



Child Malnutrition and Recurrent Flooding in Rural Eastern India: A Community-Based Survey

Journal:	<i>BMJ Open</i>
Manuscript ID:	bmjopen-2011-000109
Article Type:	Research
Date Submitted by the Author:	25-Feb-2011
Complete List of Authors:	Rodriguez-Llanes, Jose Manuel; Institute Health and Society - Université catholique de Louvain, CRED - Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters Ranjan-Dash, Shisir; Voluntary Health Association of India Degomme, Olivier; Institute Health and Society - Université catholique de Louvain, CRED - Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters Mukhopadhyay, Alok; Voluntary Health Association of India Guha-Sapir, Debarati; Institute Health and Society - Université catholique de Louvain, CRED - Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters
Subject Heading:	Epidemiology
Keywords:	stunting, chronic disease, nutritional status, natural disaster, development, climate change

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

Child Malnutrition and Recurrent Flooding in Rural Eastern India: A Community-Based Survey

ABSTRACT

Objectives This study aims to improve the understanding of the relationship between exposure to floods and malnutrition in children aged 6 to 59 months in rural India. Research has focused exclusively on Bangladeshi children and few controlled epidemiological studies are available.

Method A community-based cross-sectional study of child nutritional status carried out in 14 flooded and 18 non-flooded villages of Jagatsinghpur district (Orissa) after the September 2008 floods, and similarly affected by flooding in August 2006. Face-to-face interviews were conducted in 785 households in the flooded villages and 816 in the non-flooded communities. Data used in this study were from those households with children 6 to 59 months. In total, 191 and 161 children were measured, respectively. The association between various malnutrition indicators and the exposure to floods was assessed by univariate and multivariate logistic regression.

Results Adjusted analyses revealed that children in flooded households were more likely stunted compared to those in non-flooded ones (APR, 1.60; 95% CI, 1.05-2.44). Children of the poorest families were also more chronically malnourished (APR, 1.85; 95% CI, 1.11-3.09) than those of the richest group. The prevalence of underweight was also higher in children living in the flooded communities (APR, 1.86; 95% CI, 1.04-3.30), those living with one or more under five children (APR, 1.69; 95% CI, 1.05-2.72) and born with lower weights (APR, 1.80; 95% CI, 1.11-2.92). Further analyses found the 26-36 months age group attained the highest levels of stunting and underweight within the flooded areas, thus those younger than one year during the precedent flood in August 2006.

Conclusion Exposure to floods is associated with long-term malnutrition in rural communities of Orissa, India. Children exposed to floods during their first year of life presented higher levels of chronic malnutrition. Long-term malnutrition prevention programs after floods should be implemented in flood-prone areas.

ARTICLE SUMMARY

Article focus

- Study of the connection between flood exposure and childhood malnutrition in rural communities of north eastern India

Key messages

- First study that addresses the health impacts of floods on child malnutrition in India, a country prone to multiple natural disasters
- Climate-related extreme events are projected to increase partly induced by climate change, leading to a higher burden of disaster-related diseases
- Exposure to floods is associated with chronic growth retardation in Indian children, especially in those exposed at very early stages in life

Strengths and limitations of this study

Strengths

- High and consistent survey response rates across flooded and non-flooded communities
- Use of standard methodology, including high precision WHO standards to assess malnutrition

Limitations

- The study does not establish causal relationship but an association between floods and childhood malnutrition
- Study only representative of the children 6 to 59 months living in 29 rural communities

INTRODUCTION

Floods are the most common reported natural disaster worldwide, [1] with important impact on the health of human populations. [2, 3] Their effects are especially dramatic in developing countries of south and south-east Asia. [4] Flooding has demonstrated serious impacts on crop productivity in the past, [5, 6] and the projected higher global temperatures may have nonlinear and increasingly negative impacts on existing agricultural activities [7], particularly on vulnerable countries of south Asia and southern Africa where insufficient adaptation measures are planned. [8] Crop yield variation induced by climate change has been suggested as one of the potential mechanisms leading to malnutrition. [9] Despite these presumed linkages, a recent review has pointed out limited evidence on the health effects of floods in controlled epidemiological studies, particularly of morbidity. [3] Though some studies have examined mortality, disease or mental health, there is little research on the association between floods and children's nutritional health, and this evidence is geographically restricted to flood-prone areas of Bangladesh. [10-13]

This is particularly worrying since children are vulnerable to environmental adversities because of their greater exposure, greater sensitivity to certain exposures, and their dependence on caregivers. [14, 15] For this reason, increased weather variability predicted by climatic models is expected to lead to a rise in the health risks of this age group, associated with more frequent extremes like droughts and floods. [14-16]

The deleterious consequences of poor nutrition are well recognized. Undernutrition is a primary cause of ill-health and premature mortality among children in developing countries. [17] Therefore, malnutrition affects children during critical phases of their early cognitive, social, motor and emotional development, and has been associated with poor school performance. [18, 19] Poverty and food security are also risk factors which have been found to be associated with poor early development in children. [20] Thus, these disadvantaged children are less likely to become productive adults, [18] perpetuating the cycle of poor human development. [20]

India is one of the most disaster-prone countries in the world. [1] The Indian state of Orissa, located by the Bay of Bengal, is vulnerable to multiple disasters, like tropical cyclones, storm surges, floods and tsunamis. Its densely populated coastal plains are the alluvial deposits of its river systems. These rivers, with heavy load of silt, have very little carrying capacity, what results in frequent floods. The state of Orissa suffered heavy loss of life and property during the cyclone Paradip that hit the state in October 1999. [21] As a consequence, an autonomous relief and coordination body was created in the state, the Orissa State Disaster Mitigation Authority (OSDMA). Since then, this agency has been actively working in disaster management, prevention, risk reduction and relief activities. [22] Complementary to long

1
2
3 term poverty alleviation programs, there are also short term food aid governmental
4 programs to help the victims of disasters within the country (SRD, personal communication).
5
6

7 Despite a rising awareness on understanding the health effects of extreme weather events,
8 [14, 23, 24] limited evidence is available at present. [3, 10, 11, 12, 13] Specifically, without a
9 better understanding of the mechanisms which produce and maintain high levels of
10 malnutrition in developing countries, policy makers lack crucial information to design
11 specific and effective intervention plans to reduce its prevalence among children. This is
12 especially critical in the face of the foreseen long-lasting intensification of the water cycle
13 [25] and the rise of human vulnerability to extreme weather events. [26]
14
15
16

17
18 The most recent floods occurring in Orissa in September 2008 provided an opportunity to
19 compare the nutritional status in a representative sample of the children aged 6-59 months
20 living in 13 flooded communities and those inhabiting 16 other non-flooded nearby villages.
21 We aimed to identify other social, health and economic determinants of child malnutrition,
22 including possible interactions with flood exposure, which may aggravate their situation.
23
24
25

26 27 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

28
29 This study used a cross-sectional design to collect data on a representative sample of the
30 children 6 to 59 months living in flooded and non-flooded communities of Orissa right after
31 the September 2008 floods. We used anthropometric measurements to assess child
32 malnutrition and face-to-face interviews to investigate their social, health and economic
33 context.
34
35
36

37 **Study area**

38
39 The study site was Jagatsinghpur, a coastal district located in the state of Orissa, eastern
40 India. The Devi, Mahanadi, Kathajodi and Biluakhai are the four main rivers in the area. The
41 district covers a geographical area of 1 914.6 squared km. [22] The district is organized into
42 one subdivision, four tehsils and eight blocks and has a population of 1 057 629 with 90%
43 residing in rural areas (2001 census). [27] The district has been severely hit by five major
44 floods in the last decade, the one following the cyclone Paradip (05B) in 1999, followed by
45 heavy floods in 2001, 2003, and 2006. [22] The last floods, starting in mid September 2008,
46 produced large devastation with 2.4 million people homeless and a death toll of 173. [1]
47
48
49
50
51

52 **Data source**

53
54 This study was conducted under the MICRODIS project, through a EC Framework 6 Research
55 grant. The overall goal of this project was to strengthen preparedness, mitigation and
56 prevention strategies in order to reduce the health, social and economic impacts of extreme
57 events on communities. The consortium consists of a total of 19 academic institutions and
58 grassroots organizations, administering empirical work in selected flood, storm and
59
60

1
2
3 earthquake sites in Asia and Europe, along with the development of integrated assessment
4 methods and tools. This specific research was led by the Voluntary Health Association of
5 India (VHA) in collaboration with the Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters
6 – Université catholique de Louvain (CRED-UCL). The main objective of the present survey
7 was to assess jointly the economic, social and health impact of floods in Orissa, India. The
8 data presented here focuses on the impacts of floods on child malnutrition.
9
10
11

12 **Sample selection**

13
14
15 After discussions with the district administration, the 5 worst affected blocks (Kujanga,
16 Biridi, Balikuda, Tirtol and Ersama) were selected for further sampling. The Orissa State
17 Disaster Mitigation Authority (OSDMA), a governmental agency in charge of statewide
18 disaster relief operations, provided the list of the flooded villages within the selected blocks.
19 Logistic considerations limited our study to 14 accessible flooded villages. Eighteen non-
20 flooded nearby villages of similar size were selected as comparison group. These 14 and 18
21 villages were also inundated and non-inundated, respectively, during previous floods
22 occurring in August 2006. We cross-checked our survey data with OSDMA reports to
23 validate this information. About 10% of households in each selected village were surveyed
24 (Figure 1). In three small villages, one flooded and two non-flooded, none of the eligible
25 children could be measured and consequently were excluded from the study population.
26 The study population was defined as those children aged 6 to 59 months of the remaining
27 29 villages, which represented less than 5% of the total population and were present,
28 overall, in less than 25% of the households surveyed (Table S1). The list of the children 6 to
29 59 months were obtained at the ICDS (Integrated Child Development Scheme) center at
30 each village. A household was defined as a group of people who usually live under the same
31 roof and share a common kitchen. If an adult member or any eligible children 6 to 59
32 months was not at home at the time of the survey, the survey team returned to the
33 household later. The maximum number of visits per household was fixed at three. For
34 household selection, we used a modified EPI 'random walk' method. [28, 29] At the centre
35 of the village, a team member spun a pen, following the direction pointed by the pen up to
36 the limit of the village. The same procedure was repeated from the new location to
37 randomly choose a direction in which to conduct the survey. A random direction is selected
38 each time that a bifurcation is encountered. Random numbers are generated to select the
39 households. Overall, 85.2% of eligible children were measured and their parents
40 interviewed. The response rate was consistent across the flooded (84%) and non-flooded
41 communities (86.6%). Thirty-two children were not measured in the flooded households.
42 Five of them have recently died and 27 stayed with relatives in different villages. In the non-
43 flooded communities, twenty-two children were unavailable. Nineteen of these children
44 moved with their parents elsewhere and other 3 died (Figure 1).
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58

59 **Instruments, training and pilot testing**

60

1
2
3 Anthropometric measurements of children and adapted questionnaires were used to obtain
4 the information on anthropometrics, household characteristics and other children variables.
5 Fourteen interviewers, three supervisors and one data manager were specifically trained for
6 this study during a three days workshop organized by the Voluntary Health Association of
7 India (VHAI) under the supervision of The MICRODIS project university partners, local
8 government officers and other local researchers. The questionnaires were pre-tested in 45
9 households to refine it before starting data collection. The questionnaire was translated to
10 the local language in Orissa (Oriya) and then back translated into English by two different
11 translators. Field work was carried out between 6 October and 19 November 2008.

12
13
14
15
16
17 Weight and height of every child were measured twice to minimize measurement errors and
18 increase precision by using their average value. Weight measurements were undertaken to
19 the nearest 100 grams using a 10 kg beam balance (Raman Surgical Co., Delhi-33, India) and
20 a 50 kg standard electronic balance. For children younger than 2 years of age, length was
21 measured to the nearest millimeter in the recumbent position using an infantometer
22 (Narang Medical Ltd. Delhi - 110 028, India). Children older than 2 years were measured in a
23 standing position using a measuring board. All instruments were calibrated daily.

24 25 26 27 28 **Outcome measures, exposure and confounders**

29
30 The outcomes of this study were three anthropometric indices, stunting (height-for-age),
31 underweight (weight-for-age) and wasting (weight-for-height). Stunting is an indicator of
32 chronic malnutrition whereas wasting often assesses acute nutritional stress within a
33 population. Underweight combines the previous two, widely used for its operational value.
34 The new World Health Organization (WHO) standard, based on healthy optimally fed
35 children from different cultures, was used to calculate the z scores for these indicators.
36 Malnutrition was a binary variable indicating whether a children is malnourished, z score <-2
37 (1) or not (0) at the time of the interview. The fundamental variable of this study was the
38 level of children exposure to floods, measured as whether the village was flooded (1) or not
39 (0), according to the list provided by the authorities (see Sample selection). Therefore,
40 thirteen other variables included information at the household and individual (children)
41 level (Table 1). In the first group, we recorded the number of persons residing in each
42 household (household size) measured as a continuous variable, number of children younger
43 than 5 years living in a household, dichotomized as one (0) or otherwise (1). The main
44 occupation of the household was recorded in detailed categories and later recoded as non
45 manual (reference), agricultural, manual and unemployed. Two religions were present in the
46 study area, Hinduism, taken as the reference group, and Muslim. Caste of the household
47 was based on the household head and was grouped as scheduled caste, other backward
48 class or general class (reference category). The general class represents the higher caste
49 status in India. The scheduled caste is the social group historically subject to the higher
50 deprivation levels in the country. Monthly household income (in thousand Indian rupees
51 INR) was collected from respondents as a continuous variable and recoded into four
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 categories: ≤ 3 , $> 3-6$, $> 6-9$ and > 9 , chosen as the reference category. The household source
4 of drinking water at the time of the interview was recorded in a detailed questionnaire
5 (Table 1) and recoded as whether they were more secure sources, such as wells and taps (0)
6 or unsecure such as surface water (1), consumed in the flooded areas (Table 2, 3 and S3).
7 The storage of cooked food was also listed using a detailed questionnaire and dichotomized
8 into closed containers (0) and open containers (1).
9
10
11

12 Within the second group, a number of individual variables were recorded. Birth weights
13 were obtained from birth certificates and/or vaccination cards available and were coded as
14 a binary variable above and below the median. Sex was a binary variable. Age was recorded
15 from birth certificates and/or vaccination cards in most cases (85% of respondents). If these
16 were not available, local calendars were used otherwise to approximate them. Children
17 were classified by the reported age into the following groups (in months): 6 to 18, 18 to 26,
18 26 to 36, 36 to 46, and 46 to 59. This classification was purposive for analyses undertaken in
19 this study. Children immunization coverage was obtained from vaccination cards available.
20 Children fully vaccinated, proved with vaccination card, against Polio (3 doses), Tuberculosis
21 (1 dose), Measles (1 dose), Hepatitis E (3 doses), Diphtheria and Tetanus toxoid and
22 Pertussis (3 doses) were classified as those with full immunization coverage (0), otherwise
23 partially immunized (1).
24
25
26
27
28
29
30

31 **Power analysis**

32
33 We calculated the sample size assuming a two thirds prevalence of malnutrition in non-
34 flooded compared to flooded households, with α (error) = 0.05 and $1-\beta$ (power) = 0.80,
35 using the average percentage of stunting in Orissa state (children < 5 years) as the
36 prevalence for the flooded area (45) [30] and two thirds (30) as a conservative approximate
37 for the non-flooded. A sample size of 328 children, 164 in flooded and 164 in non-flooded
38 areas, was required.
39
40
41
42

43 **Data analysis**

44
45 Malnutrition indices were calculated using ENA for SMART version November 2008 (Erhardt
46 and Golden 2008). The new World Health Organization (WHO) standard, based on healthy
47 optimally fed children from different cultures, was used to calculate z scores. Statistical
48 analyses were conducted in R version 2.10.1 (R Development Core Team 2008). [31] Missing
49 data were rare. Data were missing on underweight and wasting in 1 and 5 respondents,
50 respectively. In 1 respondent, data were missing on income, number of children under five
51 and household size. Data were missing on caste in 2 respondents, and on food storage in 1
52 respondent.
53
54
55
56

57
58 In cross-sectional epidemiological research studying rare outcomes, the odds ratio (OR) is
59 very close to the relative risk (RR). If the outcome is common as it is the case in this study
60 (i.e. prevalence > 10%), ORs tend to differ from RRs. Prevalence ratios (PR), as named in this
study, were then used instead of prevalence odds ratio (POR), to avoid confusion in the

interpretation of the results. [32, 33] Quasi-binomial models were used to avoid overdispersion. Additionally, starting values and increasing the number of iterations were necessary to fit these models. [34] GLM quasi-binomial models were used to explore bivariate associations between malnutrition and independent variables, reported as crude (unadjusted) PRs with their associated 95% confidence intervals (CIs). Multivariate (adjusted) models were used to identify variables predictive of malnutrition, controlling for all other variables in the model. Two-way interactions were examined for significant parameters in the adjusted models ($p < 0.05$). Alpha level was set at 5% and all statistical tests were two sided.

RESULTS

Demographic Characteristics

Table 1 reports characteristics of the sample by exposure group. More nonmanual (18.4%) and less agricultural work (31.6%) were reported by the respondents in the flooded communities compared to the non-flooded (11.8% and 40.4%, respectively). The higher proportion of Muslim in the flooded group (27.8%) was due to a large Muslim population living in a single village. More individuals from the scheduled caste were living in the flooded communities (21.9%) compared to the non-flooded (12.1%). The access to safe drinking water was limited right after the floods and 32.3% of the respondents affirmed to drink surface water.

Table 1 Characteristics of 294 Households and 352 Children in 29 Study Villages in Orissa, India*

Characteristics	Flooded (n = 13)	Non-Flooded (n = 16)
Household variables		
No. of households with any children 6-59 mo measured	158	136
Total No. of persons residing in household, mean (SD)	7.2 (2.8)	7.5 (2.9)
No. of children younger than 5 y		
1	116 (73.9)	97 (71.3)
≥ 2	41 (26.1)	39 (28.7)
Occupation		
Not working	14 (8.9)	16 (11.8)
Nonmanual	29 (18.4)	16 (11.8)
Agricultural	50 (31.6)	55 (40.4)
Manual	65 (41.1)	49 (36.0)
Religion		
Hindu	114 (72.2)	135 (99.3)
Muslim	44 (27.8)	1 (0.7)
Caste		
Scheduled caste	33 (21.9)	17 (12.1)
Other backward class	82 (54.3)	81 (58.1)
General class	36 (23.8)	42 (29.8)
Monthly income, thousand INR		

	≤ 3	18 (11.5)	16 (11.8)
	> 3-6	63 (40.1)	67 (49.3)
	> 6-9	24 (15.3)	30 (22.1)
	> 9	52 (33.1)	23 (16.9)
Source of drinking water			
	Tap in house	1 (0.6)	7 (5.1)
	Tube well	103 (65.2)	111 (81.6)
	Communal tap	2 (1.3)	8 (5.9)
	Protected dug well	1 (0.6)	10 (7.4)
	Surface water	51 (32.3)	0 (0)
Storage of cooked food			
	Open container	15 (9.5)	14 (10.4)
	Closed container	140 (88.6)	119 (88.1)
	Refrigerator	3 (1.9)	2 (1.5)
Child variables			
	No. of children 6-59 mo measured	191	161
Birth weight, kg			
	< 2.7	87 (45.5)	86 (53.4)
	≥ 2.7	104 (54.5)	75 (46.6)
Sex			
	Female	81 (42.4)	76 (47.2)
	Male	110 (57.6)	85 (52.8)
	Age, mo ^a	30.0 (1.0)	32.1 (1.1)
Immunization coverage ^b			
	Total	22 (11.5)	42 (26.1)
	Partial	169 (88.5)	119 (73.9)
Abbreviations: INR, Indian rupee			
*Information for income, household size and number of children younger than 5 y could not be determined in 1 household of a flooded village. The caste of 1 household in a flooded village and 1 household in a non-flooded village could not be determined. The type of storage of cooked food in 1 household of a non-flooded village could not be obtained. Description of variables is the absolute number of household or children associated to each characteristic (percentage of the total) except where otherwise indicated.			
^a Child age is reported as mean (SE).			
^b Total immunization includes children vaccinated, confirmed with vaccination card, against Polio (OPV - 3 doses), Tuberculosis (BCG - 1 dose), Measles (MCV - 1 dose), Hepatitis B (HEPB - 3 doses), Diphtheria and Tetanus toxoid and Pertussis (DPT - 3 doses).			

Child Malnutrition

Overall prevalences of stunting, underweight and wasting were 31.5%, 17.4% and 12.1%, respectively (Table S2). However, the prevalence of stunting was 38.7% in the flooded cohort compared to 23.0% in the non-flooded cohort. Similarly, the prevalence of underweight was more important in the children living in flooded communities (20.9%) compared to those inhabiting non-flooded villages (13.1%). Wasting was very similar in children experiencing flooding and those populating non-flooded areas, with 12.2% and 11.9%, respectively (Table S2).

Factors Associated with Stunting

Table 2 shows the crude and adjusted associations between stunting and exposure to floods, household size, number of children younger than 5 years, occupation, religion, caste, monthly family income, source of drinking water (at the time of the interview), storage of cooked food, child birth weight, sex, age and immunization coverage. In the bivariate model, exposure to floods, religion and family income were associated with stunting. Muslim children were at higher risk of being stunted, but this difference did not remain statistically significant in the multivariate model. In the adjusted analysis, controlling for all variables in the table, children living in flooded households were more likely stunted compared to those living in non-flooded communities (adjusted PR [APR], 1.60; 95% CI, 1.05-2.44). The children of the poorest families (those reporting to earn equal or less than three thousand rupees a year) were also more likely stunted compared to those in the higher income class (APR, 1.85; 95% CI, 1.11-3.09). The interaction between monthly household income and exposure to floods was not significant.

Table 2 Factors Associated with Stunting in Children Aged 6 to 59 Months in 29 Study Villages in Orissa, India (N=352)^a

Factor	Stunting			
	Crude PR (95% CI)	P Value	Adjusted PR (95% CI)	P Value
Flood exposure level				
Household in non-flooded village	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
Household in flooded village	1.69 (1.21-2.36)	0.002	1.60 (1.05-2.44)	0.031
Household size	0.99 (0.94-1.04)	0.74	1.00 (0.94-1.06)	0.96
No. of children younger than 5 y				
1	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
≥ 2	1.14 (0.74-1.39)	0.93	0.91 (0.64-1.28)	0.58
Occupation				
Nonmanual	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
Agricultural	0.89 (0.55-1.45)	0.65	1.10 (0.63-1.94)	0.73
Manual	1.03 (0.64-1.66)	0.89	1.18 (0.69-2.01)	0.55
Not working	1.12 (0.62-2.15)	0.70	1.33 (0.72-2.45)	0.37
Religion				
Hindu	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
Muslim	1.46 (1.03-2.07)	0.036	1.30 (0.76-2.22)	0.34
Caste				
General class	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
Scheduled caste	1.29 (0.80-2.07)	0.30	1.16 (0.70-1.91)	0.56
Other backward class	1.16 (0.79-1.70)	0.46	1.08 (0.69-1.68)	0.74
Monthly income, thousand INR				
> 9	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
> 6-9	0.84 (0.49-1.44)	0.52	1.02 (0.58-1.81)	0.94
> 3-6	1.11 (0.74-1.65)	0.61	1.20 (0.77-1.88)	0.42
≤ 3	1.65 (1.04-2.36)	0.032	1.85 (1.11-3.09)	0.019

Source of drinking water (at the time of the interview)					
Well and tap	1 [Reference]			1 [Reference]	
Surface water	1.41 (0.99-2.00)	0.052		1.02 (0.72-1.45)	0.92
Storage of cooked food					
Closed container	1 [Reference]			1 [Reference]	
Open container	1.03 (0.61-1.72)	0.91		0.99 (0.59-1.66)	0.96
Refrigerator	1.27 (0.43-3.79)	0.66		1.23 (0.46-3.25)	0.68
Birth weight, kg					
≥ 2.7	1 [Reference]			1 [Reference]	
< 2.7	1.17 (0.86-1.60)	0.31		1.17 (0.85-1.62)	0.34
Sex					
Male	1 [Reference]			1 [Reference]	
Female	1.26 (0.93-1.72)	0.14		1.34 (0.97-1.84)	0.075
Age, mo					
> 6-18	1 [Reference]			1 [Reference]	
> 18-26	1.07 (0.65-1.77)	0.80		1.06 (0.63-1.78)	0.82
> 26-36	1.15 (0.73-1.83)	0.54		1.18 (0.72-1.92)	0.51
> 36-46	1.03 (0.63-1.68)	0.91		1.05 (0.64-1.69)	0.85
> 46-60	1.07 (0.66-1.75)	0.78		1.05 (0.65-1.72)	0.83
Immunization coverage					
Total	1 [Reference]			1 [Reference]	
Partial	1.23 (0.79-1.91)	0.36		0.92 (0.58-1.46)	0.73

Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; PR, prevalence ratio.

^aOne observation with missing data on household size, number of children younger than 5 y, income, storage of cooked food, birthweight and sex, and two observations with missing data on caste were deleted in the univariate analyses. Four observations with missing data were deleted from the adjusted analysis. APRs were adjusted for the effect of household size, number of children younger than 5 years, occupation, religion, caste, monthly income, source of drinking water and storage of cooked food, and child birth weight, sex, age and immunization coverage.

Factors Associated with Underweight and Wasting

Underweight was associated with the number of children younger than 5 years living in a household, monthly family income and child birth weight in the univariate analyses (Table 3). Family monthly income was not significant in the multivariate model (APR, 1.76; 95% CI, 0.78-3.99). Contrarily, exposure to floods was not statistically significant in the bivariate model (PR, 1.60; 95% CI, 0.98-2.59) but it became significant in the multivariate model, controlling for all other variables. Children living in flooded communities were at higher risk of being underweight compared to those living in non-flooded households (APR, 1.86; 95% CI, 1.04-3.30). Therefore, children living in a household with one or more under 5 children presented a higher risk of underweight than those living without other under 5 counterparts (APR, 1.69; 95% CI, 1.05-2.72). Low-birth weight children (< 2.7 kg) were at higher risk of being underweight compared to those born with higher weights (APR, 1.80; 95% CI, 1.11-2.92). The interaction between exposure to floods and low-birth weight and number of under five children were not significant. Wasting was not associated to any of the factors considered in this study neither in bivariate nor multivariate models (see Table S3).

Table 3 Factors Associated with Underweight in Children Aged 6 to 59 Months in 29 Study Villages in Orissa, India (N=351)^a

Factor	Underweight			
	Crude PR (95% CI)	P Value	Adjusted PR (95% CI)	P Value
Flood exposure level				
Household in non-flooded village	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
Household in flooded village	1.60 (0.98-2.59)	0.060	1.86 (1.04-3.30)	0.036
Household size	0.96 (0.88-1.04)	0.35	0.93 (0.85-1.03)	0.16
No. of children younger than 5 y				
1	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
≥ 2	1.71 (1.08-2.71)	0.021	1.69 (1.05-2.72)	0.031
Occupation				
Nonmanual	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
Agricultural	1.52 (0.66-3.50)	0.33	1.52 (0.60-3.83)	0.38
Manual	1.67 (0.73-3.82)	0.23	1.86 (0.77-4.47)	0.17
Not working	1.07 (0.34-3.26)	0.91	1.10 (0.33-3.65)	0.87
Religion				
Hindu	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
Muslim	1.03 (0.56-2.59)	0.92	1.10 (0.49-2.48)	0.82
Caste				
General class	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
Scheduled caste	1.11 (0.59-2.08)	0.75	0.97 (0.53-1.77)	0.91
Other backward class	0.73 (0.43-1.23)	0.24	0.68 (0.37-1.24)	0.21
Monthly income, thousand INR				
> 9	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
> 6-9	1.74 (0.84-3.59)	0.14	2.01 (0.89-4.54)	0.095
> 3-6	1.35 (0.69-2.61)	0.38	1.22 (0.57-2.59)	0.60
≤ 3	2.14 (1.01-4.56)	0.049	1.76 (0.78-3.99)	0.18
Source of drinking water (at the time of the interview)				
Well and tap	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
Surface water	1.31 (0.76-2.28)	0.33	0.99 (0.58-1.71)	0.98
Storage of cooked food				
Closed container	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
Open container	1.03 (0.61-1.72)	0.91	1.22 (0.59-2.52)	0.60
Refrigerator	NA	NA	NA	NA
Birth weight, kg				
≥ 2.7	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
< 2.7	1.82 (1.13-2.95)	0.015	1.80 (1.11-2.92)	0.017
Sex				
Male	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
Female	0.99 (0.63-1.57)	0.97	0.90 (0.57-1.42)	0.65
Age, mo				
> 6-18	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
> 18-26	0.67 (0.24-1.89)	0.45	0.75 (0.27-2.12)	0.59

> 26-36	1.60 (0.76-3.36)	0.22	2.05 (0.98-4.28)	0.056
> 36-46	1.76 (0.84-3.68)	0.13	1.94 (0.94-4.02)	0.076
> 46-60	1.99 (0.97-4.12)	0.063	1.99 (0.98-4.04)	0.057
Immunization coverage				
Total	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
Partial	1.26 (0.66-2.43)	0.48	1.08 (0.58-1.99)	0.81

Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; PR, prevalence ratio.

^aOne observation with missing data on underweight was deleted from all the analyses. One observation with missing data on household size, number of children younger than 5 y, income, storage of cooked food, birthweight and sex and two observations with missing data on caste were deleted in the univariate analyses. Four observations with missing data were deleted from the adjusted analysis. APRs were adjusted for the effect of household size, number of children younger than 5 years, occupation, religion, caste, monthly income, source of drinking water and storage of cooked food, and child birth weight, sex, age and immunization coverage.

Malnutrition and Recurrent Flooding

In this study, higher prevalence of chronic malnutrition was found in children living in flooded communities compared to those inhabiting the non-flooded ones. Given that this survey started within a month after the flooding onset, it is very unlikely that these malnutrition levels were exclusively related to the most recent flood. Instead, the inundation that took place in August 2006 and affected the same villages might be a more plausible explanation to these findings. We hypothesized that children being less than one year old during 2006 floods (>26-36 months) may have been exposed to nutritional stresses at a very critical age in their development. A separate adjusted analysis of flooded and non-flooded areas by age category revealed important differences between ages in the flooded cohort but not in the non-flooded. Children aged 26 to 36 months presented higher levels of stunting than any other age group (Table 4). Despite the analysis did not show a statistically significant difference between this age group and the reference category, 6-18 months (APR, 1.41; 95% CI, 0.81-2.44) it did for underweight (APR, 2.93; 95% CI, 1.09-7.88), which followed a similar pattern that stunting, with the higher prevalence of underweight concentrated in children 26 to 36 months.

Table 4 Factors Associated with Malnutrition in Children Aged 6 to 59 Months in 13 Flooded and 16 Non-Flooded Study Villages in Orissa, India^a

Factor	Stunting				Underweight			
	Flooded (n=191)		Non-Flooded (n=161)		Flooded (n=191)		Non-Flooded (n=161)	
	APR (95% CI)	P Value	APR (95% CI)	P Value	APR (95% CI)	P Value	APR (95% CI)	P Value
Age, mo								
> 6-18	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
> 18-26	0.98 (0.51-1.94)	0.98	1.28 (0.45-3.62)	0.64	0.81 (0.21-3.17)	0.76	0.81 (0.15-4.29)	0.80
> 26-36	1.41 (0.81-2.44)	0.23	1.08 (0.40-2.92)	0.87	2.93 (1.09-7.88)	0.012	1.14 (0.21-6.25)	0.88
> 36-46	1.30 (0.70-2.41)	0.41	1.44 (0.55-3.76)	0.46	2.07 (0.86-4.98)	0.11	1.48 (0.33-5.85)	0.57

> 46-60	1.14 (0.63-2.06)	0.67	0.94 (0.34-2.58)	0.91	2.22 (0.92-5.34)	0.078	1.55 (0.40-6.12)	0.53
---------	------------------	------	------------------	------	------------------	-------	------------------	------

Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; APR, adjusted prevalence ratio.

³Two observations with missing data were deleted for each of these analyses with the exception of the analysis of underweight in non-flooded areas in which three observations were removed. APRs were adjusted for the effect of household size, number of children younger than 5 years, occupation, religion, caste, monthly income, source of drinking water and storage of cooked food, and child birth weight, sex, age and immunization coverage. Source of drinking water was removed from the analysis of the non-flooded cohort due to lack of respondents reporting drinking surface water in these communities.

DISCUSSION

Our study represents a first attempt to understand the role of exposure to natural disasters as a risk factor for child malnutrition in India. Within one month after the floods, wasting did not differ among children inhabiting the flooded villages and those living in the non-flooded areas. In contrast, a higher risk of stunting was detected in children living in the flooded areas in bivariate and multivariate models. The risk of underweight was significantly higher only in the adjusted analyses. All villages under study in the flooded group were also inundated in previous floods happening in August 2006 (25 months earlier). In the absence of other disasters in the area, the chronic malnutrition detected in this study is related to previous flooding. The study also showed that the cohort of children aged less than one year during previous floods presented higher levels of underweight and stunting compared to the non-flooded group. This finding underlines the importance of early exposure to floods as a risk factor for anthropometric failure in children. Although none of the variables explained the variation in wasting, the analyses did reveal other factors associated with stunting and underweight. The lowest economic status was positively associated with stunting whereas underweight was influenced by low birth weight and the presence of at least one additional under five child in the household.

One evident limitation of this study is direct consequence of its cross-sectional design, which did not allow us to establish causal relationships. Second, we did not measure or control for other social and health conditions in the multivariate models for malnutrition. Third, a different instrument was used to weight children heavier than 10 kg, instead of a single balance. [35] Fourth, our power calculations did not take into consideration subgroup analyses. Probably further determinants of malnutrition would have been revealed using a larger sample size. Fifth, self-reported economic status, especially after disasters, can be subject to reporting bias. To minimize false reporting, field researchers informed the respondents about the purpose of the survey and cross-checked the economic information collected with the house type and assets. Finally, the findings of this study apply to a population of children living in 29 rural communities of Orissa. A population survey instead of a community survey will be required to extend the findings to larger populations, thus making easier to design wider interventions.

The striking similarity in wasting among both groups suggests that the flooded cohort was not subject to additional short-term nutritional stress compared to children living in the non-flooded, at least immediately after the flood. This is probably connected to the fact that

1
2
3 government and NGOs were mobilized rapidly and provided supplies right after the onset of
4 flooding (unpublished data). In floods occurring in Bangladesh in 1998, other authors found
5 critical levels of malnutrition (i.e. >15%) during the flood period. [12] The exceptional long
6 duration and magnitude of that flooding probably played an important role in causing a
7 more dramatic situation than the observed in these communities of Orissa. Further research
8 on the same flood event in Bangladesh using a comparison group failed to detect an effect
9 of floods on wasting two months after the floods. [13] In another study on the same floods,
10 the levels of wasting had gone down considerably four months later. [12] These results
11 suggest that the recovery after floods seem to occur promptly in these populations. On the
12 other hand, the absence of significant wasting in the flooded communities of Orissa
13 together with simultaneous higher levels of underweight and stunting suggest that both
14 reflect the long-term health and nutritional experience of the population. [36] These results
15 from India are similar to those found in Bangladesh in which the long-term consequences of
16 floods on nutrition are depicted. [13]
17

18
19 Links between low income and chronic malnutrition have been well described in the
20 literature. [37-41] Low income proxies (such as landlessness) have been observed as a risk
21 factor for acute malnutrition among flood affected children in Bangladesh [10]. More
22 recently, another study has shown that the children of flood-affected families taking loans
23 at very high rates did not improve their nutritional status compared to those having access
24 to credits at very low or no interest. [12] However the latter studies only establish the short
25 term effects of the disaster. None have established economic status as a risk factor for
26 chronic malnutrition – a long term consequence, among flood affected children.
27

28
29 Finally, the lack of significant interaction between significant variables, such as exposure to
30 floods and income, confirms that higher economic status is not protective against the
31 impacts of floods on child malnutrition. More research is necessary to understand the
32 complex dynamics of child malnutrition after severe flooding and its socio-economic and
33 health determinants. Representative larger surveys are recommended, which should help to
34 confirm these results and help policy makers in implementing appropriate measures.
35

36
37 **Acknowledgements** We would like to acknowledge the MICRODIS consortium for
38 development of tools and conceptual models, as well as the VHA research and field team
39 for data collection and study design. We are grateful to Nita Paliakara for her assistance
40 with nutritional aspects of this paper and insightful comments on an earlier version of this
41 manuscript.
42
43
44
45

46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 **FOOTNOTES** 58 59 60

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Funding This research was funded by the European FP6 6th Framework Programme under The MICRODIS Project – Integrated Health, Social and Economic Impacts of Extreme Events: Evidence, Methods and Tools (Contract No. GOCE-CT-2007-036877).

Patient consent Obtained.

Competing interest None declared.

Ethics approval Persons eligible to participate in the study were not offered a monetary incentive for participation. All the participants involved in the study were informed about the nature of the study, research objectives and about confidentiality of the data, with the assurance that non-participation would not lead to negative consequences. It was not possible to blind assessors, as they needed to visit households to conduct the interviews.

Written informed consent was obtained for every head of household visited. In case the respondent was an illiterate, we asked a literate person from the community to read out the consent form and explain it to the head of the family. Then we obtained the thumb impression of the respondent. In those case, the person who readout the consent form also signed as a witness. Research procedures were consistent with the Declaration of Helsinki. [42] Interviews were administered after obtaining informed consent. The protocol was reviewed by a small group of scientists who had experience working with survivors of natural disasters and amended based on their recommendations.

Contributors

Study concept and design: Guha-Sapir, Mukhopadhyay, Ranjan-Dash, Rodriguez-Llanes.

Data collection: Ranjan-Dash, Mukhopadhyay.

Analysis and interpretation of data: Rodriguez-Llanes, Guha-Sapir, Degomme.

Drafting of the manuscript: Rodriguez-Llanes.

Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: Rodriguez-Llanes, Guha-Sapir, Degomme, Ranjan-Dash, Mukhopadhyay.

Statistical analysis: Rodriguez-Llanes.

Administrative, technical or material support: Ranjan-Dash, Rodriguez-Llanes, Guha-Sapir, Mukhopadhyay.

Obtained funding: Guha-Sapir.

Study supervision: Ranjan-Dash, Mukhopadhyay.

Data sharing statement Statistical code available from the corresponding author.

REFERENCES

- 1 EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database. www.emdat.be - Université Catholique de Louvain - Brussels – Belgium. Data version: v12.07 (accessed October 2009).
- 2 Noji EK. The Public Health Consequences of Disasters. New York: Oxford University Press 1997:3-20.
- 3 Ahern M, Kovats RS, Wilkinson P, et al. Global health impacts of floods: epidemiologic evidence. *Epidemiol Rev* 2005;**27**:36-46. doi:10.1093/epirev/mxi004
- 4 Rodriguez J, Vos F, Below R et al. Annual Disaster Statistical Review 2008: The Numbers and Trends. Brussels: Jacoffset Printers 2009: 1-25.
- 5 Paul BK, Rasid H. Flood damage to rice crop in Bangladesh. *Geogr Rev* 1993;**83**:150-9.
- 6 Banerjee L. Effect of flood on agricultural wages in Bangladesh: an empirical analysis. *World Development* 2007;**35**:1989-2009. doi:10.1016/j.worlddev.2006.11.010
- 7 Howden SM, Soussana J, Tubiello FN, et al. Adapting agriculture to climate change. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2007;**104**:19691-19696. doi:10.1073/pnas.0701890104
- 8 Lobell DB, Burke MB, Tebaldi C, et al. Prioritizing climate change adaptation needs for food security in 2030. *Science* 2008;**319**:607-610. doi:10.1126/science.1152339
- 9 Haines A, Kovats R, Campbell-Lendrum D, et al. Climate change and human health: impacts, vulnerability, and mitigation. *Lancet* 2006;**367**:2101-2109. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(06)68933-2
- 10 Stewart MK, Fauveau V, Chakraborty J, et al. Post-flood nutritional anthropometry of children in Matlab, Bangladesh. *Ecol Food Nutr* 1990;**24**: 121-31. doi:10.1080/03670244.1990.9991127
- 11 Choudhury AY, Bhuiya A. Effects of biosocial variables on changes in nutritional status of rural Bangladeshi children, pre- and post-monsoon flooding. *J Biosoc Sci* 1993;**25**:351-357.
- 12 Hossain SM, Kolsteren P. The 1998 flood in Bangladesh: is different targeting needed during emergencies and recovery to tackle malnutrition?. *Disasters* 2003;**27**:172-184. doi: 10.1111/1467-7717.00227
- 13 del Ninno C, Lundberg M. Treading water: the long-term impact of the 1998 flood on nutrition in Bangladesh. *Econ Hum Biol* 2005;**3**:67-96. doi: 10.1016/j.ehb.2004.12.002
- 14 Ebi KL, Paulson JA. Climate change and children. *Pediatr Clin North Am* 2007;**54**:213-226. doi:10.1016/j.pcl.2007.01.004
- 15 Bunyavanich S, Landrigan CP, McMichael AJ, et al. The impact of climate change on child health. *Ambul Pediatr* 2003;**3**:44-52.
- 16 Kistin EJ, Fogarty J, Pokrasso RS, et al. Climate change, water resources and child health. *Arch Dis Child* 2010;**95**:545-549. doi:10.1136/adc.2009.175307
- 17 Black RE, Allen LH, Bhutta ZA, et al. Maternal and child undernutrition: global and regional exposures and health consequences. *Lancet* 2008;**371**:243-260. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(07)61690-0

- 1
2
3 18 Grantham-McGregor S, Cheung YB, Cueto S, et al. Developmental potential in the first 5 years for
4 children in developing countries. *Lancet* 2007;**369**:60-70. doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(07)60032-4
5
6
7 19 Walker SP, Wachs TD, Meeks Gardner J, et al. Child development: risk factors for adverse
8 outcomes in developing countries. *Lancet* 2007;**369**:145-157. doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(07)60076-2
9
10 20 Chilton M, Chyatte M, Breaux J. The negative effects of poverty and food insecurity on child
11 development. *Indian J Med Res* 2007;**126**:262-272.
12
13 21 Thomalla F, Schmuck H. 'We all knew that a cyclone was coming': disaster preparedness and the
14 cyclone of 1999 in Orissa, India. *Disasters* 2004;**28**:373-387. doi:10.1111/j.0361-3666.2004.00264.x
15
16
17 22 Ranjan-Dash S. Microdis Primary Field Survey in Jagatsinghpur District of Orissa by Voluntary
18 Health Association of India, New Dehli: Research Background. MICRODIS report 2009:1-33.
19
20 23 McMichael AJ, Woodruff RE, Hales S. Climate change and human health: present and future risks.
21 *Lancet* 2006;**367**:859-69. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(06)68079-3
22
23
24 24 Cook A, Watson J, Buynder PV et al. 10th anniversary review: natural disasters and their long-
25 term impacts on the health of communities. *J Environ Monit* 2008;**10**:167-175.
26
27 25 Huntington TG. Evidence for intensification of the global water cycle: review and synthesis. *J of*
28 *Hydrol* 2006;**319**:83-95. doi: 10.1016/j.jhydrol.2005.07.003
29
30
31 26 Huppert HE, Sparks RSJ. Extreme natural hazards: population growth, globalization and
32 environmental change. *Philos Transact A Math Phys Eng Sci* 2006;**364**:1875-1888. doi:
33 10.1098/rsta.2006.1803
34
35
36 27 Census of India 2001. <http://www.censusindia.gov.in/> (accessed August 2008).
37
38 28 Turner AG, Magnani RJ, Shuaib M. A not quite as quick but much cleaner alternative to the
39 expanded programme on immunization (EPI) cluster survey design. *Int J Epidemiol* 1996;**25**:198 -203.
40 doi:10.1093/ije/25.1.198
41
42 29 Milligan P, Njie A, Bennett S. Comparison of two cluster sampling methods for health surveys in
43 developing countries. *Int J Epidemiol* 2004;**33**:469-476. doi:10.1093/ije/dyh096
44
45 30 International Institute for Population Sciences (IIPS) and Macro International. National Family
46 Health Survey (NFHS-3), 2005-06: India: Volume I. Mumbai: IPPS 2007:267-313.
47
48
49 31 R Development Core Team (2008). R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R
50 Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. ISBN 3-900051-07-0, [http://www.R-](http://www.R-project.org)
51 [project.org](http://www.R-project.org).
52
53
54 32 Thompson M, Myers J, Kriebel D. Prevalence odds ratio or prevalence ratio in the analysis of cross
55 sectional data: what is to be done?. *Occup Environ Med* 1998;**55**:272-7. doi:10.1136/oem.55.4.272
56
57
58 33 Deddens JA, Petersen MR. Approaches for estimating prevalence ratios. *Occup Environ Med*
59 2008;**65**:501-506. doi:10.1136/oem.2007.034777
60

1
2
3 34 Lumley T. Categorical data regression. In: Couper MP, Kalton G, Rao JNK, Schwarz N, Skinner C,
4 eds. Complex Surveys: A Guide to Analysis Using R. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons 2010:109-133.

5
6
7 35 WHO. The Management of Nutrition In Major Emergencies. Geneva: WHO 2000:1-236.

8
9 36 de Onis M, Blössner M. Who Global Database on Child Growth and Malnutrition. Geneva: WHO
10 1997:1-67.

11
12 37 Bhuiya A, Zimicki S, D'Souza S. Socioeconomic differentials in child nutrition and morbidity in a
13 rural area of Bangladesh. J Trop Pediatr 1986;**32**:17-23. doi:10.1093/tropej/32.1.17

14
15
16 38 Bairagi R. Is income the only constraint on child nutrition in rural Bangladesh?. Bull World Health
17 Organ 1980;**58**:767-772.

18
19
20 39 Nandy S, Irving M, Gordon D, et al. Poverty, child undernutrition and morbidity: new evidence
21 from India. Bull World Health Organ 2005;**83**:210-216.

22
23 40 Subramanyam MA, Kawachi I, Berkman LF et al. Socioeconomic inequalities in childhood
24 undernutrition in India: analyzing trends between 1992 and 2005. PLoS ONE 2010;**5**:e11392.
25 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0011392

26
27
28 41 Kanjilal B, Mazumdar P, Mukherjee M, et al. Nutritional status of children in India: household
29 socio-economic condition as the contextual determinant. Int J Equity Health 2010;**9**:19.
30 doi:10.1186/1475-9276-9-19

31
32
33 42 48th World medical assembly. Declaration of Helsinki: recommendations guiding physicians in
34 biomedical research involving human subjects. JAMA 1997;**277**:925-926.
35 doi:10.1001/jama.1997.03540350075038

36 37 38 39 40 41 42 **FIGURES**

43
44
45 **Figure 1** Flow diagram of the sample obtained on 352 children aged 6 to 59 months in
46 Jagatsinghpur district, Orissa, India
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

STROBE 2007 (v4) Statement—Checklist of items that should be included in reports of *cross-sectional studies*

Section/Topic	Item #	Recommendation	Reported on page #
Title and abstract	1	(a) Indicate the study's design with a commonly used term in the title or the abstract	1
		(b) Provide in the abstract an informative and balanced summary of what was done and what was found	1
Introduction			
Background/rationale	2	Explain the scientific background and rationale for the investigation being reported	3,4
Objectives	3	State specific objectives, including any prespecified hypotheses	4
Methods			
Study design	4	Present key elements of study design early in the paper	4
Setting	5	Describe the setting, locations, and relevant dates, including periods of recruitment, exposure, follow-up, and data collection	4,5,6
Participants	6	(a) Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of selection of participants	5
Variables	7	Clearly define all outcomes, exposures, predictors, potential confounders, and effect modifiers. Give diagnostic criteria, if applicable	6,7
Data sources/ measurement	8*	For each variable of interest, give sources of data and details of methods of assessment (measurement). Describe comparability of assessment methods if there is more than one group	5,6,7
Bias	9	Describe any efforts to address potential sources of bias	7,8
Study size	10	Explain how the study size was arrived at	7
Quantitative variables	11	Explain how quantitative variables were handled in the analyses. If applicable, describe which groupings were chosen and why	6,7
Statistical methods	12	(a) Describe all statistical methods, including those used to control for confounding	7,8
		(b) Describe any methods used to examine subgroups and interactions	8
		(c) Explain how missing data were addressed	7
		(d) If applicable, describe analytical methods taking account of sampling strategy	None
		(e) Describe any sensitivity analyses	
Results			

Participants	13*	(a) Report numbers of individuals at each stage of study—eg numbers potentially eligible, examined for eligibility, confirmed eligible, included in the study, completing follow-up, and analysed	7, Fig 1
		(b) Give reasons for non-participation at each stage	7, Fig 1
		(c) Consider use of a flow diagram	Fig 1
Descriptive data	14*	(a) Give characteristics of study participants (eg demographic, clinical, social) and information on exposures and potential confounders	8
		(b) Indicate number of participants with missing data for each variable of interest	7
Outcome data	15*	Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures	9
Main results	16	(a) Give unadjusted estimates and, if applicable, confounder-adjusted estimates and their precision (eg, 95% confidence interval). Make clear which confounders were adjusted for and why they were included	9-11
		(b) Report category boundaries when continuous variables were categorized	9-11
		(c) If relevant, consider translating estimates of relative risk into absolute risk for a meaningful time period	
Other analyses	17	Report other analyses done—eg analyses of subgroups and interactions, and sensitivity analyses	9-12
Discussion			
Key results	18	Summarise key results with reference to study objectives	14
Limitations	19	Discuss limitations of the study, taking into account sources of potential bias or imprecision. Discuss both direction and magnitude of any potential bias	14
Interpretation	20	Give a cautious overall interpretation of results considering objectives, limitations, multiplicity of analyses, results from similar studies, and other relevant evidence	14,15
Generalisability	21	Discuss the generalisability (external validity) of the study results	15
Other information			
Funding	22	Give the source of funding and the role of the funders for the present study and, if applicable, for the original study on which the present article is based	15

*Give information separately for cases and controls in case-control studies and, if applicable, for exposed and unexposed groups in cohort and cross-sectional studies.

Note: An Explanation and Elaboration article discusses each checklist item and gives methodological background and published examples of transparent reporting. The STROBE checklist is best used in conjunction with this article (freely available on the Web sites of PLoS Medicine at <http://www.plosmedicine.org/>, Annals of Internal Medicine at <http://www.annals.org/>, and Epidemiology at <http://www.epidem.com/>). Information on the STROBE Initiative is available at www.strobe-statement.org.

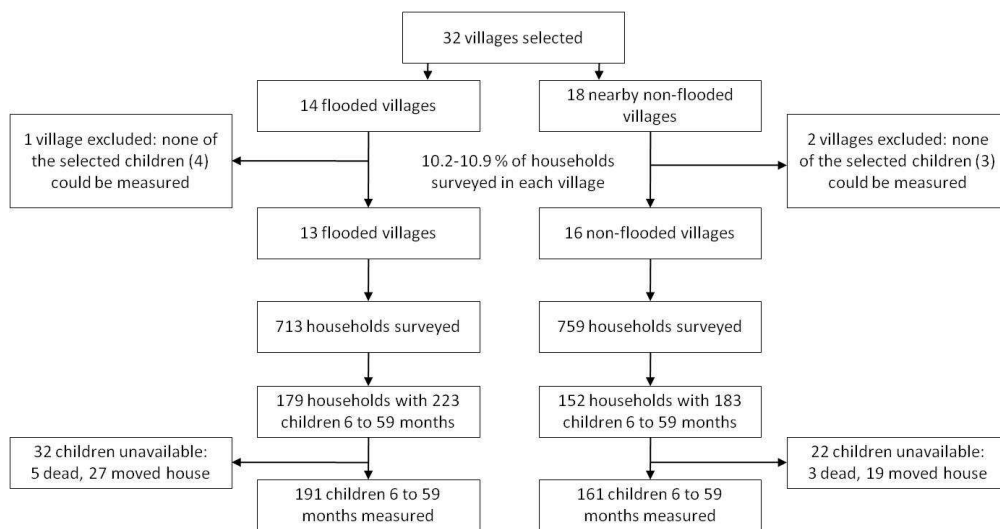


Figure 1 Flow diagram of the sample obtained on 352 children aged 6 to 59 months in Jagatsinghpur district, Orissa, India
234x122mm (150 x 150 DPI)

review only



Child Malnutrition and Recurrent Flooding in Rural Eastern India: A Community-Based Survey

Journal:	<i>BMJ Open</i>
Manuscript ID:	bmjopen-2011-000109.R1
Article Type:	Research
Date Submitted by the Author:	07-Jun-2011
Complete List of Authors:	Rodriguez-Llanes, Jose Manuel; Institute Health and Society - Université catholique de Louvain, CRED - Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters Ranjan-Dash, Shisir; Voluntary Health Association of India Degomme, Olivier; Institute Health and Society - Université catholique de Louvain, CRED - Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters Mukhopadhyay, Alok; Voluntary Health Association of India Guha-Sapir, Debarati; Institute Health and Society - Université catholique de Louvain, CRED - Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters
Primary Subject Heading :	Epidemiology
Keywords:	stunting, chronic disease, nutritional status, natural disaster, development, climate change

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

Child Malnutrition and Recurrent Flooding in Rural Eastern India: A Community-Based Survey

Formatted: Left: 72 pt, Right: 72 pt, Width: 595.35 pt, Height: 841.95 pt, Header distance from edge: 35.4 pt, Footer distance from edge: 35.4 pt

ABSTRACT

Objectives This study aims to improve the understanding of the relationship between exposure to floods and malnutrition in children aged 6 to 59 months in rural India. Research has focused exclusively on Bangladeshi children and few controlled epidemiological studies are available.

Method A community-based cross-sectional study of child nutritional status carried out in 14 flooded and 18 non-flooded villages of Jagatsinghpur district (Orissa) after the September 2008 floods, and similarly affected by flooding in August 2006. Face-to-face interviews were conducted in 757 households in the flooded villages and 816 in the non-flooded communities. Data used in this study were from those households with children 6 to 59 months. In total, 191 and 161 children were measured, respectively. The association between various malnutrition indicators and the exposure to floods was assessed by univariate and multivariate logistic regression.

Results Adjusted analyses revealed that children in flooded households were more likely stunted compared to those in non-flooded ones (APR, 1.60; 95% CI, 1.05-2.44). The prevalence of underweight was also higher in children living in the flooded communities (APR, 1.86; 95% CI, 1.04-3.30). Further analyses found the 26-36 months flooded cohort, thus those children younger than one year during the precedent flood in August 2006, attained the largest difference in levels of stunting compared to the unexposed group of the same age.

Conclusion Exposure to floods is associated with long-term malnutrition in these rural communities of Orissa, India. Children exposed to floods during their first year of life presented higher levels of chronic malnutrition. Long-term malnutrition prevention programs after floods should be implemented in flood-prone areas.

Deleted: 8

Deleted: Children of the poorest families were also more chronically malnourished (APR, 1.85; 95% CI, 1.11-3.09) than those of the richest group.

Deleted: , those living with one or more under five children (APR, 1.69; 95% CI, 1.05-2.72) and born with lower weights (APR, 1.80; 95% CI, 1.11-2.92)

Deleted: age group

Deleted: control

Deleted: and underweight within the flooded areas, thus those younger than one year during the precedent flood in August 2006

ARTICLE SUMMARY

Article focus

- Study of the connection between flood exposure and childhood malnutrition in rural communities of north eastern India

Key messages

- First study that addresses the health impacts of floods on child malnutrition in India, a country prone to multiple natural disasters
- Climate-related extreme events are projected to increase partly induced by climate change, leading to a higher burden of disaster-related diseases
- Exposure to floods is associated with chronic growth retardation in Indian children, especially in those exposed at very early stages in life

Strengths and limitations of this study**Strengths**

- High and consistent survey response rates across flooded and non-flooded communities
- Use of standard methodology, including high precision WHO standards to assess malnutrition

Limitations

- The study does not establish causal relationship but an association between floods and childhood malnutrition
- Study only representative of the children 6 to 59 months living in 29 rural communities

Deleted: ¶

INTRODUCTION

Floods are the most common reported natural disaster worldwide, [1]with important impact on the health of human populations.[2, 3] Their effects are especially dramatic in developing countries of south and south-east Asia.[4]Epidemiological studies in low-income rural areas show evidence for increased risk of disease associated to flooding, such as diarrhea [5, 6], cholera [7], respiratory infection [5], leptospirosis [8] or posttraumatic stress disorder, PTSD [9]. However, little and geographically restricted evidence is available on the nutritional impacts of floods on children [10-13].

Flooding has demonstrated serious impacts on crop productivity in the past, [14, 15]and the projected higher global temperatures may have nonlinear and increasingly negative impacts on existing agricultural activities [16],particularly on vulnerable countries of south Asia and southern Africa where insufficient adaptation measures areplanned. [17] Crop yield variation induced by climate change has been suggested as one of the potential mechanisms leading to malnutrition. [18]

This is particularly worrying since children are especially vulnerable to environmental adversities because of their greater exposure, greater sensitivity to certain exposures, and their dependence on caregivers.[19,20]For this reason, increased weather variability predicted by climatic models is expected to lead to a rise in the health risks of this age group, associated with more frequent extremes like droughts and floods.[19-21]

The deleterious consequences of poor nutrition are well recognized. Undernutrition is a primary cause of ill-health and premature mortality among children in developing countries.[22] Therefore, malnutrition affects children during critical phases of their early cognitive, social, motor and emotional development, and has been associated with poor school performance. [23, 24] Poverty and food security are also risk factors which have been found to be associated with poor early development in children. [25] Thus, these disadvantaged children are less likely to become productive adults, [23] perpetuating the cycle of poor human development. [25]

India is one of the most disaster-prone countries in the world. [1] The Indian state of Orissa, located by the Bay of Bengal, is vulnerable to multiple disasters, like tropical cyclones, storm surges, floods and tsunamis. The state of Orissa suffered heavy loss of life and property during the cycloneParadip that hit the state in October 1999. [26] As a consequence, an autonomous relief and coordination body was created in the state, the Orissa State Disaster Mitigation Authority (OSDMA). Since then, this agency has been actively working in disaster management, prevention, risk reduction and relief activities. Complementary to long term poverty alleviation programs, there are also short term food aid governmental programs to help the victims of disasters within the country (SRD, personal communication).

Despite a rising awareness on understanding the health effects of extreme weather events, [19, 27, 28]without a better understanding of the mechanisms which produce and maintain high levels of malnutrition in developing countries, policy makers lack crucial information to

Deleted: 5

Deleted: 6

Deleted: 7

Deleted: 8

Deleted: 9

Deleted: Despite these presumed linkages,a recent review has pointed out limited evidence on the health effects of floods in controlled epidemiological studies, particularly of morbidity. [3]Though some studies have examined mortality, disease or mental health, there is little research on the association between floods and children's nutritional health, and this evidence is geographically restricted to flood-prone areas of Bangladesh.[10-13]

Deleted: 4

Deleted: 15

Deleted: 4

Deleted: 6

Deleted: 17

Deleted: 18

Deleted: 19

Deleted: 0

Deleted: 18

Deleted: 0

Deleted: Its densely populated coastal plains are the alluvial deposits of its river systems. These rivers, with heavy load of silt, have very little carrying capacity, what results in frequent floods.

Deleted: 1

Deleted: [22]

Deleted: 4

Deleted: 3

Deleted: 4

Deleted: limited evidence is available at present.[3, 10, 11, 12, 13]Specifically,

design specific and effective intervention plans to reduce its prevalence among children. This is especially critical in the face of the foreseen long-lasting intensification of the water cycle [29] and the rise of human vulnerability to extreme weather events. [30] In Orissa, climate models predict an intensification of precipitation events, including monsoons, and increased sea level pressure by the end of the 21st century. [31] Additionally, vulnerability-resilience analysis shows Orissa as one of the most vulnerable Indian states to climate change. [32]

The most recent floods occurring in Orissa in September 2008 provided an opportunity to explore the strengths of association between flooding and the prevalence of undernutrition while taking other variables that directly affect nutrition into account.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study used a cross-sectional stratified (by village) design with sampling at the household level to collect data on a representative sample of the children aged 6 to 59 months living in 13 flooded communities and 16 nearby non-flooded villages within a month after the September 2008 floods. We used anthropometric measurements to assess child malnutrition and face-to-face interviews to investigate the exposure to floods as a risk factor for malnutrition and the potential confounding effect of social, health and economic variables.

Study area

The study site was Jagatsinghpur, a coastal district located in the state of Orissa, eastern India. The district is organized into eight blocks and has a population of 1 057 629, with 90% residing in rural areas. [33] The district has been severely hit by five major floods in the last decade, the one following the cyclone Paradiip (05B) in 1999, followed by heavy floods in 2001, 2003, and 2006. The last floods, starting in mid-September 2008, produced large devastation. [1]

Sample selection

The villages in this study were selected from the 5 worst affected blocks in the district (Kujanga, Biridi, Balikuda, Tirtol and Ersama) according to OSDMA. This agency provided the list of the flooded and non-flooded villages, defined as those with all households inundated by the floods and those with none of the households flooded, respectively. Logistic considerations limited our study to 14 accessible flooded villages. Eighteen non-flooded nearby villages of similar size and demographic characteristics were selected as comparison group (Table S1). These 14 and 18 villages were also inundated and non-inundated, respectively, during previous floods occurring in August 2006. We validated this information using the survey household data. All respondents interviewed in the 14 flooded villages (n=757) confirmed that their household were exposed to only these two

- Deleted: 25
- Deleted: 26
- Deleted: compare the nutritional status in a representative sample of the children aged 6-59 months living in 13 flooded communities and those inhabiting 16 other non-flooded nearby villages.
- Deleted: We aimed to identify other social, health and economic determinants of child malnutrition, including possible interactions with flood exposure, which may aggravate their situation
- Deleted: of
- Deleted: the children 6 to 59 months living in flooded and non-flooded communities of Orissa right after the September 2008 floods.
- Deleted: ir
- Deleted: context
- Deleted: The Devi, Mahanadi, Kathajodi and Biluakhai are the four main rivers in the area. The district covers a geographical area of 1 914.6 squared km. [22]
- Deleted: one subdivision, four tehsils and
- Deleted: (2001 census)
- Deleted: 27
- Deleted: [22]
- Deleted: with 2.4 million people homeless and a death toll of 173
- Deleted: Data source¶ This study was conducted under the MICRODIS project, through a EC Framework 6 Research grant. The overall goal of this project was to strengthen preparedness, mitigation and prevention strategies in order to reduce the health, social and economic impacts of extreme events on communities. The consortium consists of a total of 19 academic institutions and grassroots organizations, administering empirical work in selected flood, storm and earthquake sites (... [1]
- Deleted: After discussions with the district administration, the
- Deleted: were selected for further sampling
- Deleted: .The Orissa State Disaster Mitigation Authority (
- Deleted:)
- Deleted: ,
- Deleted: a governmental agency in charge of statewide disaster relief (... [2]
- Deleted: within the selected blocks
- Deleted: .

1
2
3 floods and the cyclone Paradip in October 1999. Most respondents considered the 2008
4 floods 'very severe' (84.6%) in contrast with the 2006 floods which most households
5 categorized as 'mild' (79.5%).

Deleted: We cross-checked our survey data with OSDMA reports to validate this information.

6
7 Stratified sampling at the village level was used. In each village, 10% of households were
8 surveyed (Figure 1). This allowed us to obtain a sample with a distribution of households
9 across villages comparable to that in the population. The list of the children 6 to 59 months
10 were obtained at the ICDS center (Integrated Child Development Scheme) at each village
11 and were used as a check of the information given by the head of the households. In total,
12 757 households were surveyed in the 14 flooded communities and 816 in the 18 non-
13 flooded villages. In surveyed households with more than one child 6 to 59 months, all eligible
14 children were selected. In three small villages, one flooded and two non-flooded, all the 7
15 eligible children selected moved home and consequently these villages were excluded from
16 further analyses (Figure 1). The study population was defined as those children aged 6 to 59
17 months of the remaining 29 villages, which represented less than 5% of the total
18 population and were present, overall, in less than 25% of the households surveyed (Table
19 S1).

Deleted: About

Deleted: in each selected village

Deleted: none of

Deleted: could be measured

Deleted: the study population

20
21
22
23 A household was defined as a group of people who usually live under the same roof and
24 share a common kitchen. If an adult member or any eligible children 6 to 59 months was not
25 at home at the time of the survey, the interviewers returned to the household later. The
26 maximum number of visits per household was fixed at three. For selection of the
27 households, we used a modified EPI 'random walk' method. [34, 35] At the centre of the
28 village, a team member spun a pen, following the direction pointed by the pen up to the
29 limit of the village. The same procedure was repeated from the new location to randomly
30 choose a direction in which to conduct the survey. A random direction is selected each time
31 that a bifurcation is encountered. Random numbers are generated to select the households.
32 The nested data used in this study were from those households with children 6 to 59
33 months. Thus the final sample was 179 households with 223 children in the 13 flooded
34 villages, and 152 households with 183 children in the 16 non-flooded communities. Overall,
35 85.2% of these eligible children were measured and their parents interviewed. The response
36 rate was consistent across the flooded (84%) and non-flooded communities (86.6%). Thirty-
37 two children were not measured in the flooded households. Five of them have recently died
38 and 27 stayed with relatives in different villages. In the non-flooded communities, twenty-
39 two children were unavailable. Nineteen of these children moved with their parents
40 elsewhere and other 3 died (Figure 1).

Deleted: The list of the children 6 to 59 months were obtained at the ICDS (Integrated Child Development Scheme) center at each village.

Deleted: survey team

Deleted: household

Deleted: 28

Deleted: 29

45 **Instruments, training and pilot testing**

46
47 Anthropometric measurements of children and adapted questionnaires were used to obtain
48 the information on anthropometrics, household characteristics and other children variables.
49 Fourteen interviewers, three supervisors and one data manager were specifically trained for
50 this study during a three days workshop organized by the Voluntary Health Association of
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2 India (VHAI) under the supervision of The MICRODIS project university partners, local
3 government officers and other local researchers. The questionnaires were pre-tested in 45
4 households. The questionnaire was translated to the local language in Orissa (Oriya) and
5 then back translated into English by two different translators. Field work was carried out
6 between 6 October and 19 November 2008.

Deleted: to refine it before starting data collection

7
8
9 Weight and height of every child were measured twice to minimize measurement errors and
10 increase precision by using their average value. Weight measurements were undertaken to
11 the nearest 100 grams using a 10 kg beam balance (Raman Surgical Co., Delhi-33, India) and
12 a 50 kg standard electronic balance. For children younger than 2 years of age, length was
13 measured to the nearest millimeter in the recumbent position using an infantometer
14 (Narang Medical Ltd. Delhi - 110 028, India). Children older than 2 years were measured in a
15 standing position using a measuring board. All instruments were calibrated daily.

16 17 18 **Outcome measures, exposure and confounders**

19
20 The outcomes of this study were three anthropometric indices, stunting (height-for-age),
21 underweight (weight-for-age) and wasting (weight-for-height). Stunting is an indicator of
22 chronic malnutrition whereas wasting often assesses acute nutritional stress within a
23 population. Underweight combines the previous two, widely used for its operational
24 value. The new World Health Organization (WHO) standard was used to calculate the z
25 scores for these indicators. Malnutrition was a binary variable indicating whether a children
26 is malnourished, z score <-2 (1) or not (0) at the time of the interview. The fundamental
27 variable of this study was the level of children exposure to floods, measured as whether the
28 village was flooded (1) or not (0). Therefore, thirteen other variables included information at
29 the household and individual (children) level (Table 1). In the first group, we recorded the
30 number of persons residing in each household (household size) measured as a continuous
31 variable, number of children younger than 5 years living in a household, dichotomized as one
32 (0) or otherwise (1). The main occupation of the household was recorded in detailed
33 categories and later recoded as non manual (reference), agricultural, manual and
34 unemployed. Two religions were present in the study area, Hinduism, taken as the reference
35 group, and Muslim. Caste of the household was based on the household head and was
36 grouped as scheduled caste, other backward class or general class (reference category). The
37 general class represents the higher caste status in India. The scheduled caste is the social
38 group historically subject to the higher deprivation levels in the country. Monthly household
39 income (in thousand Indian rupees INR) was collected from respondents as a continuous
40 variable and recoded into four categories: ≤ 3, > 3-6, > 6-9 and > 9, chosen as the reference
41 category. The household source of drinking water at the time of the interview was recorded
42 in a detailed questionnaire (Table 1) and recoded as whether they were more secure
43 sources, such as wells and taps (0) or unsecure such as surface water (1), consumed in the
44 flooded areas. The storage of cooked food was also listed using a detailed questionnaire and
45 dichotomized into closed containers (0) and open containers (1).

Deleted: based on healthy optimally fed children from different cultures,

Deleted: , according to the list provided by the authorities (see Sample selection)

Deleted: (Table 2, 3 and S3)

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Within the second group, a number of individual variables were recorded. Birth weights were obtained from birth certificates and/or vaccination cards available and were coded as a binary variable above and below the median. Sex was a binary variable. Age was recorded from birth certificates and/or vaccination cards in most cases (85% of respondents). If these were not available, local calendars were used. Children were classified by the reported age into the following groups (in months): 6 to 18, 18 to 26, 26 to 36, 36 to 46, and 46 to 59. This classification was used to compare the prevalence of malnutrition in those children younger than 1 year exposed to the 2006 floods (aged 26 to 36 months at the time of this study), with those of the non-flooded cohort in the same age group. Children immunization coverage was obtained from vaccination cards available. Children fully vaccinated, proved with vaccination card, against Polio (3 doses), Tuberculosis (1 dose), Measles (1 dose), Hepatitis E (3 doses), Diphtheria and Tetanus toxoid and Pertussis (3 doses) were classified as those with full immunization coverage (0), otherwise partially immunized (1).

Deleted: otherwise to approximate them

Deleted: purposive for analyses undertaken in this study.

Power analysis

Considering that 10% of 14 948 households (7248 flooded and 7700 non-flooded) were planned to be surveyed and that the expectation of getting a household with at least 1 eligible child is ¼, the expected number of households containing children in our sample was 181 and 192. Assuming a two thirds prevalence of malnutrition in non-flooded compared to flooded households, with α (error) = 0.05, using the average percentage of stunting in Orissa state (children < 5 years) as the prevalence for the flooded area (45) [36] and two thirds (30) as a conservative approximate for the non-flooded, a power of 84% would be achieved. The minimum sample size, with power 80%, would be 164 in each group.

Deleted: We calculated the sample size assuming a two thirds prevalence of malnutrition in non-flooded compared to flooded households, with α (error) = 0.05 and $1-\beta$ (power) = 0.80, using the average percentage of stunting in Orissa state (children < 5 years) as the prevalence for the flooded area (45) [30] and two thirds (30) as a conservative approximate for the non-flooded. A sample size of 328 children, 164 in flooded and 164 in non-flooded areas, was required.

Data analysis

Malnutrition indices were calculated using ENA for SMART version November 2008 (Erhardt and Golden 2008). The new World Health Organization (WHO) standard was used to calculate z scores. Statistical analyses were conducted in R version 2.10.1 (R Development Core Team 2008). [37] Missing data were rare. Data were missing on underweight and wasting in 1 and 5 respondents, respectively. In 1 respondent, data were missing on income, number of children under five and household size. Data were missing on caste in 2 respondents, and on food storage in 1 respondent.

Deleted: based on healthy optimally fed children from different cultures,

Deleted: 1

In cross-sectional epidemiological research studying rare outcomes, the odds ratio (OR) is very close to the relative risk (RR). If the outcome is common as it is the case in this study (i.e. prevalence > 10%), ORs tend to differ from RRs. Prevalence ratios (PR), as named in this study, were then used instead of prevalence odds ratio (POR), to avoid confusion in the interpretation of the results. [38, 39] Quasi-binomial models were used to avoid overdispersion. Additionally, starting values and increasing the number of iterations were necessary to fit these models. [40] GLM quasi-binomial models were used to explore

Deleted: 2

Deleted: 3

Deleted: 3

bivariate associations between malnutrition and independent variables, reported as crude (unadjusted) PRs with their associated 95% confidence intervals (CIs). Multivariate (adjusted) models were used to identify variables predictive of malnutrition, controlling for all other variables in the model. ANOVA models were used to test the difference between Z-scores (a continuous variable) of the flooded and non-flooded cohorts in each of the age groups previously defined. Two-way interactions were examined for significant parameters in the adjusted models ($p < 0.05$). Alpha level was set at 5% and all statistical tests were two sided.

RESULTS

Demographic Characteristics

Table 1 reports characteristics of the sample by exposure group. More nonmanual (18.4%) and less agricultural work (31.6%) were reported by the respondents in the flooded communities compared to the non-flooded (11.8% and 40.4%, respectively). The higher proportion of Muslim in the flooded group (27.8%) was due to a large Muslim population living in a single village. More individuals from the scheduled caste were living in the flooded communities (21.9%) compared to the non-flooded (12.1%). The access to safe drinking water was limited right after the floods and 32.3% of the respondents affirmed to drink surface water.

Table 1 Characteristics of 294 Households and 352 Children in 29 Study Villages in Orissa, India*

Characteristics	Flooded (n = 13)	Non-Flooded (n = 16)
Household variables		
No. of households with any children 6-59 mo measured	158	136
Total no. of persons residing in household, mean (SD)	7.2 (2.8)	7.5 (2.9)
No. of children younger than 5 y		
1	116 (73.9)	97 (71.3)
≥ 2	41 (26.1)	39 (28.7)
Occupation		
Not working	14 (8.9)	16 (11.8)
Nonmanual	29 (18.4)	16 (11.8)
Agricultural	50 (31.6)	55 (40.4)
Manual	65 (41.1)	49 (36.0)
Religion		
Hindu	114 (72.2)	135 (99.3)
Muslim	44 (27.8)	1 (0.7)
Caste		
Scheduled caste	33 (21.9)	17 (12.1)
Otherbackward class	38 (25.2)	81 (57.4)
General class	36 (23.8)	42 (29.8)
Other	44 (29.1)	1 (0.7)
Annual income, thousand INR		

≤ 3	18 (11.5)	16 (11.8)
> 3-6	63 (40.1)	67 (49.3)
> 6-9	24 (15.3)	30 (22.1)
> 9	52 (33.1)	23 (16.9)
Source of drinking water (at the time of the interview)		
Tap in house	1 (0.6)	7 (5.1)
Tube well	103 (65.2)	111 (81.6)
Communal tap	2 (1.3)	8 (5.9)
Protected dugwell	1 (0.6)	10 (7.4)
Surface water	51 (32.3)	0 (0)
Storage of cooked food		
Open container	15 (9.5)	14 (10.4)
Closed container	140 (88.6)	119 (88.1)
Refrigerator	3 (1.9)	2 (1.5)
Child variables		
No. of children 6-59 mo measured	191	161
Height-for-age, no. (%)		
Stunting, Z-score < -2	74 (38.7)	37 (23.0)
Severestunting, Z-score < -3	29 (15.2)	14 (8.7)
Weight-for-age^a, no. (%)		
Underweight, Z-score < -2	40 (20.9)	21 (13.1)
Severelyunderweight, Z-score < -3	11 (5.8)	7 (4.4)
Weight-for-height^b, no. (%)		
Wasting, Z-score < -2	23 (12.2)	19 (11.9)
Severewasting, Z-score < -3	8 (4.3)	8 (5.0)
Birthweight, kg		
< 2.7	87 (45.5)	86 (53.4)
≥ 2.7	104 (54.5)	75 (46.6)
Sex		
Female	81 (42.4)	76 (47.2)
Male	110 (57.6)	85 (52.8)
Age, mo ^c	30.0 (1.0)	32.1 (1.1)
Immunization coverage ^d		
Total	22 (11.5)	42 (26.1)
Partial	169 (88.5)	119 (73.9)

Abbreviations: INR, Indian rupee; CI, confidence interval.

^aInformation for income, household size and number of children younger than 5 y could not be determined in 1 household of a flooded village. The caste of 1 household in a flooded village and 1 household in a non-flooded village could not be determined. The type of storage of cooked food in 1 household of a non-flooded village could not be obtained. Description of variables is the absolute number of household or children associated to each characteristic (percentage of the total) except where otherwise indicated.

^bOne observation with missing data was excluded from the analyses in the non-flooded cohort.

^cFour observations with missing data were excluded from the analyses in the flooded cohort and one in the non-flooded cohort.

^dChild age is reported as mean (SE).

^eTotal immunization includes children vaccinated, confirmed with vaccination card, against Polio (OPV - 3 doses), Tuberculosis (BCG - 1 dose), Measles (MCV - 1 dose), Hepatitis B (HEPB - 3 doses), Diphtheria and Tetanus toxoid and Pertussis (DPT - 3 doses).

Child Malnutrition

Overall prevalences of stunting, underweight and wasting were 31.5%, 17.4% and 12.1%, respectively (Table 1). However, the prevalence of stunting was 38.7% in the flooded cohort compared to 23.0% in the non-flooded cohort. Similarly, the prevalence of underweight was more important in the children living in flooded communities (20.9%) compared to those inhabiting non-flooded villages (13.1%). Wasting was very similar in children experiencing flooding and those populating non-flooded areas, with 12.2% and 11.9%, respectively (Table 1).

Deleted: s2

Deleted: s2

Factors Associated with Stunting

Table S2 shows the crude and adjusted associations between stunting and exposure to floods, household size, number of children younger than 5 years, occupation, religion, caste, monthly family income, source of drinking water, storage of cooked food, child birth weight, sex, age and immunization coverage. In the bivariate model, exposure to floods, religion and family income were associated with stunting. Muslim children were at higher risk of being stunted, but this difference did not remain statistically significant in the multivariate model. Table 2 shows the significant determinants of stunting in the adjusted analyses. Children living in flooded households were more likely stunted compared to those living in non-flooded communities (adjusted PR [APR], 1.60; 95% CI, 1.05-2.44). The children of the poorest families (those reporting to earn equal or less than three thousand rupees a year) were also more likely stunted compared to those in the higher income class (APR, 1.85; 95% CI, 1.11-3.09). The interaction between monthly household income and exposure to floods was not significant.

Deleted: (at the time of the interview)

Deleted: l

Deleted: i

Deleted: ,controlling for all variables in the table,

Deleted: c

Table 2 Factors Associated with Malnutrition in Children Aged 6 to 59 Months in 29 Study Villages in Orissa, India

Factor	Stunting ^a		Underweight ^b		Wasting ^c	
	APR (95% CI)	P Value	APR (95% CI)	P Value	APR (95% CI)	P Value
Flood exposure level						
Household in non-flooded village	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
Household in flooded village	1.60 (1.05-2.44)	0.031	1.86 (1.04-3.30)	0.036	1.21 (0.61-2.42)	0.58
No. of children younger than 5 y						
1	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
≥ 2	0.91 (0.64-1.28)	0.58	1.69 (1.05-2.72)	0.031	1.29 (0.68-2.45)	0.43
Annual income, thousand INR						

> 9	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
> 6-9	1.02 (0.58-1.81)	0.94	2.01 (0.89-4.54)	0.095	1.27 (0.42-3.86)	0.67
> 3-6	1.20 (0.77-1.88)	0.42	1.22 (0.57-2.59)	0.60	1.41 (0.56-3.54)	0.47
≤ 3	1.85 (1.11-3.09)	0.019	1.76 (0.78-3.99)	0.18	2.13 (0.76-6.02)	0.15
Birthweight, kg						
≥ 2.7	1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]		1 [Reference]	
< 2.7	1.17 (0.85-1.62)	0.34	1.80 (1.11-2.92)	0.017	1.28 (0.69-2.38)	0.46

Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; APR, adjusted prevalence ratio.

*Four observations with missing data were deleted from the analysis.

^aOne observation with missing data on underweight was deleted from the analyses. Four additional observations with missing data were deleted from the analysis.

^bFive observations with missing data on wasting were deleted from all the analyses. Four additional observations with missing data were deleted from the analysis. APRs were adjusted for the effect of all the other variables shown in the table and household size, occupation, religion, caste, source of drinking water and storage of cooked food, sex, age and immunization coverage.

Factors Associated with Underweight and Wasting

Underweight was associated with the number of children younger than 5 years living in a household, monthly family income and child birth weight in the univariate analyses (Table S3). Family monthly income was not significant in the multivariate model (APR, 1.76; 95% CI, 0.78-3.99). Contrarily, exposure to floods was not statistically significant in the bivariate model (PR, 1.60; 95% CI, 0.98-2.59) but it became significant in the multivariate model (APR, 1.86; 95% CI, 1.04-3.30 - see Tables 2 and S3). Therefore, children living in a household with one or more under 5 children presented a higher risk of underweight than those living without other under 5 counterparts (APR, 1.69; 95% CI, 1.05-2.72). Low-birth weight children (< 2.7 kg) were at higher risk of being underweight compared to those born with higher weights (APR, 1.80; 95% CI, 1.11-2.92). The interaction between exposure to floods and low-birth weight and number of under five children were not significant. Wasting was not associated to any of the factors considered in this study neither in bivariate nor multivariate models (Tables 2 and S4).

Malnutrition and Recurrent Flooding

ANOVA analyses were used to test the differences in Z-scores for stunting and underweight by age category between the flooded and non-flooded cohorts. The children aged 26 to 36 months of the flooded cohort presented the largest difference in stunting with those of the non-flooded compared to other age groups, except for the 6 to 18 months cohort (Table 3). The difference was only significant for the group 26 to 36 ($p < 0.001$). These differences were less evident for underweight (see Table 3).

Deleted: , controlling for all other variables

Deleted: . Children living in flooded communities were at higher risk of being underweight compared to those living in non-flooded households (APR, 1.86; 95% CI, 1.04-3.30).

Deleted: 3

Deleted: In this study, higher prevalence of chronic malnutrition was found in children living in flooded communities compared to those inhabiting the non-flooded ones. Given that this survey started within a month after the flooding onset, it is very unlikely that these malnutrition levels were exclusively related to the most recent flood. Instead, the inundation that took place in August 2006 and affected the same villages might be a more plausible explanation to these findings. We hypothesized that children being less than one year old during 2006 floods (>26-36 months) may have been exposed to nutritional stresses at a very critical age in their development.

Deleted: separate adjusted analysis

Deleted: of

Deleted: areas by age category revealed important differences between ages in the flooded cohort but not in the non-flooded

Deleted: C

Deleted: higher levels

Deleted: of

Deleted: than

Deleted: any other age group

Deleted: 4

Deleted: Despite the analysis did not show a statistically significant difference between this age group and the reference category, 6-18 months (APR, 1.41; 95% CI, 0.81-2.44) it did for underweight (APR, 2.93; 95% CI, 1.09-7.88), which followed a similar pattern that stunting, with the higher prevalence of underweight concentrated in children 26 to 36 months.

Table 3 Differences in Stunting and Underweight Z-scores Between Flooded and Non-Flooded Children by Age Groups in Orissa, India

Factor	Stunting		Underweight	
	Difference in Mean	P Value	Difference in Mean	P Value
Age, mo				
> 6-18	-1.1	0.17	-0.3	0.39
> 18-26	-0.02	0.95	0.1	0.74
> 26-36	-1.1	0.0006	-0.4	0.07
> 36-46	-0.5	0.29	-0.3	0.19
> 46-60	-0.2	0.62	-0.3	0.38

DISCUSSION

Our study represents a first attempt to understand the role of exposure to natural disasters as a risk factor for child malnutrition in India. Within one month after the floods, wasting did not differ among children inhabiting the flooded villages and those living in the non-flooded areas. In contrast, a higher risk of stunting was detected in children living in the flooded areas in bivariate and multivariate models. The risk of underweight was significantly higher only in the adjusted analyses. All villages under study in the flooded group were also inundated in previous floods happening in August 2006 (25 months earlier). In the absence of other disasters in the area, our results suggest an association of chronic malnutrition and previous flooding in these children. The study also showed that the exposed cohort of children aged less than one year during the 2006 floods presented the largest difference in levels of stunting with the non-flooded group of the same age. This finding underlines the importance of early exposure to floods as a risk factor for anthropometric failure in children.

One evident limitation of this study is direct consequence of its cross-sectional design, which did not allow us to establish causal relationships. Second, this study was conducted soon after waters start to recede in a heavily flooded area where road blocks were commonplace. In consequence, there exists selecting bias in the choice of the affected villages. Nevertheless, if the situation was even worst in more isolated villages not represented in the sample, it is remarkable that we already found increased risk for malnutrition among these exposed children. In contrast, wasting could have been more important than reflected in our results in the most isolated communities. Thus, this community-based study limits our findings to two subpopulations of children living in 29 rural communities of Orissa. A population survey would be necessary to assess health impacts and disease risk in a population better representing the one affected, and thus making easier to design wider interventions. Third, this study did not include other relevant conditions related to malnutrition, such as maternal education, variables on losses, food insecurity and coping mechanisms which may impact this association and further explain the mechanisms which

Deleted: the
Deleted: detected in this study is related to
Deleted: previous
Deleted: higher
Deleted: underweight and
Deleted: compared to the
Deleted: Although none of the variables explained the variation in wasting, the analyses did reveal other factors associated with stunting and underweight. The lowest economic status was positively associated with stunting whereas underweight was influenced by low birth weight and the presence of at least one additional under five child in the household.

Deleted: Second
Deleted: we
Deleted: measure or
Deleted: control for
Deleted: other social and health
Deleted: in the multivariate models for malnutrition

1
2
3 | lead to malnutrition after floods.Fourth, a different instrument was used to weight children
4 heavier than 10 kg, instead of a single balance. [41] Fifth, our power calculations did not
5 take into consideration subgroup analyses. Probably further determinants of malnutrition
6 would have been revealed using a larger sample size. Sixth, self-reported economic status,
7 especially after disasters, can be subject to reporting bias. To minimize false reporting, field
8 researchers informed the respondents about the purpose of the survey and cross-checked
9 the economic information collected with the house type and assets.

Deleted: Third

Deleted: 35

Deleted: ourth

Deleted: F

Deleted: f

Deleted: Finally, the findings of this study apply to a population of children living in 29 rural communities of Orissa. A population survey instead of a community survey will be required to extend the findings to larger populations, thus making easier to design wider interventions.

10
11 The striking similarity in wasting among both groups suggests that the flooded cohort was
12 not subject to additional short-term nutritional stress compared to children living in the non-
13 flooded, at least immediately after the flood. This is probably connected to the fact that
14 government and NGOs were mobilized rapidly and provided supplies right after the onset of
15 flooding (unpublished data) and this might be the case after the 2006 event. In floods
16 occurring in Bangladesh in 1998, other authors found critical levels of malnutrition (i.e.
17 >15%) during the flood period. [12] The exceptional long duration and magnitude of that
18 flooding probably played an important role in causing a more dramatic situation than the
19 observed in these communities of Orissa. Further research on the same flood event in
20 Bangladesh using a comparison group failed to detect an effect of floods on wasting two
21 months after the floods. [13] In another study on the same floods, the levels of wasting had
22 gone down considerably four months later. [12] These results suggest that the recovery after
23 floods seem to occur promptly in these populations. On the other hand, the absence of
24 significant wasting in the flooded communities of Orissa together with simultaneous higher
25 levels of underweight and stunting suggest that both reflect the long-term health and
26 nutritional experience of the population. [42] These results from India are similar to those
27 found in Bangladesh in which the long-term consequences of floods on nutrition are
28 depicted. [13]

Deleted: 36

29
30 | Low income proxies (such as landlessness) have been observed as a risk factor for acute
31 malnutrition among flood affected children in Bangladesh [10]. More recently, another study
32 has shown that the children of flood-affected families taking loans at very high rates did not
33 improve their nutritional status compared to those having access to credits at very low or no
34 interest. [12] However the latter studies only establish the short term effects of the
35 disaster. None have established economic status as a risk factor for chronic malnutrition – a
36 long term consequence, among flood affected children.

Deleted: Links between low income and chronic malnutrition have been well described in the literature. [37-41]

37
38 Finally, the lack of significant interaction between significant variables, such as exposure to
39 floods and income, supports that higher economic status is not protective against the
40 impacts of floods on child malnutrition, at least in these communities. More research is
41 necessary to understand the complex dynamics of child malnutrition after severe flooding
42 and its socio-economic and health determinants. Representative larger surveys are
43 recommended, which should help to confirm these results and help policy makers in
44 implementing appropriate measures.

Deleted: confirms

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Acknowledgements We would like to acknowledge the MICRODIS consortium for development of tools and conceptual models, as well as the VHA1 research and field team for data collection and study design. We are grateful to Nita Paliakara for her assistance with nutritional aspects of this paper and insightful comments on an earlier version of this manuscript.

Deleted: 1

FOOTNOTES

Funding This research was funded by the European FP6 6th Framework Programme under The MICRODIS Project – Integrated Health, Social and Economic Impacts of Extreme Events: Evidence, Methods and Tools (Contract No. GOCE-CT-2007-036877).

Patient consent Obtained.

Competing interest None declared.

Ethics approval Persons eligible to participate in the study were not offered a monetary incentive for participation. All the participants involved in the study were informed about the nature of the study, research objectives and about confidentiality of the data, with the assurance that non-participation would not lead to negative consequences. It was not possible to blind assessors, as they needed to visit households to conduct the interviews.

Written informed consent was obtained for every head of household visited. In case the respondent was an illiterate, we asked a literate person from the community to read out the consent form and explain it to the head of the family. Then we obtained the thumb impression of the respondent. In those case, the person who read out the consent form also signed as a witness. Research procedures were consistent with the Declaration of Helsinki.

[43] Interviews were administered after obtaining informed consent. The protocol was reviewed by a small group of scientists who had experience working with survivors of natural disasters and amended based on their recommendations.

Deleted: 2

Contributors

DGS obtained the funding. DGS, AM, SRD, JRL conceived and designed the study. SRD and AM collected the data and supervised the study. JRL, DGS, OD analyzed and interpreted the data. JRL conducted the statistical analyses and drafted the manuscript. SRD, JRL, DGS and AM provided administrative, technical or material support. All authors critically revised the manuscript for important intellectual content.

Data sharing statement Statistical code available from the corresponding author.

REFERENCES

1 EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database. www.emdat.be- Université Catholique de Louvain - Brussels – Belgium. Data version: v12.07 (accessed October 2009).

2 Noji EK. The Public Health Consequences of Disasters. New York: Oxford University Press 1997:3-20.

3 Ahern M, Kovats RS, Wilkinson P, et al. Global health impacts of floods: epidemiologic evidence. *Epidemiol Rev* 2005;**27**:36-46. doi:10.1093/epirev/mxi004

4 Rodriguez J, Vos F, Below R et al. Annual Disaster Statistical Review 2008: The Numbers and Trends. Brussels: Jacoffset Printers 2009: 1-25.

5 Biswas R, Pal D, Mukhopadhyay SP. A community based study on health impact of flood in a vulnerable district of West Bengal. *Indian J Public Health* 1999;**43**:89-90.

6 Mondal NC, Biswas R, Manna A. Risk factors of diarrhoea among flood victims: a controlled epidemiological study. *Indian J Public Health*. 2001;**45**:122-127.

7 Sur D, Dutta P, Nair GB, Bhattacharya SK. Severe cholera outbreak following floods in a northern district of West Bengal. *Indian J Med Res* 2000;**112**:178-182.

8 Leal-Castellanos CB, García-Suárez R, González-Figueroa E, et al. Risk factors and the prevalence of Leptospirosis infection in a rural community of Chiapas, Mexico. *Epidemiol Infect* 2003;**131**:1149-1156. doi:10.1017/S0950268803001201

9 Liu A, Tan H, Zhou J, et al. An epidemiologic study of posttraumatic stress disorder in flood victims in Hunan China. *Can J Psychiatry* 2006;**51**:350-354.

10 Stewart MK, Fauveau V, Chakraborty J, et al. Post-flood nutritional anthropometry of children in Matlab, Bangladesh. *Ecol Food Nutr* 1990;**24**: 121-31. doi:10.1080/03670244.1990.9991127

11 Choudhury AY, Bhuiya A. Effects of biosocial variables on changes in nutritional status of rural Bangladeshi children, pre- and post-monsoon flooding. *J BiosocSci* 1993;**25**:351-357.

12 Hossain SM, Kolsteren P. The 1998 flood in Bangladesh: is different targeting needed during emergencies and recovery to tackle malnutrition?. *Disasters* 2003;**27**:172-184. doi: 10.1111/1467-7717.00227

13 del Ninno C, Lundberg M. Treading water: the long-term impact of the 1998 flood on nutrition in Bangladesh. *Econ Hum Biol* 2005;**3**:67-96. doi: 10.1016/j.ehb.2004.12.002

14 Paul BK, Rasid H. Flood damage to rice crop in Bangladesh. *Geogr Rev* 1993;**83**:150-9.

15 Banerjee L. Effect of flood on agricultural wages in Bangladesh: an empirical analysis. *World Development* 2007;**35**:1989-2009. doi:10.1016/j.worlddev.2006.11.010

16 Howden SM, Soussana J, Tubiello FN, et al. Adapting agriculture to climate change. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2007;**104**:19691-19696. doi:10.1073/pnas.0701890104

Formatted: English (U.S.)

Formatted: French (Belgium)

Formatted: Font: Bold, French (Belgium)

Formatted: French (Belgium)

Formatted: French (Belgium)

Deleted: 1

Deleted: 5

Deleted: 6

Formatted: English (U.S.)

Deleted: 7

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

<p>17 Lobell DB, Burke MB, Tebaldi C, et al. Prioritizing climate change adaptation needs for food security in 2030. <i>Science</i> 2008;319:607-610. doi:10.1126/science.1152339</p>	<p>Deleted: 8</p>
<p>18 Haines A, Kovats R, Campbell-Lendrum D, et al. Climate change and human health: impacts, vulnerability, and mitigation. <i>Lancet</i> 2006;367:2101-2109. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(06)68933-2</p>	<p>Deleted: 9</p>
<p>19 Ebi KL, Paulson JA. Climate change and children. <i>Pediatr Clin North Am</i> 2007;54:213-226. doi:10.1016/j.pcl.2007.01.004</p>	<p>Deleted: 10 Stewart MK, Fauveau V, Chakraborty J, et al. Post-flood nutritional anthropometry of children in Matlab, Bangladesh. <i>Ecol Food Nutr</i> 1990;24: 121-31. doi:10.1080/03670244.1990.9991127</p>
<p>20 Bunyavanich S, Landrigan CP, McMichael AJ, et al. The impact of climate change on child health. <i>Ambul Pediatr</i> 2003;3:44-52.</p>	<p>Deleted: 11 Choudhury AY, Bhuiya A. Effects of biosocial variables on changes in nutritional status of rural Bangladeshi children, pre- and post-monsoon flooding. <i>J Biosoc Sci</i> 1993;25:351-357.</p>
<p>21 Kistin EJ, Fogarty J, Pokrasso RS, et al. Climate change, water resources and child health. <i>Arch Dis Child</i> 2010;95:545-549. doi:10.1136/adc.2009.175307</p>	<p>Deleted: 12 Hossain SM, Kolsteren P. The 1998 flood in Bangladesh: is different targeting needed during emergencies and recovery to tackle malnutrition?. <i>Disasters</i> 2003;27:172-184. doi: 10.1111/1467-7717.00227</p>
<p>22 Black RE, Allen LH, Bhutta ZA, et al. Maternal and child undernutrition: global and regional exposures and health consequences. <i>Lancet</i> 2008;371:243-260. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(07)61690-0</p>	<p>Deleted: 13 del Ninno C, Lundberg M. Treading water: the long-term impact of the 1998 flood on nutrition in Bangladesh. <i>Econ Hum Biol</i> 2005;3:67-96. doi: 10.1016/j.ehb.2004.12.002</p>
<p>23 Grantham-McGregor S, Cheung YB, Cueto S, et al. Developmental potential in the first 5 years for children in developing countries. <i>Lancet</i> 2007;369:60-70. doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(07)60032-4</p>	<p>Deleted: 4</p>
<p>24 Walker SP, Wachs TD, Meeks Gardner J, et al. Child development: risk factors for adverse outcomes in developing countries. <i>Lancet</i> 2007;369:145-157. doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(07)60076-2</p>	<p>Deleted: 15</p>
<p>25 Chilton M, Chyatte M, Breaux J. The negative effects of poverty and food insecurity on child development. <i>Indian J Med Res</i> 2007;126:262-272.</p>	<p>Deleted: 16</p>
<p>26 Thomalla F, Schmuck H. 'We all knew that a cyclone was coming': disaster preparedness and the cyclone of 1999 in Orissa, India. <i>Disasters</i> 2004;28:373-387. doi:10.1111/j.0361-3666.2004.00264.x</p>	<p>Deleted: 17</p>
<p>27 McMichael AJ, Woodruff RE, Hales S. Climate change and human health: present and future risks. <i>Lancet</i> 2006;367:859-69. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(06)68079-3</p>	<p>Deleted: 18</p>
<p>28 Cook A, Watson J, Buynder PV et al. 10th anniversary review: natural disasters and their long-term impacts on the health of communities. <i>J Environ Monit</i> 2008;10:167-175.</p>	<p>Deleted: 19</p>
<p>29 Huntington TG. Evidence for intensification of the global water cycle: review and synthesis. <i>J of Hydrol</i> 2006;319:83-95. doi: 10.1016/j.jhydrol.2005.07.003</p>	<p>Deleted: 0</p>
<p>30 Huppert HE, Sparks RSJ. Extreme natural hazards: population growth, globalization and environmental change. <i>Philos Transact A Math PhysEngSci</i> 2006;364:1875-1888. doi: 10.1098/rsta.2006.1803</p>	<p>Deleted: 1</p>
<p>22 Ranjan-Dash S. Microdis Primary Field Survey in Jagatsinghpur District of Orissa by Voluntary Health Association of India, New Dehli: Research Background. MICRODIS report 2009:1-33.¶</p>	<p>Deleted: 22 Ranjan-Dash S. Microdis Primary Field Survey in Jagatsinghpur District of Orissa by Voluntary Health Association of India, New Dehli: Research Background. MICRODIS report 2009:1-33.¶</p>
	<p>Deleted: 3</p>
	<p>Deleted: 4</p>
	<p>Deleted: 25</p>
	<p>Deleted: 26</p>

1
2
3 [31 Solomon S, et al., eds. Climate Change 2007: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Cambridge: Cambridge Univ. Press 2007. p 996.](#)

4
5
6 [32 Brenkert AL, Malone EL. Modeling vulnerability and resilience to climate change: a case study of India and Indian states. Climatic Change 2005;72:57-102. doi:10.1007/s10584-005-5930-3](#)

7
8
9 [33](#) Census of India 2001. <http://www.censusindia.gov.in/> (accessed August 2008).

10
11 [34](#) Turner AG, Magnani RJ, Shuaib M. A not quite as quick but much cleaner alternative to the expanded programme on immunization (EPI) cluster survey design. *Int J Epidemiol* 1996;25:198-203. doi:10.1093/ije/25.1.198

12
13
14
15 [35](#) Milligan P, Njie A, Bennett S. Comparison of two cluster sampling methods for health surveys in developing countries. *Int J Epidemiol* 2004;33:469-476. doi:10.1093/ije/dyh096

16
17
18 [36](#) International Institute for Population Sciences (IIPS) and Macro International. National Family Health Survey (NFHS-3), 2005-06: India: Volume I. Mumbai: IIPS 2007:267-313.

19
20
21 [37](#) R Development Core Team (2008). R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. ISBN 3-900051-07-0, <http://www.R-project.org>.

22
23
24 [38](#) Thompson M, Myers J, Kriebel D. Prevalence odds ratio or prevalence ratio in the analysis of cross-sectional data: what is to be done?. *Occup Environ Med* 1998;55:272-7. doi:10.1136/oem.55.4.272

25
26
27 [39](#) Deddens JA, Petersen MR. Approaches for estimating prevalence ratios. *Occup Environ Med* 2008;65:501-506. doi:10.1136/oem.2007.034777

28
29
30 [40](#) Lumley T. Categorical data regression. In: Couper MP, Kalton G, Rao JNK, et al., eds. *Complex Surveys: A Guide to Analysis Using R*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons 2010:109-133.

31
32
33 [41](#) WHO. *The Management of Nutrition In Major Emergencies*. Geneva: WHO 2000:1-236.

34
35
36 [42](#) de Onis M, Blössner M. *Who Global Database on Child Growth and Malnutrition*. Geneva: WHO 1997:1-67.

37
38
39 [43](#) 48th World medical assembly. Declaration of Helsinki: recommendations guiding physicians in biomedical research involving human subjects. *JAMA* 1997;277:925-926. doi:10.1001/jama.1997.03540350075038

46 FIGURES

47
48 **Figure 1** Flow diagram of the sample obtained on 352 children aged 6 to 59 months in Jagatsinghpur district, Orissa, India

Deleted: 27

Deleted: 28

Deleted: 29

Deleted: 0

Deleted: 1

Deleted: 2

Deleted: 3

Deleted: 3

Deleted: Schwarz N, Skinner C

Deleted: 35

Deleted: 36

Deleted: 37 Bhuiya A, Zimicki S, D'Souza S. Socioeconomic differentials in child nutrition and morbidity in a rural area of Bangladesh. *J Trop Pediatr* 1986;32:17-23. doi:10.1093/tropej/32.1.1738 Bairagi R. Is income the only constraint on child nutrition in rural Bangladesh?. *Bull World Health Organ* 1980;58:767-772.39 Nandy S, Irving M, Gordon D, et al. Poverty, child undernutrition and morbidity: new evidence from India. *Bull World Health Organ* 2005;83:210-216.40 Subramanyam MA, Kawachi I, Berkman LF et al. Socioeconomic inequalities in childhood undernutrition in India: analyzing trends between 1992 and 2005. *PLoS ONE* 2010;5:e11392. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.001139241 Kanjilal B, Mazumdar P, Mukherjee M, et al. Nutritional status of children in India: household socio-economic condition as the contextual determinant. *Int J Equity Health* 2010;9:19. doi:10.1186/1475-9276-9-19

Deleted: 2

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For peer review only

1
2
3 **Page 4: [1] Deleted**

cred

5/27/2011 3:25:00 PM

4
5 **Data source**

6
7 This study was conducted under the MICRODISproject, through a EC Framework 6
8 Research grant. The overall goal of this project was to strengthen preparedness,
9 mitigation and prevention strategies in order to reduce the health, social and economic
10 impacts of extreme events on communities. The consortium consists of a total of 19
11 academic institutions and grassroots organizations, administering empirical work in
12 selected flood, storm and earthquake sites in Asia and Europe, along with the
13 development of integrated assessment methods and tools. This specific research was
14 led by the Voluntary Health Association of India (VHAI) in collaboration with the Centre
15 for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters – Université catholique de Louvain (CRED-
16 UCL). The main objective of the present survey was to assess jointly the economic, social
17 and health impact of floods in Orissa, India. The data presented here focuses on the
18 impacts of floods on child malnutrition.
19
20
21
22
23
24
25

26 **Page 4: [2] Deleted**

cred

5/27/2011 4:14:00 PM

27 a governmental agency in charge of statewide disaster relief operations,
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

STROBE 2007 (v4) Statement—Checklist of items that should be included in reports of *cross-sectional studies*

Section/Topic	Item #	Recommendation	Reported on page #
Title and abstract	1	(a) Indicate the study's design with a commonly used term in the title or the abstract	1
		(b) Provide in the abstract an informative and balanced summary of what was done and what was found	1
Introduction			
Background/rationale	2	Explain the scientific background and rationale for the investigation being reported	3,4
Objectives	3	State specific objectives, including any prespecified hypotheses	4
Methods			
Study design	4	Present key elements of study design early in the paper	4
Setting	5	Describe the setting, locations, and relevant dates, including periods of recruitment, exposure, follow-up, and data collection	4,5,6
Participants	6	(a) Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of selection of participants	5
Variables	7	Clearly define all outcomes, exposures, predictors, potential confounders, and effect modifiers. Give diagnostic criteria, if applicable	6,7
Data sources/ measurement	8*	For each variable of interest, give sources of data and details of methods of assessment (measurement). Describe comparability of assessment methods if there is more than one group	5,6,7
Bias	9	Describe any efforts to address potential sources of bias	7,8
Study size	10	Explain how the study size was arrived at	7
Quantitative variables	11	Explain how quantitative variables were handled in the analyses. If applicable, describe which groupings were chosen and why	6,7
Statistical methods	12	(a) Describe all statistical methods, including those used to control for confounding	7,8
		(b) Describe any methods used to examine subgroups and interactions	8
		(c) Explain how missing data were addressed	7
		(d) If applicable, describe analytical methods taking account of sampling strategy	None
		(e) Describe any sensitivity analyses	
Results			

Participants	13*	(a) Report numbers of individuals at each stage of study—eg numbers potentially eligible, examined for eligibility, confirmed eligible, included in the study, completing follow-up, and analysed	7, Fig 1
		(b) Give reasons for non-participation at each stage	7, Fig 1
		(c) Consider use of a flow diagram	Fig 1
Descriptive data	14*	(a) Give characteristics of study participants (eg demographic, clinical, social) and information on exposures and potential confounders	8
		(b) Indicate number of participants with missing data for each variable of interest	7
Outcome data	15*	Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures	9
Main results	16	(a) Give unadjusted estimates and, if applicable, confounder-adjusted estimates and their precision (eg, 95% confidence interval). Make clear which confounders were adjusted for and why they were included	9-11
		(b) Report category boundaries when continuous variables were categorized	9-11
		(c) If relevant, consider translating estimates of relative risk into absolute risk for a meaningful time period	
Other analyses	17	Report other analyses done—eg analyses of subgroups and interactions, and sensitivity analyses	9-12
Discussion			
Key results	18	Summarise key results with reference to study objectives	14
Limitations	19	Discuss limitations of the study, taking into account sources of potential bias or imprecision. Discuss both direction and magnitude of any potential bias	14
Interpretation	20	Give a cautious overall interpretation of results considering objectives, limitations, multiplicity of analyses, results from similar studies, and other relevant evidence	14,15
Generalisability	21	Discuss the generalisability (external validity) of the study results	15
Other information			
Funding	22	Give the source of funding and the role of the funders for the present study and, if applicable, for the original study on which the present article is based	15

*Give information separately for cases and controls in case-control studies and, if applicable, for exposed and unexposed groups in cohort and cross-sectional studies.

Note: An Explanation and Elaboration article discusses each checklist item and gives methodological background and published examples of transparent reporting. The STROBE checklist is best used in conjunction with this article (freely available on the Web sites of PLoS Medicine at <http://www.plosmedicine.org/>, Annals of Internal Medicine at <http://www.annals.org/>, and Epidemiology at <http://www.epidem.com/>). Information on the STROBE Initiative is available at www.strobe-statement.org.

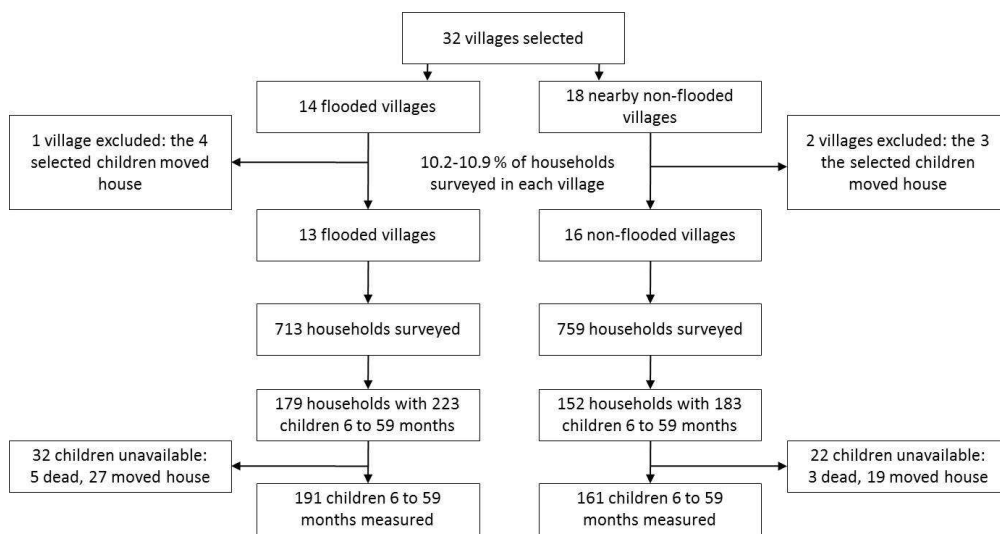


Figure 1 Flow diagram of the sample obtained on 352 children aged 6 to 59 months in Jagatsinghpur district, Orissa, India
117x61mm (300 x 300 DPI)

review only