub-Saharan Africa [12]. Marasmus, kwashiorkor, anaemia, rickets and blindness are all threats for malnourished children. According to the World Food Programme and a United Nations body, there are five distinct forms of malnutrition.

1.2 Protein Energy Malnutrition (PEM)

PEM is a severe lack of macronutrients in the diet, such as proteins, carbohydrates, and fats that affects the growth of children under the age of five and causes impairment due to their high energy and protein requirements [13]. An individual who is starving becomes skeletally thin and frail, placing them at risk of death. Growth height, cognitive growth, learning capacity, social activity and health are all impaired in infants, making them more vulnerable to infections [14]. Acute PEM is the most serious type of malnutrition that can lead to death in severe cases, with marasmus and kwashiorkor being examples [15]. The acuter PEM affected children have low body weight and wasting signs comparatively to normal children of the same age and height. Another type of chronic malnutrition is marasmus which caused by low intake of protein and calories and is characterized by emaciation [16-17]. Unlike marasmus, kwashiorkor is caused by a lack of protein in the diet. Kwashiorkor causes swelling in the hands, legs and feet of children who are infected [18,19]. According to Ahmed et al. [20] and Manary and

Brewster [21] reports, it also affects children's hair, causing it to turn a golden colour, fatty liver, electrolyte deficiency, desquamate rash and irritability symptoms. Children with kwashiorkor and marasmus are more vulnerable to infectious diseases such as acute respiratory, diarrhoea, and viral infections. PEM prevalence is high in developing countries, according to the World Bank [22], and it is passed on from generation to generation. In Kenya, Kotut et al. [23], Faber [24] and Mnakwe [25]; Ubesie and Ibeziakor [26] found a high prevalence of PEM linked to a lack of adequate nutrition, faulty weaning practices, poverty-related problems, and poor medical treatment. To combat PEM in infants and children, they should be fed low-cost, protein-rich, carbohydrate-rich, and fat-rich diets.

1.3 Iron Deficiency (ID)

Iron is a mineral that aids in the transfer of oxygen from the lungs to the rest of the body by red blood cells. Anemia is a disease in which the body does not produce enough red blood cells, resulting in weakness, difficulties regulating body temperature and a weakened immune system, making you more vulnerable to infections. In addition, Anemia is a global health issue that affects 43% of children under the age of five or approximately 273 million children [27]. Malnourished, iron-deficient and anaemic toddlers and children were found to be listless, lethargic, emotionally dull and less interested in exploring their surroundings [28,29]. Children under the age of five who are anaemic have a lower mood and are less physically active than non-anemic children [30,31]. Anemia may be treated or avoided by consuming more iron-rich foods like eggs, nuts, whole grains, fruits and vegetables.

1.4 Vitamin A Deficiency (VAD)

VAD is one of the most common micronutrient deficiencies in the world, affecting predominantly children in developing countries [32]. According to Stevens et al. [33], about 30% of children under the age of five are vitamin A deficient and about 2% of all deaths in this age group are due to VAD. In addition, VAD is a leading cause of avoidable childhood blindness [32]. Despite a vitamin A supplementation programme with 95 percent coverage, in which at least one of the necessary two doses was given, the prevalence of VAD remains high [34]. This indicates that vitamin A supplementation alone will not have the desired effect unless it is combined with daily

vitamin A consumption in the diet. Consumption of low-pro vitamin A carotenoid diets is a major contributor to VAD in a population, which contributes to a weakened immune system, blindness, dry skin, respiratory infections, and other diseases such as measles and diarrhoea [35]. Consuming vitamin A-rich foods such as carrots, orange-fleshed sweet potatoes, green leafy vegetables, yellow-colored fruits, yellow vegetables (pumpkin) and vitamin A-fortified cereals will help to prevent vitamin A deficiency.

1.5 Iodine Deficiency Disorder (IDD)

Iodine is a vital nutrient for brain growth from the foetal stage to the first two years of a child's life. Iodine is also a chemical that the thyroid gland uses to make hormones that govern body metabolism. Iodine deficiency disorders are a major public health issue, particularly for pregnant women and children under the age of five. Increased perinatal mortality and mental retardation are the most severe consequences [36]. Iodine is a trace mineral that aids in the proper functioning of the brain as well as the metabolization of food energy. It protects women's breast and ovarian health, as well as their foetus from conception to two years of age. The iodine molecule is present in the thyroid hormones T3 and T4, which control the body's metabolism [37]. Iodine-rich foods allow the thyroid to regulate metabolism, detoxification, growth, and development. Iodine deficiency can be avoided by consuming iodine-rich foods like prunes, plums, bananas, potatoes, fish, dairy products, eggs, milk and using iodized salt.

1.6 Zinc Deficiency (ZD)

Zinc is an important trace element that is needed for immune cell activation and differentiation, as well as nearly all cellular functions such as proliferation, maturation, and apoptosis [38-43]. It also aids the body in wound healing by assisting cell division and development. Zinc deficiency increases susceptibility to autoimmunity, some tumours, allergies, graft versus host disease (GVHD), diabetes, and neurodegenerative diseases [44-54]. Infectious diseases such as tuberculosis, the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), malaria, measles, and pneumonia have been related to zinc deficiency [55,56]. Pneumonia is the leading cause of childhood death, accounting for 15% of all deaths in children under the age of five and 19% of all deaths in low-income countries [57,58]. To treat zinc deficiency and associated diseases such as pneumonia, tuberculosis, HIV, malaria, measles,

hair loss, poor appetite and slow wound healing, Zinc-rich foods should be included in the diet, such as almonds, legumes, mushrooms, ladyfinger/okra, broccoli, asparagus, nuts, dark chocolate, yeast and whole grains.

2. FACTORS CAUSING MALNUTRITION IN INFANTS AND CHILDREN IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Developing countries have a less developed industrial base and a lower Human Development Index (HDI) than other nations [59]. Because of their histories or geographies, they share certain characteristics. They frequently have low levels of access to clean drinking water, for example, when it comes to health risks, sanitation and hygiene; energy poverty; high levels of pollution (e.g., air pollution, indoor air pollution, water pollution); a high proportion of people suffering from tropical and infectious diseases (neglected tropical diseases); a high number of road traffic accidents; and generally poor infrastructure in certain instances, there is also widespread poverty, a lack of schooling, and limited access to family planning services, a large number of informal settlements, systemic corruption at all levels of government, and a lack of so-called good governance. Since most developing countries have a high "climate vulnerability," global warming (climate change) is projected to have a greater effect on them than on wealthier countries [60]. The life expectancy of people in developing countries is generally lower than that of people in developed countries. Infectious diseases, maternal mortality, child mortality, and infant mortality are all common causes of death. In developed countries, under nutrition is more common [61]. Under nutrition is more prevalent in some categories, including pregnant and breastfeeding mothers, children under the age of five, and the elderly. Children's hunger and stunting are the reasons why more than 200 million children under the age of five in developed countries are not developing to their full potential [62]. In 2013, it was estimated that 165 million children had stunted growth due to malnutrition. [63]. Inadequate food intake during the supplementary feeding cycle after six months of exclusive breast feeding is the leading cause of malnutrition [64,65,66]. Nutrition in childhood has the greatest influence on infant growth, development, and survival [67,68].

2.1 Child Factors

Certain child factors, such as sex, age, illnesses, breastfeeding, and the child's place in the family,

have a negative effect on the nutritional status of children under the age of five. Protein energy malnutrition (PEM) was identified in 58.3 percent of male children and 68.6 percent of female children in an epidemiological study conducted in Varanasi's urban slum region [69]. In their research, Nyaruhucha et al. [70] discovered that undernutrition was most prevalent among children aged 24-35 months, whereas children younger than a year were less vulnerable. Stunting has been shown to be closely related to children's sex and weight on their own [70]. According to a study conducted in India, children aged 13-24 months were more stunted (81.8%) and underweight (45.5%), while children aged 37-48 months were the most wasting (18.2%) [71]. This clearly shows that children over the age of one year are more likely to be malnourished than children under the age of one. Male children are given more priority than female children in some cultures, especially in Africa, because males will live to carry on the family name, while females will be married off, putting the female child at risk of malnutrition. According to Nyaruhucha et al. [70], slightly more than one-fourth of male household members were given food before females. According to Olack et al. [72], mild wasting was highest in children aged 6-11 months (4.1%) and lowest in children aged 48-59 months (1.1%). More than half of the girls (65.7 percent) in the same sample were more wasted than their male counterparts. Girls were slightly more inefficient than boys of the same age group [72]. According to Olack et al. [72], some health problems in infants, such as tuberculosis (TB), diarrhoea, measles, and others, can intensify malnutrition and a combination of these health issues can weaken the immune system.

2.2 Maternal Factors

One of the factors affecting the nutritional status of children under the age of five is maternal literacy. Children also need primary care from mothers/caregivers for the first 6 years of life, according to Asindi et al. [73] and the standard of care rendered by mothers/caregivers is largely dependent on the mothers' knowledge of basic health care practices and nutrition. It's also been documented that literate mothers are more likely to put off having children until later in life, decreasing infant mortality [74]. Children of uneducated mothers are at risk of stunting, according to Sufiyan et al. [75]. Ali et al. [76] discovered that children with illiterate mothers were 40.8 percent more likely to be stunted and

underweight (57.9 percent) highest among children of mothers who had attained at least primary education and wasting (33.3%) was common among children of mothers who had tertiary education. Glewwe [77] highlighted that education can affect the child's health through direct transfer of health information from one generation to another; through via the ability to diagnose disease easily and administer care as well as educated mothers who are more receptive to orthodox medicine than uneducated mothers. The above ties have been identified because educated women are more likely to marry men with higher incomes live in better communities and receive higher-paying jobs, all of which affect child survival directly or indirectly as well as fitness [78]. According to a study conducted in Tanzania, children of older mothers are less likely to be malnourished than children of younger mothers [70].

2.3 Socio-Economic/Household Factors

2.3.1 Poverty

In the last two decades, the number of people living in severe poverty in Sub-Saharan Africa has nearly doubled, from 164 million in 1982 to 313 million in 2002. Since families are unable to afford enough food, poverty leads to malnutrition in infants and children.

2.3.2 Family size

According to Chaudhury [79], a rise in family size due to a decrease in per capita income can have an effect on children's nutritional status. That is, as the number of children in a household increases, the amount of food available to each child decreases, impacting the nutritional status of the children. Increased family size also makes it easier for couples to settle on having children. Large family size can have a negative effect on the nutritional status of children and household members, encouraging poor dietary habits, particularly in poorer households [79].

2.3.3 Household income and expenditure

The amount of food spending specifically defines a household's income level. Food expenditure is expected to grow as household income increases, increasing the rate of caloric and protein intake among children and household members [80]. Poor household income, on the other hand, can lead to lower food consumption and a lower standard of living. According to Chaudhury [79], dietary adequacy, dietary

consumption and per capita expenditure have a synergistic relationship.

2.3.4 Household food security and insecurity

Household food security can be affected by a number of factors, including the location of the residence, the family's income level, and the size of the household. Food protection refers to the availability, nutritional quality, and safety of food consumed in a socially acceptable manner [81]. Food insecurity, on the other hand, arises when one's ability to access healthy, nutritionally adequate food is limited or uncertain [81]. It has been observed that in most developed countries, the dietary habits of people who are food insecure aim to fulfill their energy needs but fall short of supplying enough nutrients to maintain good health and avoid infection. On the other hand, food insecurity exists when one's ability to receive safe, nutritionally sufficient food is reduced or uncertain [81]. People who are food insecure have been observed in most developed countries eating habits that strive to meet their energy needs but fall short of providing enough nutrients to maintain good health and prevent infection. Hence, it can be inferred that overnutrition and under-nutrition are strongly associated with food insecurity [82-83]. Factors such as poor academic performance, physical and mental ill-health, psycho-social problem and anaemia related to iron deficiency are consequences of food insecurity in children [84-85].

2.3.5 Educational status

The nutritional status of children is highly affected by the education of their parents. That is, parents with a higher educational status have improved child rearing and care practices. According to Chaudhury [86], children with parents who have completed a tertiary education are more likely to consume a healthy diet, regardless of income level, since their parents have a higher level of knowledge on basic child nutrition. Parents with higher educational attainment, on the other hand, may promote values at the cost of their children's health [86]. Women who work outside the home, for example, are less likely to breastfeed their babies exclusively and regularly, and are more likely to practice early weaning [86].

2.3.6 Lack of access to food

Food poverty is typically caused by people's inability to buy enough food, rather than by a shortage of food. According to Etim [87], weak

road networks, food scarcity in markets and low family income levels are all factors that lead to food insecurity among the poor. Food importation is often essential for countries, particularly when there is a shortage of food in their own country [87]. According to Etim [87], food price fluctuations affect many people, especially the poorer populations. When food prices are low, farmers may produce less food products, which may not be proportionate to customer demand, resulting in market food scarcity [87].

2.3.7 Socio-demographic factors

Several demographic patterns in Sub-Saharan Africa are impeding the improvement of child malnutrition [87]. Rapid population growth, for example, has been described as a major demographic factor exacerbating malnutrition in children under the age of five [87]. It is widely found that the poor, who are more likely to be malnourished than those in the wealthier quintiles, have higher fertility [87]. Bad nutrition, on the other hand, affects the poorest urban and rural communities the most [87].

2.3.8 Environmental factors

The 95 percent of all malnourished people live in sub-tropical and tropical areas, where the climate is relatively stable. As a result, climate change is a critical factor to consider when ensuring sufficient food supply (food security) [88]. Temperature increases in the subtropics and tropics are very likely, according to a new study (climate change) Climate Change, 2007 [88]. Climate change, according to a UN report conducted in over 40 developing countries, has a direct or indirect effect on agricultural development, resulting in a rise in the number of people suffering from hunger each year [89]. For example, there was a 50% reduction in wheat production and an 80% loss of livestock products during the Central Asian drought [90]. Extreme weather conditions, such as drought, can reduce crop productivity in Sub-Saharan Africa, exacerbating the effect of malnutrition [90].

2.4 Other Factors

Food stability and access to food are greatly harmed in the face of internal conflicts and crises. Conflicts often result in the annihilation of farmlands and farm enterprises, as well as low food production and reduced internal food distribution. As a result, people are more likely to succumb to malnutrition, sickness and diseases induced by food insecurity. Water-related

hardship was found to be a significant determinant of health and nutritional status of children under the age of five in a recent survey conducted in Afghanistan [91].

3. THE ROLE OF LOW COST COMPLEMENTARY FOODS TO ALLEVIATE MALNUTRITION IN INFANTS AND CHILDREN

Since cereals and legumes are widely used in the preparation of complementary foods, it may be difficult for children to achieve nutritional adequacy due to dietary factors [92]. Insufficient dietary variety and reliance on plant-based cereals in terms of nutrient content and bioavailability in children, complementary foods are some of the main factors that restrict the consistency of a complementary diet [93,94]. Furthermore, many conventional complementary foods eaten in developing countries have a low nutritional density. Low-income countries' conventional complementary foods are made up of starchy staples like maize, rice, and finger millet, as well as non-cereals like cassava, sweet potatoes, yams and plantains [95]. Plant-based protein is usually less costly than animal-based protein. The best way to reduce malnutrition is to consume a nutrient-diverse and well-balanced diet, which will help to mitigate the symptoms of extreme and moderate malnutrition [15]. Children are most vulnerable to poor nutritional status during complementary feeding cycles when both macro and micronutrients are insufficient to sustain growth and improvement, resulting in malnutrition [96]. Using a combination of dietary diversification, food fortification, and supplementary food assistance, various countries have been effective in reducing infant and young child hunger and malnutrition [22]. Plant-based supplementary foods can be a good way to tackle childhood hunger in developing countries if they are affordable to the majority of the population. Using low-cost conventional and indigenous foods to prepare complementary foods that are both hygienically and nutritionally appropriate to fulfill the needs of fast-developing infants and younger children is one way to minimize malnutrition in a sustainable way [97]. FAO/WHO/UNICEF [98] stressed the use of locally prepared foods rather than centrally prepared foods.

3.1 Formulations of Low Cost Complementary Foods

The World Health Organization describes the complementary feeding period as the time when

other foods or liquids are provided to young children in addition to breast milk and any nutrient-containing foods or liquids given to young children during the complementary feeding period are known as complementary foods [99]. Weaning is the term for complementary feeding, which comes from the Anglo-Saxon word weaniang, which means accustom [100]. While the term "weaning" has come to be synonymous with the full cessation of breast feeding, there is no reason to conclude or assume that mothers should avoid breast feeding when complementary feeding is implemented. Complementary feeding (also known as weaning or transitional feeding) is characterized as the process of broadening the infant's diet to include foods and beverages other than breast milk or infant formula (Anonymous, 1994). This has an effect on the infant's growth potential and health. Weaning food should be high in calories, high-quality protein, vitamins, and minerals, as well as easily digestible, low in indigestible fibre, and free of antinutrients [101]. In addition, nutrient consumption is divided into two categories: Type 1 and Type 2. Type 1 nutrients are those in which a shortage of them triggers clinical symptoms. Vitamins and minerals such as calcium, iron, and selenium are among them. Type 2 nutrients, which include sulphur (mostly from protein), magnesium, phosphorus, potassium, and zinc, are needed for the growth of lean tissues [97]. In most cases, complementary food formulations combine maize (predominantly) with legumes such as soybean, cowpea, or groundnut. It is recommended that a complementary food be produced to counter all forms of malnutrition (PEM, IDD, ZD, VAD and ID). As a result, protein, carbohydrates, fats, vitamins, and minerals must all be included in formulations. The following are low-cost foods that can be used in baby and child complementary food formulations. To tackle hunger in low-income countries, all affordable foods should be used to the fullest extent possible. Onyeka and Dibia [102] developed nutritious and inexpensive infant weaning foods by roasting malted corn and soybean (50:15) for 30 minutes at 65°C, then adding roasted peanuts (100 or 150 g/Kg) and mashed banana (200-350 g/Kg). They discovered that the malting process enhances flavour, decreases dietary bulk, and boosts nutrient content in food products. Munasinghe et al. [103] blended brown rice (*Oryza sativa*), soybean (*Glycine max*), mung bean (*Vignaradiata*), and milk powder with yoghurt to make three extruded yoghurt-based weaning foods at various ratios to achieve the

recommended amount of nutrients for toddlers aged 1-3 years. Mohamed et al. [104] developed a highly nutritive instant weaning mix of rice flakes, skim milk, butter, vitamin premix and sugar. Weaning mix was developed by Balasubramanian et al. [105] using malted and extruded pearl millet and barley flours. They came to the conclusion that developing highly nutritious and suitable weaning foods using locally available low-cost ingredients available in developing countries has a lot of potential. Haile and Getahun, 2018,[106] developed a mashed food by mixing orange-fleshed sweet potato (OFSP) and haricot bean in various proportions (70:30, 80:20, 90:10, and 100:00). Of all the formulated foods, mothers and preschool children preferred mashed food made from OFSP and haricot bean in a 70:30 ratio. Pandey and Singh [107] developed weaning foods for infants to combat protein-energy malnutrition. Two different types of kheer were processed and tested for infants aged 6-12 months and 9 months and up, using a multigrain and nut blend, as well as banana, apple and rice. Multigrain and nut mix kheer had crude protein and fat levels of 21.23 and 3.99 percent, 11.34 and 2.11 percent, respectively. Both weaning food formulations were well received organoleptically and nutritionally, suggesting that they should be used as weaning foods for children.

3.1.1 Staple foods

These are traditional foods that are grown and consumed in all cultures. Cereals (rice, corn, millets), roots (cassava yam, potato), and starchy fruit are among them (plantain and bed fruit). Porridge is made by milling staples into flour and frying them. Staples provide nutrition (mostly from starch), but they also provide protein, although in limited amounts. They are deficient in minerals such as iron, zinc, and calcium. Pro vitamin A is abundant in golden maize/yellow maize, pumpkin and orange-fleshed sweet potatoes. To improve nutritional consistency, staples should be combined with other foods such as legumes and pulses, fruits and vegetables in the formulation of complementary foods for infants and children. In low-income countries, using unfortified cereal-legume blends as a supplementary food instead of unfortified cereal-only formulations has the potential to minimize the incidence of protein-energy malnutrition among infants and children. Cereal-legume blends are remarkably high in protein (each in an extraordinary amount) and strength

since legumes provide lysine that cereals lack, and cereals provide cysteine and methionine that legumes lack [108]. Weaning Mix, which contained 75% maize, 15% soybean, and 10% groundnut, had an energy value of 1820 kJ/100 g and a protein level of 15/100 g [109], compared to 100 kJ/100 g and 0.6/100 g for *koko*, a maize-only porridge made from fermented cereal dough (Lartey et al., 1997). While a cereal-legume blend has been recommended for infants and children to help reduce malnutrition, caution should be taken during processing to ensure that all anti-nutritive properties are extracted. The presence of phytates at 0.48/100 g of Weaning mix [110] may inhibit iron absorption, and zinc bioavailability has been shown to be dose-dependent. [111,112]; as a result, efforts have been focused on finding methods for lowering phytate levels in foods.

3.1.2 Legume, pulses and oil seeds

Legume, pulses, and oil seeds are rich in protein and contain many essential amino acids that cereals lack, such as lysine, methionine, cysteine, phenylalanine, tyrosine, threonine, tryptophan, and valine. To tackle malnutrition, various types of legumes and pulses can be used in the formulation of complementary foods for infants and children. Oil seeds may also be used as a source of fat and minerals in complementary food formulations. They lack vitamin A and vitamin C when dried, despite being a good source of protein. Oil seeds, unlike legumes and pulses, are rich in fat and minerals. When integrated into complementary food formulations, they provide the energy density that infants and children need. Phytates, on the other hand, are present in legumes, oil seeds, and pulses and they inhibit iron, zinc, and calcium absorption. In addition to phytates, most legumes and pulses contain anti-nutritional factors like trypsin inhibitors, isoflavones, and phytates, which prevent nutrients from being absorbed by the body. Because of the high phytate levels in cereal-legume dependent diets, low iron or zinc absorption has been related to deficiency [113-117]. These inhibitors require expert processing techniques to prevent protein absorption in the body, resulting in PEM [118]. Hotz and Gibson [114] found that after 86 hours of natural lactic fermentation of maize flour slurry, the phytate content was reduced by 12%. The conventional method of soaking maize flour in water and then decanting the excess water decreases phytate levels by just 57 percent [115].

3.1.3 Fruits and vegetables

Fruits and vegetables, unlike pulses, legumes, oil seeds, and staples, are low-cost foods available in any culture. They contain a variety of minerals and vitamins. Vitamin A, zinc, and iron shortages (micronutrients) can be alleviated if they are found in adequate quantities in complementary food formulations. To combat micronutrient deficiency, infants and children's complementary food formulations should contain a sufficient amount of fruits and vegetables, either fresh or dried (powders). Apart from their high nutritional value, they also improve the immune system when eaten all year. There is evidence that weaning mix satisfies the growth demands of infants using weight gain as an index [109]; however, it is insufficient to satisfy the demand for vitamin A [119], iron, or zinc [109]. [109,120]. Low levels of vitamin A (about 2.0 g retinol equivalents/100 kJ) compared to the recommended range of 14 to 43 g retinol equivalents/100 kJ could be to blame for the infants' poor vitamin A status [109,121]. One of the "issue nutrients" in weaning mix has been described as vitamin A. [122]. Low-cost plant foods rich in pro-vitamin A (β -carotene) such as pumpkin, papaya, golden maize, orange-fleshed sweet potatoes, and other low-cost plant foods with high pro-vitamin A (β -carotene) content should be used as much as possible in the formulation of complementary foods for infants and children to fight VAD.

3.1.4 Weaning foods for infants and children

In several developing countries, the formulation and production of nutritious weaning foods using locally available raw materials has gotten a lot of attention [123]. Weaning food is meant to bridge the gap between breast-feeding an infant and having a 'adult' family [124]. Weaning simply refers to the process of acclimating (an infant, a young animal) to food other than its mother's milk. During the weaning period, the young child's diet moves from milk alone to a range of foods based on the family's daily meals [125]. Multi-mixes are recipes with four essential ingredients that are more suitable for the weaning cycle and feeding. The first ingredient is a staple, preferably a cereal; the second is a protein supplement derived from a plant or animal product (beans, milk, meats, etc.); the third is a vitamin and mineral supplement (vegetable and/or fruit); and the fourth is an energy supplement derived from fat, oil, or sugar to increase the energy concentration of the mix.

The use of cereals and pulses together takes advantage of the fact that cereals are low in lysine, while pulses are high in lysine. As a result, the protein content is greatly improved [125]. Traditional weaning methods, re-evaluation of indigenous foods, research into producing low-cost weaning foods, and a focus on home-made children foods derived from the family meal could contribute to changes in infant and young child feeding and as a result, a reduction in infant and young child mortality [126].

4. RECOMMENDATION TIPS FOR LOW COST COMPLEMENTARY FOOD FORMULATIONS

- All complementary food formulations must include a mixture of staple grains/seeds that have been standardized in standard

- procedures to extract anti-nutritive influences, then roasted and milled.
- Both legumes, pulses, and oil seeds must be processed according to industry requirements to eliminate anti-nutritive factors before being roasted and milled.
- Both fruits and vegetables must be processed according to normal protocols before being dehydrated and ground into powder.
- Before being served to children, complementary foods are packaged as dried items that must be reconstituted with liquid (water) to form porridge/gruel.
- In accordance with the WHO's [127] guideline for processing complementary food for infants and children, formulations must make use of locally available resources.

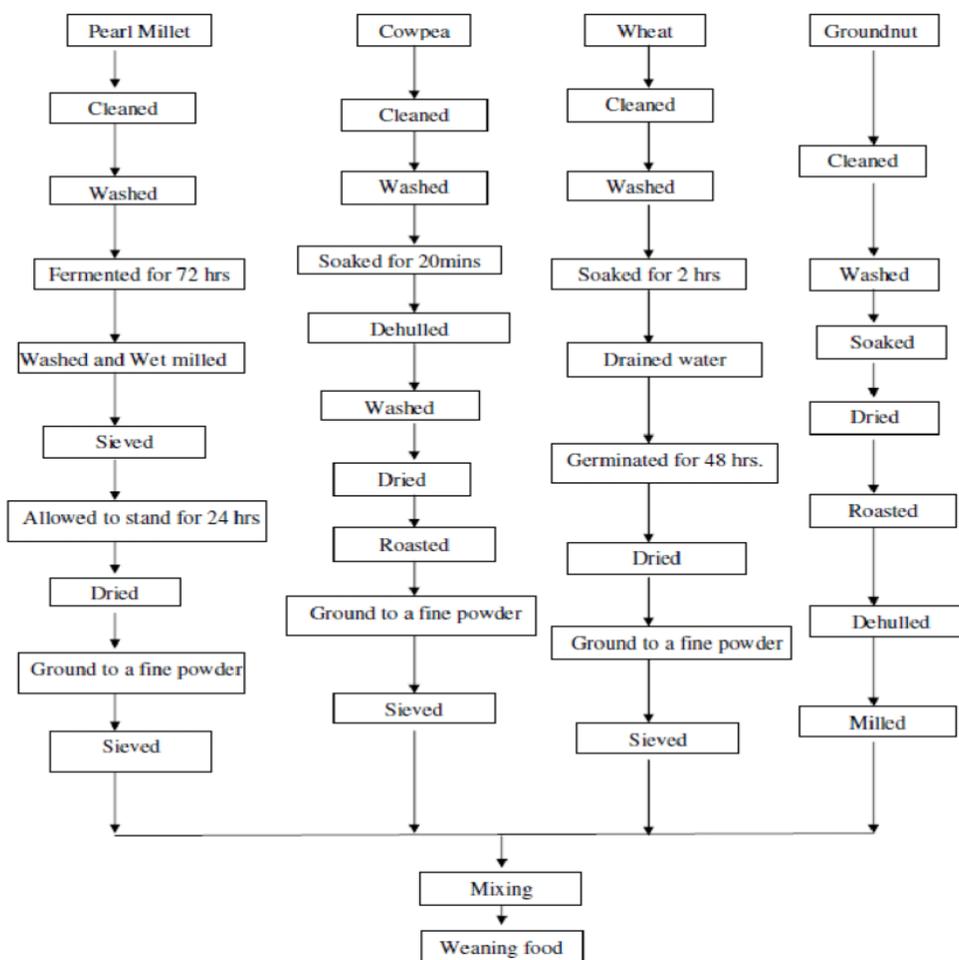


Fig. 1. Process flow sheet for cereal-legume-oil seed blends used in the preparation of infants and children weaning foods

- The majority of the formulations must follow the Codex criteria for complementary food's energy (1670 kJ/100 g) and protein (15/100 g) specifications [128].
- All formulations must conform to a healthy diet (all types of low-cost food sources must be used in complementary foods).
- To prevent contamination and health problems such as diarrhoea in children after ingestion, high hygienic standards must be practiced during the preparation of raw materials to finished goods.
- All food formulations must be packaged in tightly sealed containers and labeled with the nutritional content of each ingredient used in the formulations as well as the food's expiration date [129].

4.1 Standard Procedures Ofeliminating Anti-Nutritional Factors in Foods Before Formulation of Complementary Food for Infants and Children

The typical procedures for eliminating anti-nutritional factors in legume, cereal, and oil seed before preparing weaning mix for infants and children are summarized in Fig. 1. Washing, soaking, germination, drying, roasting, boiling, fermentation, grinding/milling are some of the various processing methods used to extract anti-nutritional factors from cereals, legumes, pulses, oil seeds, fruits and vegetables such as phytic acid, phenolic compounds, enzyme inhibitors, saponins, lectins and haemagglutins.

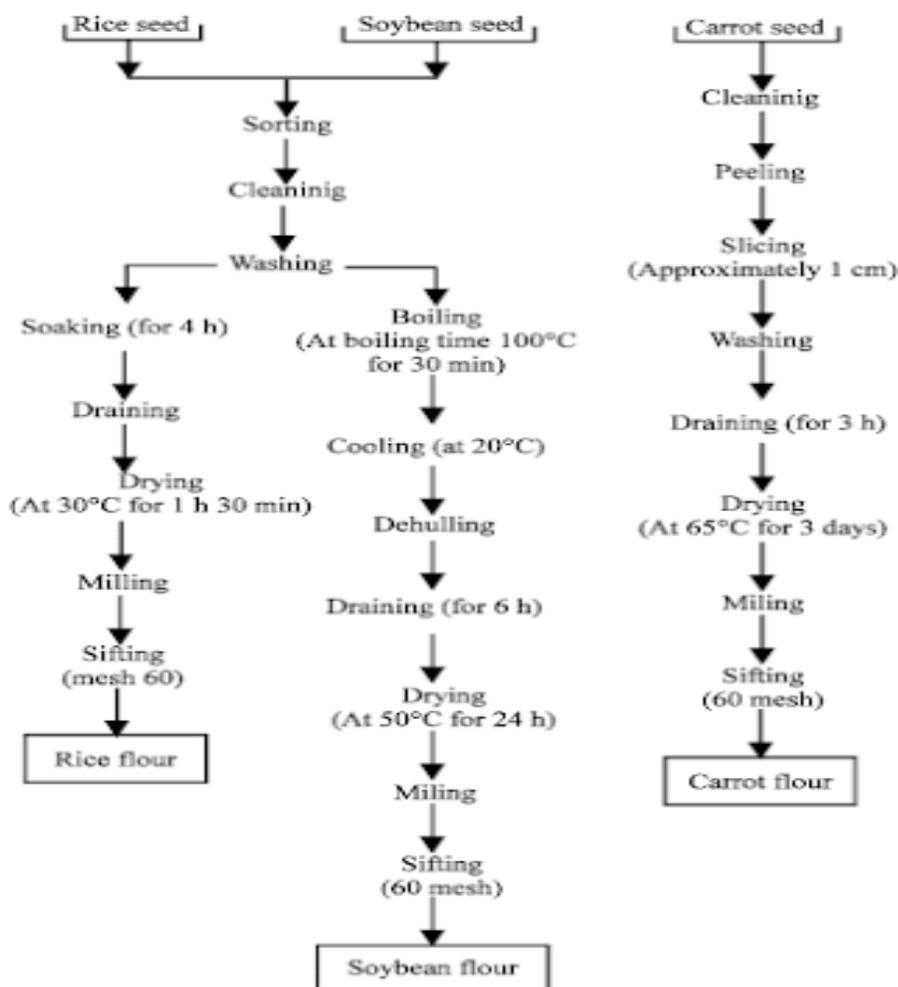


Fig. 2. Process flow sheet for making weaning food for infants and children out of cereal-vegetable flour

5. CONCLUSION

In low-income developed countries, all attempts should be made to tackle malnutrition in infants and children. From the moment they are weaned until they are five years old, babies and children can follow a well-balanced diet. Low-cost complementary foods, such as staples, yellow and green leafy vegetables, legumes and pulses, seasonal fruits, oil seeds, and milk, should be included in baby and child formulas and other food stuff which are locally available in communities. A healthy childhood represents a healthy adulthood and offers good results in academics as well as other facets of life such as socially, politically, and economically. When good nutrition is regarded as the cornerstone of good health, the mortality rate of babies and children is decreased. This analysis is recommended to low-income countries in order to assist in the elimination of hunger by using low-cost food products readily available in their societies to cultivate complementary foods for babies and children

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

1. Shetty P. Malnutrition and under nutrition. *Medicine (Baltimore)*. 2003;31(4):18-22. DOI: 10.1383/medc.31.4.18.27958
2. Diane Holland. The Harmonised Training Package (HTP): Resource material for training on nutrition in emergencies. Tamsin Walters, ed; 2011. Available: http://www.unscn.org/en/gnc_http/.
3. United nations standing committee on nutrition. Module 3: Understanding malnutrition. In: Harmonized Training Package Modules. New York: United Nations; 2011. Available: http://www.unscn.org/en/gnc_http/modul.php?modID=5&docID=15.
4. Anonymous. Action against hunger. What is acute malnutrition?; 2012. Available: <http://www.actionagainsthunger.org.uk/what-we-do/about-acute-malnutrition/what-is-acute-malnutrition/>. Accessed July 1, 2020
5. Prendergast AJ, Humphrey JH. The stunting syndrome in developing countries. *PaediatrInt Child Health*. 2014;34(4): 250-265. DOI: 10.1179/2046905514Y.0000000158
6. Harris G. Poor sanitation in India may afflict well fed children with malnutrition. *The New York Times*. Available: <http://www.nytimes.com/2014/07/15/world/asia/poor-sanitation-in-india-may-afflict-well-fed-children-with-malnutrition.html>. Published July 13, 2014. Accessed: July 18, 2014
7. Ahmad S, Gupta D, Srivastava AK. Studies on development, quality evaluation and storage stability of weaning food prepared from multipurpose flour, papaya powder and milk powder. *Journal of Food Process Technology*. 2013;4:201-205.
8. Black RE, Victora CG, Walker SP, Bhutta ZA, Christian P. Maternal and child under nutrition and overweight in low-income and middle-income countries. *The Lancet*. 2013;9:382-427.
9. Steiber A, Hegazi R, Herrera M, LandyZamor M, Chimanya K, Pekcan AG, Ojwang AA. Spotlight on global malnutrition: A continuing challenge in the 21st century. *Journal of the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics*. 2015;115:1335-1341.
10. UNICEF, WHO and World Bank Group. Levels and trends in child malnutrition: Joint child malnutrition estimate; 2017. Available: https://econpapers.repec.org/scripts/redirect.pf?u=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.esocialsciences.org%2FDownload%2FrepecDownload.aspx%3Ffname%3DA2018125121249_20.pdf%26category%3DArticles%26AId%3D12424%26ref%3Drepec;h=repec:ess:wpaper:id:12424 [10 PM, 27th December 2019].
11. Bhutta ZA, Ahmed T, Black RE, Cousens S, Dewey K, Giugliani E, Haider BA, Kirkwood B, Morris SS, Sachdev HPS, Shekar M. What works? Interventions for maternal and child undernutrition and survival. *The lancet*, 2008;371(9610):417-440.
12. FAO 2017. Rapport de la FAO sur «De nombreux défis menacent l'avenir de la sécurité alimentaire mondiale», Available: <http://www.fao.org/news/story/fr/item/471650/icode/> Accessed 14 Aout 2020.
13. Sheetal A, Hiremath VK, Patil AG, Sajjansetty S, Sheetal-Kumar R. Malnutrition and its oral outcome – A

- review. *Journal of Clinical and Diagnostic Research*. 2013;7(1):178–180.
14. Gilgen D, Mascie-Taylor CG, Rosetta L. Intestinal helminth infections, anaemia and labour productivity of female tea pluckers in Bangladesh. *Tropical Medicine and International Health*. 2001;6:449–457.
 15. Duggan MB. Prevention of childhood malnutrition: Immensity of the challenge and variety of strategies. *PaediatrInt Child Health*. 2014;34(4):271-278. DOI: 10.1179/2046905514Y.0000000139
 16. Forrester TE, Badaloo AV, Boyne M. S. Prenatal factors contribute to the emergence of kwashiorkor or marasmus in severe under nutrition: evidence for the predictive adaptation model. *PLoS One*. 2012;7(4):e35907.
 17. Monteiro MDO, Akre CJ, Clugston G. Global Database on Child Growth and Malnutrition The worldwide magnitude of protein - energy malnutrition : an overview from the WHO Global Database on Child Growth. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*; 2015.
 18. Badaloo AV, Forrester T, Reid M, Jahoor F. Lipid kinetic differences between children with kwashiorkor and those with marasmus. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*. 2006;83:1283–1288.
 19. Raynaud-Simon A, Revel-Delhom C, Hebuterne X. Clinical practice guidelines from the French health high authority: Nutritional support strategy in protein-energy malnutrition in the elderly. *Clinical Nutrition*. 2011;30(3):312–319.
 20. Ahmed T, Rahman S, Cravioto A. Oedematous malnutrition. *Indian Journal of Medical Research*. 2009;130:651–654.
 21. Manary MJ, Brewster DR. Potassium supplementation in kwashiorkor. *Journal of Pediatric Gastroenterology and Nutrition*. 1997;24:194–201.
 22. World Food Programme (WFP) and UNICEF, ending childhood hunger and under nutrition initiative: Revised global framework for action, UNICEF, New York; 2006.
 23. Kotut J, Wafula S, Etyang G, Mbagaya G. Protein-energy malnutrition among women of child bearing age in semi-arid areas of Keiyo District. Kenya. *Advances in Life Science and Technology*. 2014;24:80–91.
 24. Faber M, Wenhold F. Nutrition in contemporary South Africa. *Water SA*, 2007;33:393–400.
 25. Nnakwe N. The effect and causes of protein-energy malnutrition in Nigerian children. *Nutrition Research*. 1995;15(6): 785-794.
 26. Ubesie AC, Ibeziakor NS. High burden of protein–energy malnutrition in Nigeria: Beyond the health care setting. *Annals of Medical and Health Sciences Research*. 2012;2:66–69.
 27. Stevens GA, Finucane MM, De-Regil LM, Paciorek CJ, Flaxman SR, Branca F, et al. Global, regional, and national trends in haemoglobin concentration and prevalence of total and severe anaemia in children and pregnant and non-pregnant women for 1995–2011: A systematic analysis of population-representative data. *Lancet Global Health*. 2013;1:e16–e25.
 28. Corapci F, Radan AE, Lozoff B. Iron deficiency in infancy and mother–child interaction at 5 years. *Journal of Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics*. 2006;27:371–378.
 29. Lozoff B, Smith JB, Clark KM, Perales CG, Rivera F, Castillo M. Home intervention improves cognitive and social–emotional scores in iron-deficient anemic infants. *Pediatrics*. 2010;126:e884–e894.
 30. Chang S, Wang L, Wang Y, Brouwer ID, Kok FJ, Lozoff B, et al. Iron-deficiency anemia in infancy and social emotional development in preschool-aged Chinese children. *Pediatrics*. 2011;127: e927–e933
 31. Lozoff B, Corapci F, Burden MJ, Kaciroti N, Angulo-Barroso R, Sazawa S, et al. Preschool-aged children with iron deficiency anemia show altered affect and behavior. *Journal of Nutrition*. 2007; 137:683–689.
 32. World Health Organization. Global prevalence of vitamin A deficiency in populations at risk 1995-2005: WHO global database on vitamin A deficiency; 2009.
 33. Stevens GA, Bennett JE, Hennocq Q, Lu Y, De-Regil LM, Rogers L, Danaei G, Li G, White RA, Flaxman SR, et al. Trends and mortality effects of vitamin A deficiency in children in 138 low-income and middle-income countries between 1991 and 2013: A pooled analysis of population-based surveys. *Lancet Glob. Health*. 2015;3:528–536.
 34. UNICEF. Division of Communication. Tracking progress on child and maternal nutrition: A survival and development priority. UNICEF; 2009.

35. Beaton G, Martorell R, Aronson K, Edmonston B, McCabe G, Ross A, Harvey B. Effectiveness of Vitamin A supplementation in the control of young child morbidity and mortality in developing countries. Administrative Committee on Coordination–Subcommittee on Nutrition (ACC/SCN): Geneva, Switzerland; 1993.
36. Benoist B de, Andersson M, Egli I, Takkouche B, Allen H, WHO, et al. Iodine status worldwide WHO global database on iodine deficiency. Geneva: World Health Organization, Department of nutrition for health and development; 2004.
37. Nussey S, Whitehead S, eds. The thyroid gland. In: Endocrinology: An integrated approach Edi. Oxford, UK: BIOS Scientific Publishers; 2001.
38. Maywald M, Rink L. Zinc homeostasis and immunosenescence. Journal of trace elements in medicine and biology: organ of the Society for Minerals and Trace Elements (GMS). 2015; 29:24-30.
39. Haase H, Rink L. Functional significance of zinc-related signaling pathways in immune cells. Annual review of nutrition. 2009; 29:133-52.
40. Wellinghausen N, Martin M, Rink L. Zinc inhibits interleukin-1-dependent T cell stimulation. Eur J Immunol. 1997; 27:2529-35.
41. Honscheid A, Rink L, Haase H. T-lymphocytes: a target for stimulatory and inhibitory effects of zinc ions. Endocrine, metabolic & immune disorders drug targets. 2009;9:132-44.
42. Beyersmann D, Haase H. Functions of zinc in signaling, proliferation and differentiation of mammalian cells. Biometals. 2001;14:331-41.
43. Beck FW, Prasad AS, Kaplan J, Fitzgerald JT, Brewer GJ. Changes in cytokine production and T cell subpopulations in experimentally induced zinc-deficient humans. Am J Physiol. 1997; 272:E1002-7.
44. Ibs KH, Rink L. Zinc-altered immune function. J Nutr. 2003;133:1452S-6S.
45. Sprietsma JE. Zinc-controlled Th1/Th2 switch significantly determines development of diseases. Med Hypotheses. 1997;49:1-14.
46. Fischer Walker C, Black RE. Zinc and the risk for infectious disease. Annu Rev Nutr. 2004;24:255-75.
47. Niedermeier W, Griggs JH. Trace metal composition of synovial fluid and blood serum of patients with rheumatoid arthritis. Journal of chronic diseases. 1971; 23:527-36.
48. Maret W. Zinc in pancreatic islet biology, insulin sensitivity, and diabetes. Preventive nutrition and food science. 2017;22:1-8.
49. Bredholt M, Frederiksen JL. Zinc in multiple sclerosis: A systematic review and meta-analysis. ASN neuro. 2016;8.
50. Xin L, Yang X, Cai G, Fan D, Xia Q, Liu L, et al. Serum levels of copper and zinc in patients with rheumatoid arthritis: A meta-analysis. Biological Trace Element Research. 2015; 168:1-10.
51. Stelmashook EV, Isaev NK, Genrikhs EE, Amelkina GA, Khaspekov LG, Skrebitsky VG, et al. Role of zinc and copper ions in the pathogenetic mechanisms of Alzheimer's and Parkinson's diseases. Biochemistry Biokhimiia. 2014;79:391-6.
52. Szewczyk B. Zinc homeostasis and neurodegenerative disorders. Frontiers in aging neuroscience. 2013;5:33.
53. Alder H, Taccioli C, Chen H, Jiang Y, Smalley KJ, Fadda P, et al. Dysregulation of miR-31 and miR-21 induced by zinc deficiency promotes esophageal cancer. Carcinogenesis. 2012;33:1736-44.
54. Ressnerova A, Raudenska M, Holubova M, Svobodova M, Polanska H, Babula P, et al. Zinc and Copper Homeostasis in Head and Neck Cancer: Review and Meta-Analysis. Current medicinal chemistry. 2016;23:1304-30.
55. Maret W. Zinc, human disease. Met Ions Life Sci. 2013;13:389-414.
56. Overbeck S, Rink L, Haase H. Modulating the immune response by oral zinc supplementation: a single approach for multiple diseases. Archivumimmunologiaeetherapiae experimentalis. 2008; 56:15-30.
57. Bryce J, Boschi-Pinto C, Shibuya K, Black RE, WHO Child Health Epidemiology Reference Group. WHO estimates of the causes of death in children. The Lancet 2005;365(9465):1147-1152.
58. Rudan I, Boschi-Pinto C, Biloglav Z, Mulholland K, Campbell H. Epidemiology and etiology of childhood pneumonia. Bulletin of the World Health Organization. 2008;86:408-416B.
59. O'Sullivan A, Sheffrin SM. economics: Principles in action. Upper Saddle River,

- New Jersey 07458: Pearson Prentice Hall. 2003;471.
ISBN 978-0-13-063085-8
60. Althor G, Watson JE, Fuller RA. Global mismatch between greenhouse gas emissions and the burden of climate change". *Scientific Reports*. 2016;6(1): 20281. Bibcode:2016NatSR...620281A. DOI: 10.1038/srep20281
PMC 4742864. PMID 26848052
 61. Young L. *World Hunger* Routledge Introductions to Development.2002;20. ISBN 9781134774944.
 62. Grantham-McGregor Sally, et al. The international child development steering group. Developmental potential in the first 5 years for children in developing countries. *Lancet* 369.9555. 2007;60–70. PMC. Web. 28 Nov. 2014.
 63. Bhutta ZA, Das JK, Rizvi A, Gaffey MF, Walker N, Horton S, Webb P, Lartey A, Black RE. Evidence-based interventions for improvement of maternal and child nutrition: what can be done and at what cost?. *Lancet*. 2013;382(9890):452–477. DOI: 10.1016/s0140-6736(13)60996-4. PMID: 23746776. S2CID 11748341
 64. UNICEF, *Committing to Child Survival. A Promise Renewed progress report 2013*. New York; 2013.
Available:http://www.unicef.org/publications/files/APR_Progress_Report_2013_9_Sept_2013.pdf. Accessed 1 November 2020.
 65. Kumssa DB, Joy EJM, Ander EL, Watts MJ, Young SD, Walker S, Broadley MR. Dietary calcium and zinc deficiency risks are decreasing but remain prevalent. *Scientific Reports*. 2015;5:1-11.
Available:<https://doi.org/10.1038/srep10974>
 66. Muthayya S, Rah JH, Sugimoto JD, Roos FF, Kraemer K, Black RE. The Global Hidden Hunger Indices and Maps: An Advocacy Tool for Action. *PLoS ONE*. 2013;8(6):1-12.
Available:<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0067860>
 67. Michaelsen KF. Child growth. *World Review of Nutrition and Dietetics*. 2015; 113:1-5.
Available:<https://doi.org/10.1159/000360310>
 68. Skau JKH, Bunthang T, Chamnan C, Wieringa FT, Dijkhuizen MA, Roos N, Ferguson EL. The use of linear programming to determine whether a formulated complementary food product can ensure adequate nutrients for 6-to 11-month-old Cambodian infants. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*. 2014;99(1): 130-138.
Available:<https://doi.org/10.3945/ajcn.113.073700>
 69. Baranwal K, Gupta VM, Mishra RN, Prakasht N and Pandey ON. Factors influencing the nutritional status of under-five (1-5years) children in urban-slum area of Varanasi. *Indian association of preventive and social medicine, Uttar Pradesh and Uttarakhand State Chapter*; 2010.
 70. Nyaruhucha CM, Msuya JM, Mamiro PS, Kerengi AJ. Nutritional status and feeding practices of under-five children in Samanjiro District, Tanzania. *Tanzania Health Research Bulletin*. 2006;8(30):162-167.
 71. Kumar D, Goel NK, Mittal PC, Misra F. Influence of infant-feeding practices on nutritional status of under-five children. *Indian Journal of Pediatrics*. 2006;73(50): 417-21.
 72. Olack B, Burke H, Cosmas L, Bamrah S, Dooling K, Feikin DR, Talley LE, Breiman RF. Nutritional status of under-five children living in an informal urban settlement in Nairobi, Kenya. *Journal of Health Population and Nutrition*. 2011;29(4):357-363.
 73. Asindi AA, Ibia EO, Udo JJ. Mortality pattern among Nigerian children in the 1980s. *Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*. 1990;94:152-5.
 74. Chen LC. Primary health care in developing countries: Overcoming operational, technical and social barriers. *Lancet*. 1986;2:1260-5.
 75. Sufiyan MB, Bashir SS, Umar AA. Effect of maternal literacy on nutritional status of children under 5 years of age in the Babban- Dodo community of Zaria city, Northwest Nigeria. *Annals of Nigerian Medicine*. 2012;6(2):61- 64.
 76. Ali SS, Haider SS, Karim N, Billo AG. Association of literacy of mothers with malnutrition among children under three years of age in rural area of District Malir, Karachi. *Journal of Pakistan Medical Association*. 2005;2(3):13-19.
 77. Glewwe P, Jacoby HG, King EM. Early childhood nutrition and academic achievement: A longitudinal analysis.

- Journal of Public Economics. 2001;81(3): 345-368.
78. Desai S, Alva S. Maternal education and child health: Is there a strong causal relationship? *Demography*. 1998;35(1):71-81.
79. Chaudhury MSI, Akhter N, Haque M, Aziz R, Nahar N. Serum total protein and albumin levels in different grades of protein energy malnutrition. *Journal of Bangladesh Society of Physiologist*. 2009;3(11):234-245.
80. Reutlinger S, Selowsky M. Malnutrition and poverty: Magnitude and policy options. World Bank Staff Occasional Papers, No. 23, John Hopkins University Press, Baltimore and London; 1976.
81. Oquntin TA. Maternal socio-demographic factors influencing initiation and exclusivity of breastfeeding in a Nigerian semi-urban setting. *Child Health Journal*. 2010;14(3): 459-65.
82. Babatunde RO, Omotesho OA, Sholotan OS. Socio-economic characteristics and food security status of farming households in Kwara State, North-Central Nigeria. *Pakistan Journal of Nutrition*. 2007;6:49-58.
83. Awoyemi, T. T., Odozi, J. C. and Ogunmiyi, A. A., 2012. Environmental and socio-economic correlates of child malnutrition in Iseyin area of Oyo State, Nigeria. *Food and Public Health*. 2(4):92-98.
84. Food and Agricultural Organization. The state of food insecurity in the world. Food and Agricultural Organization, Rome; 2008.
85. Akinyele IO. Ensuring food and nutrition security in rural Nigeria: An assessment of the challenges, information needs, and analytical capacity; 2009.IFPRI – NSSP Background paper No. NSCP007.
86. Chaudhury RH. Effects of mothers' work on child care, dietary intake, and dietary adequacy of pre-school children. International Food and Nutrition Program, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge; 1983.
87. Etim KD, Ejemot-Nwadiaro RI, Kalu RE. A study of malnutrition-dependent factors among under-five children in Ekureku community, Abi Local Government Area of Cross River State, Nigeria. *British Journal of Medicine and Medical Research*. 2016;21(8):1-10.
88. Climate Change. Synthesis report. Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. 2007;12-17. Available:www.intergovernmentalpanelonclimatechange.org.
89. Action against hunger. Underlying causes of malnutrition; 2012. Retrieved: February 13, 2012 at www.actioncontrolafain.cc
90. Battisti DS. Climate change in developing countries. University of Washington, Seattle; 2008. Retrieved from cses.washington.edu/dp/pdf/wacciachadap t654.pdf.
91. Mashal T, Takano T, Kakamura K, Kizuki M, Harmat S, Waranbe M, Seinok L. Factors associated with the health and nutrition of children under 5 years of age in family behavior related to women and past experience of war related hardships. *BMC Public Health*. 2008;8(301):1471-2458.
92. Okomo P, Egali I, Bohwere P, Cercamondi I, Zeder C, Njage P, Owino V. Estimated Iron and Zinc Bioavailability in Soybean-Maize-Sorghum Ready to Use Foods: Effect of Soy Protein Concentrate and Added Phytase. *Journal of Food Processing & Technology*. 2016;07(02):1-5. Available:https://doi.org/10.4172/2157-7110.1000556
93. Gatahun EA, Direseling M, Abyu. Nutrition & Food Sciences Dietary Diversity Feeding Practice and Determinants among Children Aged 6-23 Months in Kemba Woreda , Southern Ethiopia Implication for Public Health Intervention. *Nutrition and Food Sciences*. 2015;13003(13):1-9. Available:https://doi.org/10.4172/2155-9600.1000S13003
94. Shiriki D, Igyor MA, Gernah DI. Nutritional evaluation of complementary food formulations from Maize, Soybean and Peanut Fortified with Moringa oleifera Leaf Powder. *Food and Nutrition Sciences*, 2015;6:494-500. Available:https://doi.org/10.4236/fns.2015.65051
95. Mosha TCE, Laswai HS, I Tetens Nutritional composition and micronutrient status of homemade and commercial complementary foods consumed in Tanzania. *Plant Foods for Human Nutrition*. 2000;55: 185-205.
96. Dewey KG, Brown KH. Update on technical issues concerning

- complementary feeding of young children in developing countries and implications for intervention programs”, Food and Nutrition Bulletin, Vol. 2003;24(1): 5-28.
Available:www.who.int/nutrition/publications/infantfeeding/FNB_24-1_WHO.pdf
97. World Health Organization. Indicators for assessing infant and young child feeding practices. WHO/NUT/2008.1, WHO, Geneva; 2008.
 98. FAO/WHO/UNICEF. Protein-rich mixtures for complementary foods. Protein Advisory Group of the United Nations, PAG guidelines no. 8 New York, 1971.
 99. Agostoni C, Decsi T, Fewtrell M, Goulet O, Kolacek S, Koletzko B, Michaelsen KF, Moreno L, Puntis J, Rigo J, Shamir R. Complementary feeding: A commentary by the ESPGHAN Committee on Nutrition. Journal of Pediatric Gastroenterology and Nutrition. 2008;46:99-110.
 100. Greiner T. The concept of weaning, definitions and their implications. Journal of Human Lactation. 1996;12:123-128.
 101. Malleshi NG. Weaning foods. Regional extension service centre scientific series. Ministry of Food Processing Industries, Government of India. 1988;8:1-40.
 102. Onyeka U, Dibia I. Malted weaning food made from maize, soybean, groundnut and cooking banana. Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture. 2002;82:513-516.
 103. Munasinghe MADD, Jayarathne K, Sarananda KH and Silva KFST. Development of a low cost yoghurt based weaning food for 1-3 years old toddlers by incorporation of mung bean (*Vignaradiata*), Soy bean (*Glycine max*) and Brown Rice (*Oryzasativa*) for the Sri Lankan market. Annual Research Journal of Srilanka Students Association Journal. 2012;12:71-88.
 104. Mohamed AS, Syeda AJ, Nursat A, Taslima A, Kanika M, Abdullah AM and Paul KD. Development of nutritionally enriched instant weaning food and its safety aspects. African Journal of Food Science. 2013;7:238-245.
 105. Balasubramanian S, Kaur J, Singh D. Optimization of weaning mix based on malted and extruded pearl millet and barley. Journal of Food Science and Technology. 2014;51:682-690.
 106. Haile A, Getahun D. Formulation of nutritionally improved mashed food from orange-fleshed sweet potato (Ipomeabatatus) and haricot bean (Phaseolusvulgaris) for pre-school children: The Case of Dale Woreda, Southern Ethiopia. Journal of Food Processing and Technology. 2018;9:2157-7110.
 107. Pandey L, Singh V. Development of nutritional evaluation of weaning foods to prevent protein-energy malnutrition in infants. International Journal of Chemical Studies. 2019;7:05-09.
 108. Annan NT, Plahar WA. Development and quality evaluation of a soy-fortified Ghanaian weaning food. Food Nutr. Bull., 1995;16(3):263-269.
 109. Lartey A, Manu A, Brown KH, Peerson JM, Dewey KG. A randomized, community-based trial of the effects of improved, centrally processed complementary foods on growth and micronutrient status of Ghanaian infants from 6 to 12 months of age. Am. J. Clin. Nutr. 1999;70(3):391-404.
 110. Lartey A, Manu A, Brown KH, Dewey KG. Home, village and central processing of complementary foods: Results of a pilot intervention trial in Ghana. In: Fitzpatrick DW, Anderson JE, Labbe ML, eds. From nutrition science to nutrition practice for better global health: Proceedings of the 16th International Congress of Nutrition. Montreal, Canada. Canadian Federation of Biological Societies, Ottawa, ON, Canada.1997;93-95.
 111. Hallberg L, Hulthen L. Prediction of dietary iron absorption: an algorithm for calculating absorption and bioavailability of dietary iron. Am. J. Clin. Nutr., 2000;71(5):1147-1160.
 112. Greiner R, Konietzny U, Jany KD. Phytate - an undesirable constituent of plant-based foods?. J. Nutr. 2006;8(3):18-28.
 113. Taylor PG, Mendezcastellanos H, Martineztorres C, Jaffe W, Deblanco ML, Landaetajimenez M, Leets I, Tropper E, Ramirez J, Casal MDG, Layrisse M. Iron bioavailability from diets consumed by different socioeconomic strata of the Venezuelan population. J. Nutr. 1995; 125(7):1860-1868.
 114. Hotz C, Gibson RS. Assessment of home-based processing methods to reduce the phytate content and phytate/zinc molar ratio of white maize (*Zea mays*). J. Agric. Food Chem. 2001;49(2):692-698.
 115. Hotz C, Gibson RS, Temple L. A home-based method to reduce phytate content

- and increase zinc bioavailability in maize-based complementary diets. *Int. J. Food Sci. Nutr.* 2001;52(2):133-142.
116. Hurrell RF, Reddy MB, Juillerat MA, Cook JD. Degradation of phytic acid in cereal porridges improves iron absorption by human subjects. *Am. J. Clin. Nutr.*, 2003; 77(5):1213-1219.
117. Egli I, Davidsson L, Juillerat MA, Barclay D, Hurrell RF. The influence of soaking and germination on the phytase activity and phytic acid content of grains and seeds potentially useful for complementary feeding. *J. Food Sci.* 2002;67(9):3484-3488.
118. Pamplona-Roger, Roger D. *Healthy Foods*; 2011.
Available: <https://www.abebooks.com/Healthy-Foods-Pamplona-Roger-George-D-Editorial/21315751508/bd>
119. Lartey A, Manu A, Brown KH, Peerson JM, Dewey KG. Vitamin A status of Ghanaian breast-fed infants 6-12 months fed improved complementary foods. *FASEB J.* 1998;12(5):A648.
120. Lartey A, Manu A, Brown KH, Peerson JM, Dewey KG. Predictors of growth from 1 to 18 months among breast-fed Ghanaian infants. *Eur. J. Clin. Nutr.* 2000b;54(1):41-49.
121. Codex Alimentarius Commission. Codex standard for processed cereal-based foods for infants and young children; 2006. (No. CODEX STAN 074-1981, Rev. 1 - 2006). Rome, Italy: Codex Alimentarius Commission.
Available: www.codexalimentarius.net/download/standards/290/cxs_074e.pdf.
122. Dewey KG, Brown KH. Update on technical issues concerning complementary feeding of young children in developing countries and implications for intervention programs. *Food Nutr. Bull.* (Special Issue Based on a World Health Organization Expert Consultation on Complementary Feeding). 2003;24:5 - 28.
123. Plahar WA, Annan NT. Development of balanced protein energy weaning foods based on local legumes and cereals. Report submitted to the Association of African Universities by Food Research Institute. Accra, Ghana; 1994.
124. Nout RJM. Processed weaning foods for tropical climate. *International Journal Food Science and Nutrition.* 1993;43:213-221.
125. Hofvander Y, Underwood AB. Processed supplementary foods for older infants and young children, with special reference to developing countries. *Food and Nut. Bull.* 1987;9(1):1-7.
126. Wassenaar N. Weaning and weaning foods in the Sudan. *The Ahfad Journal*, 1988;5(2):21-26.
127. World Health Organization. Report of the expert consultation on the optimal duration of exclusive breastfeeding. Switzerland: WHO; 2001.
128. Codex Alimentarius Commission (). Guidelines for formulated supplementary foods for older infants and young children (No. CAC/GL 8). Rome, Italy: Codex Alimentarius Commission; 1991.
Available: http://www.codexalimentarius.net/download/standards/298/CXG_008_e.pdf.
129. Guidelines on formulated complementary foods for older infants and young children; 2013.
Available: <https://www.google.co.in/search?xsrf=ALeKk0193Ae7ef-NtTWvS9vYvSqs4950>

© 2020 Chuwa and Dhiman; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Peer-review history:

The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here:

<http://www.sdiarticle4.com/review-history/66087>