



Republic of Ghana,
Ministry of Health

Ghana National Community Health Worker Training Manual

Module 2: Community-Based Care Participant's Manual



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Foreword by the Minister of Health, Ghana

Today's global health picture is one of great diversity, with life's chances and health's inequities sharply polarized. Poverty and inequality are both causes and symptoms of the crisis in health. Average life expectancy in many societies is less than half that of the privileged. And the gaps are widening. The wealthy continue to enjoy longevity up to and beyond 80 years, but life expectancy at birth is less than 40 in more than a dozen countries, nearly all in sub-Saharan Africa.

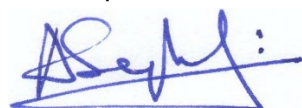
The Ministry of Health (MoH) focuses on strengthening Community-based Health Systems. In view of this, the Community-based Health Planning and Services (CHPS) Policy has been formulated to guide interventions that will facilitate the achievement of good health and wellbeing of the people living in Ghana in line with the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) three (3). As part of one of the interventions to strengthen CHPS, the Ministry of Health and World Vision Ghana developed the Roadmap of Ghana Community Health Worker Program and specifically the development of a comprehensive curriculum, training manuals, facilitators guide and a robust monitoring and evaluation tools for Community Health Workers (CHWs).

Ghana has made gains in the area of life expectancy by improving from 59.19 in 2006 to 62.89 in 2013 according to the latest World Health Organization data published in 2013. Making healthcare accessible at the community level and especially at the hard-to-reach areas will further enhance the life expectancy of the people living in Ghana in the years to come. An investment in the nation's Community Health Workers (CHW) will make it possible the science-based health revolution of previous years. Today's crisis reflects both new and resurgent diseases as well as neglect of human resources in the health sector, so critical for effective response. At the frontline of human survival in affected communities, we see overburdened and overstressed health workers, few in number and without the support they so badly need, losing the fight. Many are collapsing under the strain, many are dying or retiring and above all, many are seeking a better life and a more rewarding work environment by leaving for well-endowed communities.

Even so, dedicated health workers across the country demonstrate social commitment and purpose far beyond the call of duty. And their steadfast motivation is finally being matched by new health priorities and greater financial allocations for the sector. Resources, though still far from adequate, are being obtained and with the support of our donor partners such as the World Vision International, we are scaling up the Community Health Worker Programme with the introduction of these Training Manuals for facilitators, CHWs and our cherished clients. These initiatives hold much promise. We now know that CHWs and CHVs can play a crucial role in broadening access and coverage of health services in remote areas and can undertake actions that would lead to improved health outcomes. To be successful on a large scale, CHW training programmes have carefully been planned, funding has been secured and government has taken active leadership and community support. To carry out their tasks successfully, CHWs need regular training and supervision and reliable logistical support. CHWs represent an important health resource whose potential in providing and extending a basic health care to underserved populations can be fully exploited.

The Ghana Community Health Worker (GhCHW) Programme Participant and Facilitator Modules are designed to strengthen the Community Health System in Ghana and also to facilitate Universal Health Coverage. New teaching aid to staff and community health workers now exist. The promise will be realized only when the health worker is enlightened. These modules therefore are created to enlighten both the facilitators and CHWs.

The Training Modules are designed for self-learning as well as sharing in professional development settings to increase the understanding of facilitators, volunteers and the clients. The Modules are designed by trained, experienced and dedicated professionals. These training modules are designed to be a component of comprehensive professional development that includes supplementary coaching and ongoing support. The Facilitator's Guide, which is a companion to all the training modules, is designed to assist facilitators in delivering the training modules for CHWs. These manuals if well implemented, will bring about further improvement in health delivery in our deprived communities.



Alexander Segbefia Minister of Health

Statement by World Vision International in Ghana

World Vision recognizes the efforts of the government, through the Ministry of Health and the Ghana Health Service, to improve maternal and child health, especially in rural communities. Government's policies and strategies on maternal and child health have resulted in declining child mortality rates over the years. This decline notwithstanding, the Ghana Demographic and Health Survey of 2014 estimate infant mortality rate to be 41 deaths per 1,000 live births and under-5 mortality to be slightly higher at 60 deaths per 1,000 live births. At these levels, one in every 24 Ghanaian children dies before reaching age 1, and one in every 17 does not survive to his or her fifth birthday. Under-5 mortality is highest in the Northern, Upper West, and Ashanti regions of Ghana.

World Vision commends the government on its commitment to establish more Community-based Health Planning and Services (CHPS) zones across the country and the deployment of additional trained midwives and nurses to these zones to provide health care for mothers and children, and by so doing, contribute to the reduction of preventable maternal and child deaths, especially in the rural areas of our country.

World Vision aspires, in partnership with the Church and the government, to ensure that children enjoy good health and are cared for, protected and participate in community life. Our health and nutrition interventions have over the past 36 years complimented the priorities of the District Health Management Teams (DHMTs) of the Ghana Health Service (GHS) at the district level and have been in alignment with Government's policies and strategies. World Vision has a long term commitment with the Ministry of Health, Ghana Health Service, and civil society coalitions on health, hygiene, water, sanitation, nutrition and child protection, to leverage our experience and expertise to collectively address child deaths from preventable causes. Our sponsorship of the development of a comprehensive curriculum and training material for the training of Community Health Workers (CHWs) under the Ghana Community Health Programme signifies the importance World Vision attaches to this initiative, which in our estimation, will contribute significantly to reduce preventable child deaths. This cadre of community health workers will deliver preventive and curative services at the household level especially in the hard-to-reach areas. World Vision Ghana, working in partnership with the Ministry of Health, Ghana Health Service and partners has provided technical expertise and funding in excess of four hundred and sixty-five thousand Ghana Cedis (GHS 465,000) for the curriculum development process. We see the integration of the CHW arm of health delivery into the health mainstream system as a step in the right direction and particularly grateful to the government for taking the bold step to recruit, train and deploy 20,000 CHWs across the country under the Youth in Health Module of the Community Improvement Programmes of the Youth Employment Agency (YEA) of the Ministry of Employment and Labour Relations in collaboration with the Ministry of Health, Ghana Health Service, World Vision Ghana, and One Million Community Health Workers (1mCHW) Campaign.

We commit our self to continue to support the people and government of Ghana towards an improved health status of children.



Mr. Hubert Charles
National Director

Abbreviations and glossary of terms

ARI	Acute respiratory infection	LBW	Low birth weight (baby)
ARV	Antiretroviral	LLIN	Long-lasting insecticidal net
ART	Antiretroviral therapy	MAM	Moderate acute malnutrition
ANC	Antenatal care	MoH	Ministry of Health
CHW/V	Community health worker/volunteer	MUAC	Mid-upper arm circumference
CHMC	Community health management committee	NGO	Non-governmental organisation
CMAM	Community-based management of acute malnutrition	NO	National office
EBF	Exclusive breastfeeding	OPC	Outpatient care
FP	Family planning	ORS	Oral rehydration salts
GBV	Gender-based violence	PD/Hearth	Positive Deviance/Hearth
GHS	Ghana Health Service	PHC	Primary health care
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus	PLW	Pregnant and lactating women
HVs	Home Visitors	PMTCT	Prevention of mother-to-child transmission of HIV
ICT	Information and communication technology	PNC	Postnatal care
ICCM	Integrated community case management	PSS	Psychosocial support
IMCI	Integrated management of childhood illness	RH	Reproductive health
IYCF	Infant and young child feeding	SBA	Skilled birth attendant
KMC	Kangaroo Mother Care	SC	Stabilisation centre
		SRH	Sexual and reproductive health
		STI	Sexually transmitted infection
		U5MR	Under-5 mortality rate
		VCT	Voluntary counselling and testing
		WASH	Water, sanitation and hygiene
		WHO	World Health Organisation

Resources and References

The majority of this material has been developed from existing CHV and CHW training curricula that have already been tried and tested either within Ghana or similar community health contexts. Key source materials used to develop this curriculum, and reproduced with permission:

- CHPS Programme: A Training Manual for Community Health Volunteers
- Millennium Villages project, Training Curriculum for Community Health Workers
- World Vision's Timed and Targeted Counselling for Health and Nutrition
- Integrated Community Case Management In Ghana; Training Manual, Ministry of Health 2014
- Measuring and Promoting Child Growth Tool. A Module of the Nutrition Toolkit Facilitator's Manual Version 2, August 2011. *Nutrition Centre of Expertise, World Vision International.*
- TB HIV Training Manual for Community Health Workers (USAID)
- Facts for Life, 4th Edition. UNICEF Publications. UNICEF, WHO, UNESCO, UNFPA, UNDP, UNAIDS, WFP and the World Bank Price: April 2010 ISBN: 978-92-806-4466-1
- Caring for newborns and children in the community. World Health Organization, 2011. ISBN: 978 92 4 154804 5 http://www.who.int/maternal_child_adolescent/documents/imci_community_care/en/
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INTRODUCTION TO MODULE 2: COMMUNITY-BASED CARE

Module description

Welcome to Module two of the CHW training manual. In this module you will be introduced to the main health conditions you may encounter during home visits, and how to manage them in the community. CHWs will develop the skills to assess acute health conditions and respond appropriately, including the management of referrals. They will also learn about certain long-term conditions that may require community-based care such as chronic health problems, HIV, TB and malnutrition.

The module has been organised into five units. Each unit has up to seven sessions, designed to enable CHWs learn and acquire the necessary skills required for managing the specific conditions. Unit one deals with common home-based emergencies and how to manage them with emphasis on their prevention; unit 2 deals with identifying and managing complications of specific conditions. In unit 3 CHWs will learn about the roles and responsibilities of the CHW in managing home-based emergencies and unit 4 will introduce CHWs to community-based care of clients with HIV/AIDS and TB.

Core Module: Community-Based Care

The module is designed to develop the skills of CHWs to respond to health problems and emergencies, provide first-line care and arrange for the client to be managed by trained health workers, by referring these clients promptly. The module builds on the knowledge and skills acquired in *Module One: Community Health Basics* and expand the scope of care provided by the CHW, at the community and household level.

Module Objectives:

At the end of this module, the CHW will be able to;

- a) Identify common health problems and emergencies in the community that CHWs may meet
- b) Explain the common types of the emergency conditions and their features
- c) Assess a child for danger signs and refer appropriately
- d) Promote and counsel families on appropriate feeding of a child during and after illness
- e) Support parents to manage diarrhoea episodes at home including correct administration of Oral Rehydration Salts (ORS) and zinc.
- f) Provide home-based follow up support following a referral
- g) Measure and assess nutritional status of a child using weight-for-age and MUAC
- h) Provide counselling for child growth and nutrition during follow-up visits
- i) Provide follow-up care for malnourished child/home-based support(CMAM)
- j) Assess root cause in malnourished children during first CBC visit.
- k) Provide supportive care for HIV clients in the community promoting self-care, nutrition and ART adherence
- l) Provide psychosocial support for HIV-positive persons
- m) Provide follow-up care for TB referrals and treatment, including children
- n) Undertake defaulter tracing for HIV and TB treatment defaulters in the community.

Competencies

CHWs should demonstrate the following practical skills during field and/or clinical assessment:

- Correctly assess a child for danger signs using the IMCI assessment approach

- Correct completion of a *Referral Form*
- Correct interpretation of a *Counter-Referral Form*
- Correct completion of a *Home-Based Care Register*
- Correctly conduct a root-cause assessment for a case of malnutrition
- Development of a feeding plan following recovery of a child from therapeutic feeding (CMAM)
- Correctly measure weight for age of a child and classify nutritional status (according to literacy)
- Correct measurement of middle upper arm circumference (MUAC)
- Compile a report on home-based care and data submission.

Optional add-in 1: Integrated Community Case Management (iCCM)

iCCM is a community care strategy which extend case management of childhood illness beyond health facilities so that more children have access to lifesaving treatments. The iCCM package includes diarrhoea, pneumonia and malaria diagnosis and treatment using modern protocols (RDT testing and ACT). This module will only be deployed in communities that have the characteristics defined for iCCM need which include hard to reach areas, underserved by health facilities.

Terminal performance objectives

- Identify and treat moderate cases of diarrhoea, pneumonia and malaria in the community (iCCM)
- Correctly assess a sick child under five years using the iCCM protocol
- Correctly complete a referral form for a sick child

Option 2: Community-Based Care for HIV & TB

Supportive care and counselling for the HIV and TB clients may not be a priority for all districts across the country, as many regions have a low prevalence level of both conditions. Where HIV supporters are currently operational, the CHW programme should look to engage them as appropriate to do so. The addition of Unit 4 will be determined by epidemiology assessment conducted by district health authorities. Home-based care would be initiated by the CHO, with the *expressed consent* of disclosure to the CHW given by the patient themselves. Often, following the identification of a new HIV or TB case, the CHO would accompany the CHW on the home visit. After that, the CHW can continue to visit the client on a two-weekly basis until they are comfortable to receive only monthly visits. If the client is initiating ARV or has progressive disease, then the CHW will maintain a 2-weekly schedule under the guidance of the CHO. In the module we will address elements such as psychosocial impact, self-care, overcoming stigma, ART and barriers to adherence, TB signs, TB treatment support and defaulter and/or TB contact tracing.

Terminal performance objectives

- Understand how to provide follow-up support counselling for HIV clients under ARV programmes on self-care, ARV adherence
- Provide home-based follow-up support and counselling for TB patients under treatment
- Describe how they would identify and refer contacts in the family home for HIV and TB testing
- Describe how to trace defaulters to TB and ARV programmes
- Provide psychosocial support for HIV cases
- Counsel HIV/TB clients and their families on medicine adherence, self-care, contact tracing
- Counsel and support PMTCT and paediatric cases and HIV exposed infants

Core Competencies for HIV/TB

- Providing psychosocial support for HIV clients and families
- Assessing ART usage and ART adherence counselling

- Supporting TB DOT treatment
- Planning and reporting on home-based supportive care

Service Package for Module 2

Service type	CHWs included
1. Management of complications <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Common injuries and accidents Maternal, newborn and child health complications Home-based management of diarrhoea & feeding in illness Making a referral and support during emergency referrals 	<i>all CHW</i>
2. Community-based Care for the malnourished child <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Recognition and referral of SAM cases Assessing CMAM cases for household feeding practices Providing home-based support during treatment Providing follow-up support after CMAM discharge Weighing and classifying the child 	<i>all CHW</i>
3. Integrated community case management (iCCM)* (<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Case management for diarrhoea Case management for malaria Case management for pneumonia Assessing malnutrition 	<i>CHW in hard to reach communities</i>
4. Community-based Care for HIV/TB* <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Community-based care for the person living with HIV and AIDS * Community-based care for the person undergoing TB treatment* Defaulter and contact tracing for TB * Defaulter tracing for ARV treatment programmes* 	<i>CHW in high HIV prevalence areas</i>

UNIT I: MANAGEMENT OF MEDICAL EMERGENCIES

<i>Terminal Performance Objectives</i>	<p><i>At the end of this unit the participants will be able to:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Explain the concept of health emergencies, their causes, types of emergencies• Discuss the effects of emergencies on individuals, family and community• Explain the management and prevention of emergencies in the community• Discuss the roles of the CHW in the management and prevention of emergencies in the community.• Learn basic principles of first-aid• Provide supportive counselling and appropriate referral for victims of sexual and gender based violence
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Session 1.1: Emergencies and their health implications

Session Objectives	<p><i>By the end of this session participants will be able to:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain the features of an emergency. • Identify the common emergencies in the communities. • Describe the impact of emergencies on family and community
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WHAT IS A MEDICAL EMERGENCY?

- A medical emergency is a life-threatening condition, usually unexpected and may have a sudden onset that requires **immediate action** and treatment from a health professional. .
- The emergencies you may come across in the communities have certain features that enable you to know this is a life-threatening situation – also called **signs** (what you can see), and **symptoms** (what a patient or family member reports).

Signs and symptoms indicating a medical emergency include any of the following:

- Sudden severe pain anywhere in the body
- Bleeding that will not stop, or loss of a lot of blood
- Loss of consciousness or responsiveness from the patient.
- The body feels very hot or too cold
- Breathing problems (difficulty breathing, shortness of breath)
- Severe chest pain
- Choking
- Coughing up or vomiting blood
- Head or spine injury – unable to move limbs following an accident
- Severe or persistent vomiting
- Sudden injury due to an accident, burn, smoke inhalation, near-drowning, deep wound, etc.
- Sudden dizziness, weakness, or change in vision
- Swallowing a poisonous substance
- Upper abdominal pain or pressure
- Sudden change in mental status (such as unusual behaviour, confusion, difficulty arousing)
- Convulsions (e.g. shock)

CAUSES OF HEALTH EMERGENCIES

An emergency may be caused by one or more of the following:

- Sudden illness e.g. heart attack or stroke
- Accidental injuries e.g. fracture, wound, spinal injury, burns, drowning
- Violence e.g. physical or sexual assault
- Shock – (maybe a mental shock, or due to blood loss and pain)

COMMON TYPES OF EMERGENCIES

There are many types of emergencies. They can be grouped according to the parts of the body. The common emergencies include the following:

Type of incident	Signs	Possible due to:

Head, brain and spinal cord	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Convulsion • Loss of consciousness • Slurred speech, disorientation or blurred vision • Unable to move limbs • Bleeding from the ears 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Brain injury • Stroke • Epilepsy • Spinal cord injury
Chest and Breathing problems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Severe chest pain/tightness • Loss of consciousness • Pain and tingling down one arm • Unable to breathe • Blueish or dark coloured lips • Breathlessness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Possible heart attack • Asthma attack • Asphyxia (smoke inhalation) • Severe allergy (anaphylactic shock) • Severe respiratory infection
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coughing up blood 	TB
Stomach and digestive system	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Severe/profuse diarrhoea • Severe /profuse vomiting • Upper abdominal pain or pressure 	Infectious disease Food poisoning Swallowing a poisonous substance
Muscles-Bones and Skin	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Profuse/continuous bleeding • Sudden collapse/fainting • Cold/shivering • Convulsion • Burnt or scalded skin (hot liquid) 	Deep wound Sudden or severe blood loss
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Severe pain • Dislocated limb • Broken bone 	Fractures Sprains Burns and scalds Bites (snake, dog, human)

Other types of emergencies:

- Sexual assault or gender-based violence
- Injuries from road traffic accidents
- Drug/medicine reactions
- Electric shock
- Suicide attempt
- Convulsions (e.g. shock)

EFFECTS OF EMERGENCIES ON INDIVIDUAL PATIENT, FAMILY AND COMMUNITY**Effects on patient/individual:**

- Pain as a result of damage to the body
- Long-lasting disability
- Distress as a result not knowing what will be the outcome
- Feeling of hopelessness and despair
- Loss of income as a result of inability to work.
- Concerns about his/her dependents.

Effects on the family:

- Worry and concern about the outcome of the condition (if the patient will recover or not)
- Feeling of guilt due to inability to do much to help the patient
- Using family property to raise fund to support treatment of the patient
- Loss of income to some family members who have to leave their work to care for the patient.

Effects on the community:

- Brings members together to support the family (traditional/small communities)

Session 1.2: Responding to Emergencies

Session Objectives	<p><i>By the end of this session participants will be able to:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain why it is important to prevent the emergency conditions • Describe the essential action for first-aid to common injuries and incidents • Explain the roles of the CHW in the management of the emergency conditions • Describe appropriate actions for responding to gender-based violence or rape. • Identify appropriate referral points for survivors of sexual violence within the community
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ROLES OF CHWs IN MANAGING HEALTH EMERGENCIES

As a CHW you may encounter, or be called upon to help in medical emergencies. If action is not taken promptly, the patient may lose their life or be seriously disabled by the incident. One of your important roles is to identify emergencies and take immediate effective actions to save the life of the patient.

1. **Prevention: Prior to an emergency the CHW's role is to:**

- Educate families on preparedness for emergencies and accidents
- Educate families on prevention of injuries and dangers in the home (Module 1)
- Ensure all families have emergency contact details to hand
- Ensure that the community has access to emergency transport

2. **Management: During an emergency the CHW's role is to:**

- Assess the patient
- Provide immediate first-aid
- Arrange transport
- Ensure the referral facility is alerted

Early action: In an emergency, quick and decisive action is important for good recovery. The CHW must act promptly to get help for the patient.

Prompt referral: Urgently contact ambulance services, which are better equipped to move injured patients. Injured persons should ideally not be moved by untrained people, especially if head, neck or spinal injury. If there are no ambulances, arrange emergency transport and get help to move the patient, and accompany them to the nearest health facility.

Giving basic first-aid where necessary: In some cases the CHW could give basic first-aid care, e.g. controlling bleeding, applying compress or moving the patient to safety. As a CHW, *do not try to do more than you are competent to do.*

Reassuring family and relatives: The CHW should try to reassure relatives that the patient is getting good care and the condition will be well managed. The confidence shown by the CHW in handling the patient is a source of reassurance to the relative. The CHW should support relatives and friends to help them play more constructive and supporting roles in the care of the patient.

PRINCIPLES THAT UNDERLIE THE MANAGEMENT OF EMERGENCIES

- Act confidently and smartly
- Better under do than overdo (refer promptly)
- Remove patient from further injury (if only necessary)
- Maintain a clear airway (Give mouth-to-mouth resuscitation if necessary)
- Stop bleeding by use of pressure appropriately

- Organise or call for support/assistance (but keep assistants under control)
- Arrange to transport patient to nearby hospital for further care immediately
- Accompany patient (if possible)

FIRST-AID FOR EMERGENCY CONDITIONS

System/Part of body involved	Type of Emergency	Action expected of CHWs
Head/Central Nervous System	Convulsions	Give first-aid. Reassure relatives and refer
	Sudden collapse/fainting	Reassure relative and refer promptly
	Meningitis/Stiff neck	Reassure relative and refer promptly
	Severe and continuous headache	Reassure relative and refer promptly
Chest and respiratory system	Severe difficulty in breathing	Reassure relative and refer promptly
	Chest pain	Reassure patient and relatives, give analgesic (pain relief medicine) if the patient can swallow, observe patient and refer if pain persists.
Blood and circulation system	Excessive bleeding	Control bleeding as much as possible and refer.
Abdomen and digestive system	Acute and severe abdominal pain	Reassure relative and refer promptly
	Profuse vomiting	Give oral rehydration treatment (ORT), observe patient while preparation is being done to refer patient, reassure relatives and refer
	Profuse diarrhoea	Give oral rehydration treatment (ORT), observe patient while preparation is being done to refer patient, reassure relatives and refer
Reproductive system	Severe LAP (lower abdominal pain)	Reassure relative and refer promptly
Skin, bones and muscles	Burns, fracture, RTA	Reassure patients, give first-aid (apply bandage or splint and refer promptly)
	Snake bite, dog bites	Control bleeding (if any), by apply pressure (e.g. tie the limb with bandage or scarf) above the bite site, reassure patient and relatives and refer promptly. The tourniquet should be loose enough to let one finger in.
Behaviour and mental wellness	Suicide attempt, depression, extreme violence	Reassure relatives and refer promptly.
Sexual assault	Bruising, bleeding, pain, mental distress, shock	Apply psychological first-aid approach (see Module 3)

Source: *Standard Treatment Guidelines for Emergencies, 2010.*

FIRST-AID FOR SPECIFIC INJURIES

Until medical help is available, the following first-aid measures should help prevent a situation from becoming worse. Parents, other caregivers and older children should be supported in learning about these first-aid measures. Source: *UNICEF Facts for Life*

Wound type	Actions for first-aid
First-aid for burns:	<p>For minor burns:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cool the burned area immediately using cold clean water. Do not use ice. • Keep the burn clean and dry with a loose sterile bandage or clean cloth. • Do not break blisters or put any oil, ointment or other substance on the skin that can prevent healing or cause infection. • A minor burn will usually heal without further treatment. <p>For major burns:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If clothing catches fire, quickly wrap the person in a blanket/cloth or roll them on the ground to put out the fire. STOP-DROP-ROLL • Do not remove the burned clothing. Move the person away from heat source. • Do not immerse large, serious burns in cold water, as this could cause shock. • Raise the burned body part or parts above heart level, if possible. • Loosely cover the burn area with cool, moist towels or cloths or a sterile bandage. • Refer immediately with blood relative if possible.
First-aid for poisoning:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If swallowed, do not try to make the person vomit. This may make the person more ill. • If on skin or clothes, remove clothes and pour large amounts of water over the skin. Wash the skin thoroughly several times with soap. • If in the eyes splash clean water in the eyes for at least 10 minutes. • Refer immediately, whilst keeping the person as still and quiet as possible. • Take a sample of the poison or medicine or its container with you.
First-aid for breathing problems or drowning:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If head or neck injury, do not move the person's head. Follow the breathing directions below without moving the head. • If difficulty breathing/not breathing, lay the person flat on the back. Tilt the head back slightly. Pinch the person's nostrils closed and blow (breathe) into the mouth, keeping all the mouth covered. Blow gently but hard enough to make the person's chest rise. Then, count to three and blow again. Continue until the person begins breathing. • If breathing but unconscious, roll them onto their side to enable breathing.
First-aid for broken bones, bruises or sprains:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If broken bone, refer promptly • For bad bruises and sprains, immerse the injured area in cold water on the injury for 15 minutes, or use ice wrapped in cloth. Remove the ice or water, wait 15 minutes and repeat, if necessary. The cold should help reduce pain, swelling and bruising.
First-aid for cuts and wounds:	<p>For minor cuts and wounds:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wash the wound with clean (or boiled and cooled) water and soap. • Dry the skin around the wound. • Cover the wound with a clean cloth and place a sterile bandage over it. <p>For serious cuts and wounds:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If sharp object is sticking in the wound (glass, knife), do not remove it, removing it could make the injury worse. Bandage around the object and refer. • If heavy bleeding, raise injury above chest level and press firmly against the wound with a pad made of folded clean cloth. Maintain pressure until the bleeding stops. • Do not put any plant or animal matter on the wound, as this could cause infection. • Put a clean sterile bandage on the wound. Allow for swelling by not tying the bandage too tightly. Refer urgently, with blood relative if possible.

First-aid for choking:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If an infant or person is coughing, let him or her try to cough up the object. If the object does not release quickly, try to remove the object from the person's mouth. • For infants or young child: Support the head and neck. Turn face down with the head lower than the feet (e.g. over knees). Deliver 5 careful blows to the back between the shoulder blades. Turn the baby face up and press firmly on the breastbone between the nipples 5 times. Repeat actions until the object is dislodged. • For larger person: Stand behind the person with your arms around the person's waist. Form a clenched fist with your thumb against the person's body, above the navel and below the rib cage. Put the other hand over the fist and give a sharp inward and upward thrust into the person's abdomen. Repeat until the object is dislodged. • If you cannot dislodge the object, refer immediately.
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MANSA'S STORY

Mansa is a 13 year old girl in your neighbourhood. She is attending local school and lives with her uncle, after her mother died some years before. Her uncle works most of the time, and other times he has friends to his house, to drink and play cards. One day Mansa comes to see you to explain a distressing situation:

One night, she was home alone, and one of her uncle's friends came to visit, and he had been drinking. He insisted that he would wait for him, even though he may take some time. Mansa fetched him some water, but then he started trying to touch her. She pushed him away, but he grabbed her and forced her onto the table. He had sex with her, without using a condom. Afterwards, he told her that if she told the police he would kill her, and that her uncle would not believe her anyway, as they were good friends. Mansa is terrified, and doesn't want to tell anybody, because she has nowhere else to stay but her uncle's house. But she has been in terrible pain since and wants you to help her.

SEXUAL AND GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE (GBV)

What is GBV?

Any harmful act done to another person against his/her will; based on society's view of gender. There are various types of GBV:

1. **Physical violence:** e.g. stabbing, burning, kicking, punching, beating with an item, throwing objects.
2. **Sexual violence:** e.g. rape, gang rape, defilement, attempted rape, inserting items into another person's private parts, sexual harassment.
3. **Psychological violence/abuse:** such as verbal abuse, restricting someone's freedom of movement, threats, manipulation.
4. **Economic violence/abuse:** such as refusing to give money, taking money or food from someone.

How common is the problem in Ghana?

- 27% of Ghanaian women reported having been sexually assaulted at least once in their lifetime.
- 21% of women reported having been forced by husbands to have sex.
- 95% of these women *did not report* the incident.

SOURCE: GENDER CENTRE ON VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN AND CHILDREN IN GHANA

EFFECTS OF SEXUAL VIOLENCE/RAPE

Immediate health risks	Long-term and emotional effects
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<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Physical damage, bruising • HIV infection • Sexually transmitted infections • Unwanted pregnancy • Miscarriage • Disability • Fistula • Trauma/shock 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low self esteem • Suicidal thoughts • Depression and anxiety • Poor performance in work/school • Infertility • Recurrent abuse
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ACTIONS FOR RESPONDING TO SGBV INCIDENT

Role of CHWs:

- Provide supportive counselling: give information, validating their experience and respecting their right to make decisions about next steps. Ensure that you listen and respond without pressure, criticism, judgement about the events.
- Create community awareness about the issue and available services for victims
- Educate community on importance of training children and young people in life skills
- Mobilizing the community to respond e.g. reporting to authorities
- Referring SGBV survivors for services
- Connect the survivor to appropriate community support networks and services
- Reporting data.

WHAT HAPPENS IN POST-RAPE CARE?

- Refer the victim to the nearest health facility accompanied by a trusted friend, or adult (if under 18 years)

At the health facility, actions taken are:

- Treatment for wounds and other injuries
- Testing for HIV, pregnancy, hepatitis and others
- Get ARV drugs to prevent HIV infection, if tested negative (within 72 hours of incident)
- Treatment for sexually transmitted infections and to prevent pregnancy (emergency contraception)
- Counselling and crisis care
- Case documented for report to authorities
-
- At the police station, actions taken are:
- Report the case and remember to take a reference number
- Answer truthfully and frankly to questions asked
- Ensure your statement is recorded

Support needed by victims:

- Understand victims and not blame them
- Help victims meet their immediate needs for shelter, food, safety
- Report the offenders, or help the police to capture them
- Encourage quick referral and reporting of rape (within 72 hours)
- Encourage family's understanding, support and protection
- Refer victims to Lawyers who can advise victims and follow-up their cases in court

UNIT 2: IDENTIFYING AND MANAGING ILLNESS IN PREGNANT AND POSTNATAL WOMEN AND CHILDREN

<i>Terminal Performance Objectives</i>	<p>At the end of this unit the participants should be able to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Describe danger signs in pregnant and post partum women, newborns and children• Assess a sick child for <i>danger signs</i>, other illness and refer• Counsel the caregiver on home management of diarrhoea, including mixing and administering ORS and administering zinc• Counsel the caregiver regarding feeding the child during illness• Provide post-referral follow-up care in the community
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Session 2.1: Danger signs and referral of the pregnant or postnatal woman

Session Objectives

By the end of this session participants will be able to:

- Identify at least 5 danger signs and understand what condition they may indicate
- Explain to caregivers what each danger sign may indicate
- Identify the different types of referrals according to the associated danger sign
- Demonstrate use of the job aids in educating the family on danger signs in pregnant and postnatal mothers

DANGER SIGNS IN PREGNANT WOMEN

When visiting a pregnant woman, the CHW should first ask the woman if she is experiencing any danger signs and also check for any. If any of the danger signs are present, the CHW should advise the pregnant woman to seek care at the health facility, promptly, ideally along with her male partner.

Prevention: The CHW's role is to:

- Educate families on danger signs in pregnant and postnatal mothers
- Ensure all families have emergency contact details and savings to hand
- Ensure that the community has access to emergency transport

Management: During an emergency referral the CHW's role is to:

- Assess the patient
- Ensure the referral facility is alerted (call the CHO)
- Counsel the family and help them arrange for transport
- Continue to check the vital signs (breathing, temperature, and pulse of the woman)
- Continue to observe the patient for changes during the referral and inform the CHO
- Accompany the patient to the CHPS compound

Danger signs in pregnancy

Danger Sign	Why is it a danger sign?
Severe headaches and/or blurred vision	Severe headaches and/or blurred vision might be a sign of high blood pressure that can cause complications.
Breathlessness	Could be a sign of iron deficiency or other complication
Swelling of feet, face or hands	Swelling of the feet, face and hands could be a sign of hypertension (high blood pressure) or other serious condition
Convulsions or fit	A convulsion indicates severe illness and needs to be investigated further at a facility.
Loss of consciousness and fainting	This could be a sign of anaemia, hypertension or other serious condition
Fever	A fever indicates an infection (such as malaria), potentially dangerous and even fatal to both mother and unborn child.
Vaginal bleeding	Vaginal bleeding indicates possible complications with the pregnancy, and possible miscarriage
Abdominal pain	Severe abdominal pain could be a sign of complications with the pregnancy.
Burning while urinating/painful	Burning while urinating could be a symptom of a bladder infection or sexual transmitted infection

Accident or trauma to the mother	This presents concerns for the life of the mother and foetus/unborn child. If the mother has been in accident or had a serious fall, the pregnancy needs to be checked within 24 hours.
Mid-late pregnancy	
Baby stopped moving (from mid pregnancy)	If the baby stops moving or is moving a lot less than usual, it could be a sign that the baby is in distress, with a potential risk of stillbirth.
Waters break without labour	If the waters break without labour starting this can be very dangerous for the baby and increase the risk of infection and labour complications.
Non-emergency signs (normal referral)	
Unusual green/brown vaginal discharge	This kind of vaginal discharge could be a sign of an infection or even preterm labour.
All other unexplained complaints	Do not try to manage or treat conditions at home if you are unsure always refer.

If there are no danger signs, the CHW should ask the following questions and counsel on the necessary topics (using the **COUNSELING CARDS**). These topics will be addressed in detail later in the training

Danger signs postnatal (up to 45 days after the birth)

Danger Sign	Why is it a danger sign?
Lower abdominal pain	Severe abdominal pain could be a sign of postnatal infection
Fever/chills	A fever a sign of postnatal infection
Too much bleeding	Some blood loss is normal in the days and weeks following birth, but this should not be too much
Swelling and redness of breast and nipple, with fever	An infection of the breast
Unusual discharge or foul smelling lochia	This kind of vaginal discharge could be a sign of a postnatal infection
Fainting, feeling weak or dizzy, palmar and conjunctival pallor	This could be a sign of anaemia, especially if the woman lost too much blood during delivery
Severe anxiety or depression postnatal (e.g. women may report feeling unable to cope, worrying too much, sleeping too much or too little, not being able to care for themselves or the baby)	Postnatal depression and anxiety is a common condition. It may develop within the first six weeks of giving birth, but is often not apparent until around six months. Most at-risk are <i>teenage mothers</i> , first time mothers, women with previous history of depression, and women in difficult circumstances. Post-partum depression is a real condition, can become severe if not supported, and requires support from medical professionals as well as the family. Note: <i>Some mood changes, irritability and crying are common after the birth but if they persist after a few weeks it could be postnatal depression.</i>

ANAEMIA

Anaemia is when the body does not have enough blood to keep the body healthy, caused by iron deficiency in the diet, certain medical conditions (e.g. sickle cell disease) or sudden loss of blood. Women, especially during pregnancy, postnatal, and also teenage girls are most commonly affected by anaemia. Pregnant and postnatal women should take iron and folate pills daily. Symptoms of anaemia may include:

- Weakness and fatigue
- Shortness of breath
- Lack of appetite
- Pale skin colour; pale conjunctivae (the inner part of the lower eyelid), palms, tongue and lips

If these symptoms are present refer the woman to the clinic for further tests.

The hot potato game and practice session

Question	Answer
Name three danger signs that you must look for when visiting a pregnant woman.	
Name two danger signs that require you to call an ambulance for the pregnant woman?	
What is the difference between severe abdominal pain and labour pain?	
Burning while urinating is often a symptom of _____ (what).	
What causes night blindness?	
What MUAC score indicates malnutrition in a pregnant woman?	
Describe signs of a convulsion.	
Name 3 danger signs in a postnatal mother	
Anaemia is often a result of _____.	
List three symptoms of anaemia.	
What should you do if a pregnant woman has signs of anaemia?	

Key messages

- CHWs must educate families to be vigilant about the danger signs in women during and after pregnancy and ensure they have emergency savings and transport access.
- During referral of a pregnant or postnatal mothers you should assess the patient, inform the CHO, counsel the family and help arrange transport, continue to assess the patient for vital signs and changes, accompany them to the CHPS compound.
- Anaemia is a condition in which the body doesn't have enough blood, and can be due to iron deficiency in the diet, certain medical conditions, or due to loss of blood. The people who most commonly affected by anaemia are women, especially during pregnancy, postnatal, and also teenage girls.
- Symptoms of anaemia include weakness and fatigue, headache, shortness of breath, lack of appetite, pale skin colour; pale conjunctivae, palms, tongue and lips.

Notes:

When visiting the newborn, you must check the newborn for danger signs by doing a complete assessment (Module 3). However, the CHW must also educate families on danger signs they should look out for, as newborn danger signs can be difficult to spot, especially if the mother or family are not experienced. All danger signs in the newborn are **treated as emergencies**. You should follow the procedure when referring newborns:

- Assess the baby
- Determine the support you can give (e.g. provide comfort and safety).
- Contact the referral facility (CHO) to alert them.
- Counsel the family and help them arrange for transport
- Continue to check the vital signs (breathing, temperature, and pulse)
- Continue to observe any changes and inform the CHO
- Accompany mother and baby to the CHPS compound

Danger signs in the newborn (see Job aid: *Danger signs in the newborn*)

Danger Sign	Why is it a danger sign?
Unable to suck or sucking poorly	One of the most common signs to determine if a baby is unwell, is that they tend to feed less .. Newborns should be feeding every 2-3 hours. If they show less interest or are unable to feed, refer urgently.
Unusually sleepy or unconscious (doesn't respond to stimulation, sleeps too much)	The baby sleeps too much or seems drowsy and unresponsive, is a sign of serious problem, and linked to many causes.
Rigidity or convulsion	Rigidity or convulsions are a sign of a very serious infection like tetanus or meningitis, or may happen when a baby has fever.
Difficult or fast breathing	Difficulty breathing or fast breathing , or grunting may be a sign of a chest infection, which is very serious. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If the mother notices the baby has a cold, grunting, wheezing or breathing faster than usual, she should contact the CHW who will assess the child for this sign • See "Assessing a newborn" in Activity 5.
Redness, pus or swelling of the umbilical cord stump.	This suggests an infection of the cord stump and is potentially very dangerous to the newborn. The stump may appear with redness extending to skin, wet or foul smell or boils.
Body feels too hot or too cold	The body too hot or too cold may indicate severe infection. or birth complication. The CHW can check this with a thermometer.
Skin pustules: pimples or swellings that contain fluid?	Skin infections range from minor conditions to a marker of potentially fatal disease.
Pus draining from eye, or sticky substance in the eyes	This suggests an infection
Yellowness of skin on the soles of the feet (jaundice)	Yellowness of the skin, especially noticeable on the sole of a child's foot, might be a sign of infant jaundice, a disease caused by toxins in the blood. This can sometimes happen after a difficult delivery and is linked with some rare infections. To check for jaundice, press your finger gently on the soles of the baby's foot. If the skin looks yellow where you pressed, it's likely the baby has jaundice.
Also seek care if:	Baby was born at home and not in facility Baby does not pass faces within 24 hours of birth Any difficulty breastfeeding

If any of these danger signs appear, the caregiver should seek care for the newborn at the health facility as soon as possible. You must refer the caregiver and the newborn to the health facility for follow-up.

Hot potato game

Question	Answer
What actions should you take if a family report a newborn has danger signs?	
Which danger signs in a newborn should be treated as emergencies?	
List the newborn danger signs.	
Which sign could indicate a baby has an infection? Body too hot or body too cold?	
How can you test to see if a child is unconscious or lethargic?	
Yellowness of the skin on the sole of the foot might be a symptom of which illness. How can they check?	

ASSESSING THE NEWBORN

Newborns can fall sick easily in the first days and weeks of life and the sickness can quickly get serious. The baby may die if there is delay in receiving treatment. Families may not recognize signs of illness in newborns.

How to check the baby for danger signs or small baby

1. **Ask the mother: Have you put the baby to breast? How is the baby suckling?**
 - If the mother says the baby is not suckling or has stopped feeding well observe breastfeeding.
 - If the baby is not able to suckle at the breast even after the mother has tried to put the baby to the breast several times over few hours- baby may have serious illness- baby has danger signs.
 - If the mother tells you that the baby was feeding well after birth but has stopped feeding well now- baby may have serious infection- baby has danger signs.
2. **Ask the mother: Has the baby convulsed (or fitted) since birth?**
 - If the mother says "yes"- the baby has danger signs
 - If the mother does not understand what fit is -explain.
 - Then look to see if the baby is convulsing now
3. **Look to see if the baby has difficult breathing**
 - Wait for the baby to be calm
 - Make sure there is enough light to see baby’s breathing

- Gently lift baby's shirt to see if:
 - The breathing appears fast (Fast breathing is 60 breaths per minute or more in a newborn)
 - The breathing appears difficult- lower chest wall goes in when the baby is breathing in
 - The baby is grunting- making soft short noise when breathing out
 - The baby's breathing may appear unusual

4. Measure baby's temperature or feel for fever or too cold

- If the baby's temperature is 37.5° C or more baby has fever – baby has danger sign
- If the baby's temperature is 35.4° or less baby has very low temperature-danger sign
- If the baby's temperature is 35.5 C° up to 37.5 °C – baby does not have danger sign. **If you don't have a thermometer, touch the baby's stomach or armpit with your hand and feel if it is too cold or hot.*

5. Look to see if the baby 'Sleeps too much and is difficult to wake up'

- Observe if the baby is awake as you assess the baby
- A baby who is awake will move arms and legs or turn the head several times in a minute. The baby does not have a danger sign.
- If the baby does not wake up ask the mother to wake him/her up
- If the baby cannot be awakened – baby has danger sign
- If the baby wakes a little, moves arms and legs but goes back to sleep- baby has danger sign

6. Look to see if "Cord is red or draining pus, skin sores or pus from eyes"

- Pus and redness are signs of infection
- Undress the baby
- Look at the umbilical stump. Is it red? Is there pus coming out of umbilical stump?
- Look at the skin. Look at the whole body including the back, armpit, neck and groin area. Are there skin pustules (blisters filled with pus)? Boils?
- Look at the eyes. Is pus coming from the eyes?

7. Look to see if the eyes or skin are yellow

- Always look for this sign in natural light (day light). It is difficult to see yellow eyes or skin in artificial light (electricity or gas)
- Look at the skin. Is it yellow? If the skin is too dark, **press gently with your finger the skin on the sole of the foot and then remove the finger**. Look at the skin you have just blanched (made pale by pressing). Is it yellow?

8. Look to see if the baby is small

After checking the baby, tell the family what you find.

- If you find **baby problems** refer the baby using the **Referral Form**.

How to Take Baby's Temperature

1. Take the thermometer out and hold it at the broad end. Clean the shining tip with cotton- wool and spirit.
2. Make sure that there is enough light to see the temperature reading. Gently lift the baby's shirt or open the wrap so you can access the armpit.
3. Press the "on" button once to turn the thermometer on. Hold the thermometer upward and place it in the middle of the baby's armpit with the display side out -press the arm against the side of the baby to trap the thermometer firmly in place.
4. Do not change the position and make sure that the tip of the thermometer does not stick out at the other side of the armpit of the baby.
5. When you hear 3 short beeps or the numbers stop changing (at least 4 minutes), remove the thermometer. Read the number in the display window.
6. Turn the thermometer off, clean the shining tip with cotton and spirit and place it in the storage case.

Key messages

- All danger signs in newborns are treated as emergencies as newborn can complicate very quickly.
- Danger signs in the newborn baby (0-28 days) include: unable to suck or sucking poorly, unusually sleepy or unconscious, rigidity or convulsion, difficult, fast or noisy breathing, redness, pus or swelling of the umbilical cord stump, body feels too hot or too cold, skin pustules, pus draining from eye, yellowness of skin on the sole of the foot.
- **Actions for managing a newborn referral include:**
 - Assess the baby,
 - Determine the support you can give
 - Contact the referral facility (CHO) to alert them
 - Counsel the family and help them arrange for transport
 - Continue to check the vital signs (breathing, temperature, and pulse)
 - Continue to observe any changes and inform the CHO
 - Accompany mother and baby to the CHPS compound.

Notes:

Session 2.3: Danger signs and referral of children aged 1 month to five years

Session Objectives

By the end of this session participants will be able to:

- Identify all danger signs in children and what conditions they may indicate
- Demonstrate use of job aids in educating the family on danger signs in children
- Describe the appropriate referral steps to the next point of care

DANGER SIGNS IN CHILDREN (AGED 1 MONTH TO 5 YEARS)

When visiting households with children under five, ensure all parents are educated on danger signs.

Danger signs in children under five (see *Job aid: Danger signs in children under five*)

- These are the signs that indicate that a child is seriously ill and need to be treated as an emergency. The child cannot be treated at home because the condition is severe. In such cases, the CHW should provide first-aid care or medicine as per their training¹. The CHW may accompany the child and mother to the nearest health facility. All cases should be referred within 24 hours. The CHW will follow-up to ensure referral is completed by the family and find out what happened.

Danger Sign	Why is it a danger sign?
Unable to breastfeed or drink	If the child is not able to drink or breastfeed or refusing to feed, this is a sign that the child is very unwell. They would not be able to take medicines in the community. Refer urgently
Unusually sleepy or unconscious	The child is difficult to rouse, seems drowsy and unresponsive, is a sign of serious problem, and linked to many causes. Try waking the child by clapping hands or tapping soles of feet.
Convulsions	A convulsion indicates severe illness in a baby or child and needs to be investigated further at a facility to look for meningitis (a spinal cord infection) or other disorder affecting the brain.
Vomiting everything ingested	If a child is vomiting everything, the child is very sick. They will not be able to drink or feed, or take any medicines and must be given treatment by injection or intravenous. This can lead very quickly to death if left untreated.
Fast breathing	Difficult, noisy (e.g. a 'whistle' on breathing in or grunting sound) or fast breathing may be a chest infection like pneumonia, which if left untreated can be life-threatening. Fast breathing is when: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Child aged 2-12 months: more than 50 breaths in 1 minute • Child aged 12-59 months: more than 40 breaths in 1 minute.
Chest in-drawing	Chest in-drawing indicates severe respiratory distress, which may be due to pneumonia, and can quickly lead to death if not treated promptly.
Fever	A fever can indicate severe malaria, pneumonia or other potentially fatal diseases. The child needs to be sent to a health facility for diagnosis and proper treatment.
Diarrhoea with blood in stool	Diarrhoea with blood in the stool, with or without mucus, is dysentery, or an internal inflammation of the intestine. If left untreated, dysentery can be fatal. If there is blood in the stool, the child needs medicine that you do not have in the medicine kit and must be referred immediately.

¹ Some CHWs will be trained on iCCM and can give first dose, others may give paracetamol for fever before referral

Diarrhoea for more than 14 days	If the family are managing the diarrhoea with fluids and ORS/Zinc, but the symptoms persists for more than 6 days, without other danger signs, the CHW should still refer the child to the CHO.
Diarrhoea with rice-water appearance	Profuse diarrhoea with rice-water (cloudy white) appearance, may be a sign of cholera, a notifiable disease. Contact the CHO to mobilise the response.
Cough (for 21 days or more)	A prolonged cough in a child may be a persistent infection, a condition e.g. asthma, or a serious infection like tuberculosis. Untreated tuberculosis or pneumonia risks can become more severe and lead to death.
Severe pallor (paleness of palms, inner eyelids, tongue, inside of lips)	If a child has severe pallor, she/he may be severely anaemic, which can be life-threatening as the body does not have enough red blood cells. If there are other children present in the household, you can compare their palm colours to determine whether or not a child's palm is pale.
Swelling of both feet (bipedal pitting oedema)	Swelling of both feet (oedema) is due to accumulation of fluid beneath the skin, usually due to malnutrition, but may also indicate other conditions such as severe anaemia. To check for oedema, gently press with your thumbs on the top of each foot for three seconds. If the dents remain on the tops of BOTH feet when you lift your thumbs, the child has signs of oedema.
Skin rash	Skin rashes are usually a sign of infection, which range from minor conditions to serious disease. If the child's skins is red, or are there pimples or swellings that contain yellowish fluid, you should refer the child.
MUAC measurement below 11.5cm, in the 'red zone'	A MUAC measurement in the red zone is a sign of malnutrition, the child should be referred to the CHPS compound for a full assessment.
Also refer if:	A child who has received medication and has not responded to treatment or has not improved in their condition for 24 hours after they received medicines. The child should be referred immediately when this is identified. (DECISION-DAY).

WHAT THE CHW SHOULD DO WHEN THERE IS A DANGER SIGN IN A CHILD

You should follow the procedure when referring children:

- Assess the child, determine if the case is urgent
- Determine the support you can give (first-aid care or first treatment)
- Contact the referral facility (CHO) to alert them.
- Counsel the family and help them arrange for transport
- Continue to check the vital signs (breathing, temperature, and pulse)
- Continue to observe any changes and inform the CHO
- Accompany mother and child to the CHPS compound if urgent

The CHW should follow-up 24 hours later to ensure the referral has been completed by the family, and that the child is recovering.

Hot potato game

Question	Answer
If the child is 2-12 months of age, how many breaths per minute is considered fast breathing?	

If the child is 1-5 years of age, how many breaths per minute is considered fast breathing?	
Name five danger signs for the child requiring referral	
Blood in the stool is a symptom of which illness?	
When are loose stools considered diarrhoea?	
Explain how to test for oedema.	
What condition can cause pallor?	

Key messages:

- Parents and caregivers of children under five years of age need to be educated on danger signs, and how to respond appropriately.
- Danger signs that indicate that a child need to be referred to a facility as soon as possible, and at least within 24 hours.
- The CHW should assess the child, determine the support you can give (first-aid care or first treatment), contact the referral facility (CHO) to alert them, counsel the family and help them arrange for transport, continue to check the vital signs (breathing, temperature, and pulse), continue to observe any changes and inform the CHO and accompany mother and child to the CHPS compound.
- The CHW should provide standard referral and follow-up 24 hours later to ensure the referral has been completed by the family.

Notes:

Session 2.4 Assessment of a sick child aged 1 month to 5 years

Session Objectives	<p>At the end of this session, participants will be able to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain why it is important for the CHW to assess and refer the child • Explain what the <i>danger signs</i> are and how to look for them • Explain how to assess a sick child and make appropriate referral.
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ASSESSING A SICK CHILD AND REFERRING

Even though health facilities and hospitals provide life-saving care, some children do not get the appropriate care and treatment due to several reasons such as:

- Their families may not know that they should seek care.
- The health facility may be far.
- Transportation may not be available.
- Transportation and medicine may be expensive.
- The health facility may seem strange and the staff unfriendly.

All these delays can result in severity of disease and preventable deaths. Therefore the CHW has an important role to play in saving the sick child. A sick child has a better chance to survive because one of her neighbours is a trained CHW. The following are some of the things CHWs can do to prevent diseases in children between 1 month to 5 years from becoming severe or resulting in death:

- Recognise a very sick child and refer immediately
- Assess for any specific illness and help the family take care of the child at home or refer, as the case may be
- Identify children with malnutrition and refer appropriately or manage with the support of a CHO.

STEPS IN ASSESSING A SICK CHILD

The following are the steps to take in assessing the sick child. A detailed description of each step is included after the box.

Step 1: Greet and praise the parent/caregiver for seeking help for his/her sick child: It is important to make the parent/caregiver feel comfortable and welcome. This will encourage her to seek help for her sick child early. Explain to the child's parent/caregiver that when a child is sick, he/she needs special care and attention. In addition, it is important that she learns when to take care of her child at home, and when she needs to take her child to the CHO or clinic.

Step 2: Ask the name and age of the child and ask for the child's problems. Refer a newborn (less than a month old) with problems immediately.

Step 3: For children aged 1 month to 5 years, check for danger signs the child with danger signs should be referred urgently to the nearest CHO or health centre, where he/she will get the kind of care and specialized treatment needed. **If the child has no danger sign**, the steps below are not required.

Step 4: Assess for fever

Step 5: Check for fast breathing for any child with a cough

Step 6: Assess for diarrhoea and counsel the mother about managing it at home or refer to the CHO. We will learn more about diarrhoea in the next session.

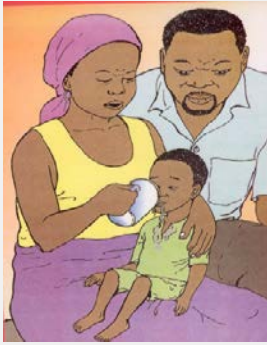
Step 7: Assess for any danger sign not listed here, and if present, refer the child.

The process to assess for danger signs is as follows:

- **ASK:** “IS THE CHILD ABLE TO DRINK OR BREAST FEED?”
 - If the child's parent/caregiver replies **YES**, ask her to offer her breast to the child, or a little clean water if the child is already drinking other liquids. Confirm that the child can swallow.
 - If the child cannot swallow anything, and is therefore **UNABLE TO DRINK OR BREASTFEED** this is a **DANGER SIGN**. Refer immediately to the CHO or nearest clinic.
 - If the child is able to drink or to breastfeed, continue to assess him or her for danger signs.
- **ASK:** “DOES THE CHILD VOMIT EVERYTHING HE OR SHE DRINKS OR EATS?”
 - If the parent/caregiver replies **YES**, ask her to offer the child water to drink, and observe whether he or she does indeed vomit immediately everything that is given to him or her.
 - If a child immediately vomits the water, this is a **DANGER SIGN**. Refer the child immediately to the CHO or nearest clinic.
 - If the child does not vomit everything that he or she eats or drinks immediately (in other words the child is able to keep down some of what he/she has taken in), continue to assess him or her for *Danger signs*.
- **ASK:** “DURING THIS SICKNESS, HAS THE CHILD HAD CONVULSIONS?”
LOOK: IS THE CHILD CONVULSING NOW?
 - Conclude **YES the child is convulsing now**, if he or she does one or both of the following:
 - Has uncontrolled movement of arms and legs
 - Loses consciousness or faints
 - If the parent/caregiver tells you that the child has done one or both of these, or if the child is convulsing now, refer the child immediately to the CHO or nearest clinic.
 - If the child's parent/caregiver tells you that her child has NOT shown any of these symptoms, continue to assess him or her for danger signs.
- **ASK:** “IS THE CHILD VERY SLEEPY OR VERY DIFFICULT TO AWAKEN?”
 If the child's parent/caregiver says **YES**, do the following:
 - Clap your hands close to the child
 - **OR** Ask the caregiver to speak to, shake or undress the child to wake him or her up.
 - Check whether the child responds
 - A child who is very difficult to awaken does not look at his or her parent/caregiver or at you while you talk and may have an unresponsive, empty look.
- It is not possible to wake an unconscious child, they won't react if you touch, or talk to him/her.
- If the child does not respond, **Refer** the child immediately to the nearest CHO or health facility.
- If the child is awake but does not show interest in his/her surroundings or the cry is too weak, or the child is very weak, **Refer** the child immediately to the nearest CHO or health facility.
- If the child wakes up and cries; that is, if you are able to wake him or her up, the child does not have this danger sign. Continue to assess him or her for other danger signs.

REFER ALL CHILDREN WITH ANY DANGER SIGN

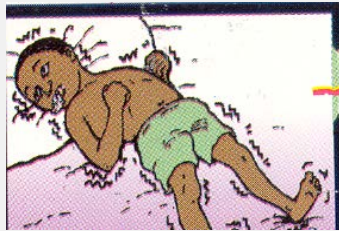
ASK THE PARENT/CAREGIVER WHETHER HER CHILD:



Is unable to drink or breastfeed



Vomits everything he/she drinks or eats



Has had an attack of convulsions during this illness or convulsing now.

LOOK TO SEE WHETHER THE CHILD:



Is difficult to awaken or is very sleepy



Is convulsing now

Step 4: Ask for fever and any related symptom. If fever is present, **refer** the child to the CHO

Step 5: Ask for cough and fast/difficult breathing. If any symptoms are present, **refer** the child to the CHO

Step 6: Ask for diarrhoea. Diarrhoea may be known by different names in different parts of Ghana. The parent/caregiver may not know what you mean by “diarrhoea,” but she may recognize the illness by a local dialect. You may find the following description helpful:

- A child has diarrhoea if he or she passes very loose or watery stools 3 or more times in a day.
- Babies who are exclusively breastfed often have stools that are soft; this is not diarrhoea. (The parent/caregiver of a breastfed baby can recognize diarrhoea because the consistency or frequency of the stools is different from usual.)

If the caregiver says the child has had diarrhoea for 7 days or more, or if there is blood in the stools, or if the stools look like rice-water, **refer** the child to the CHO.

- Mix and give ORS and zinc right away and teach the caregiver to give ORS on the way to the clinic.

We will learn more about home care for diarrhoea in the next session. We will learn more about home care for diarrhoea in the next session.

Session 2.5: Home-based management of diarrhoea and feeding during illness

Session Objectives	<p>At the end of this session, participants will be able to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain what diarrhoea is • Assess a child with diarrhoea • Explain how to give ORS and zinc according to the age of the child • Explain when to refer a child with diarrhoea • Explain how to prevent diarrhoea • Counsel a caregiver on home management of diarrhoea
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DIARRHOEA

Diarrhoea is a common and dangerous symptom that is one of the leading killers of young children. It is often caused by diseases transmitted by the faecal-oral route, from the stool of an infected person to the mouth of another through contaminated water, food, or directly from hand-to-mouth. Children who are malnourished and exposed to poor environmental conditions are particularly susceptible to diarrhoea. Without prompt treatment to replace the water lost in diarrhoea, diarrhoea can lead to dangerous dehydration and possible death.

- Diarrhoea is defined as 3 or more loose stools within 24 hours (for children older than 6 months)
- If a child is less than 2 months of age and the caregiver reports diarrhoea, refer the child.
- If the child has had diarrhoea for 7 days or more, with or without dehydration, refer the child.
- If the child has had blood in his/her stool, the child may have *dysentery*, refer the child.
- Severe cases of diarrhoea must be referred to the health clinic immediately and a follow-up visit should be made within 48 hours of initial visit.
- Cases of diarrhoea that have lasted less than 7 days and do not have blood in stool do not require referral and can be treated at home with oral rehydration salts (ORS) and Zinc.
- CHWs are responsible for identifying and assessing the condition of children with diarrhoea. CHWs are also responsible for treating the child and engaging the caregiver in an active discussion on how to improve the child's condition, as well as how to prevent diarrhoea in the future.

ORAL REHYDRATION SALTS

ORS, or "oral rehydration salts" prevent the child from getting sicker by replacing the water and salts that are lost in diarrhoea. ORS solution is not tasty but is important in preventing death from diarrhoea. Before preparing ORS, ensure:

- Ensure the ORS package is not expired
- Check the package for special instructions and communicate them to the caregiver

TO MIX ORS

1. **Wash your hands** with soap and water.
2. **Pour** all the powder from one packet into a clean container. (Use any available container such as a jar, bowl, or bottle, so long as it is washed clean with soap and water.)

3. **Measure** 600 mls i.e. one (1) beer bottle or two (2) coke bottles of clean water. Use the cleanest drinking water available. It is best to boil and cool the water.
4. **Pour** the water into the container and **mix** well until the powder is completely dissolved.
5. **Taste** the solution. It should taste a little bit salty, like tears.
6. Give the solution to the child. If the child vomits, wait 10 more minutes before giving more ORS in frequent small sips
7. Instruct the caregiver on home-based treatment: the child should sip ORS frequently for 2-3 days, with at least ½ cup consumed after each loose stool. A new batch of ORS should be made every day
8. If the mother is breastfeeding the child, it is important to continue breastfeeding
9. Sweet juices or drinks **should not** be given to the child while taking ORS



Ideally, a child with diarrhoea should be given the following amounts of ORS:

Age	Quantity of ORS
Less than 2 years	50 to 100 ml after each loose stool
2 years or more	100 to 200 ml after each loose stool

Storing ORS

- Wash container with soap and clean water.
- Mix fresh ORS solution each day in a clean container.
- Keep the container covered.
- Throw away any solution remaining from the previous day.
- In addition to giving ORS, the mother should do the following:
- Breastfeed more frequently and for longer at each feed.
- If the child is not exclusively breastfed, give one or more of the following in addition to ORS solution: coconut water, strained rice water, mashed kenkey in water, mashed tuo zafii, porridge, (koko) light soup without pepper, fruit juice or clean water.

ZINC

- If a child has diarrhoea, zinc should be administered *for 10 days* to ensure that the diarrhoea is less severe with shorter duration.

Steps to follow in administering zinc:

- Ensure the zinc package is not expired
- Check the package for special instructions and communicate them to the caregiver
- Determine the dose to give to the child:
- If the child is between 1 month and 6 months of age, give ½ a tablet once daily for 10 days
- If the child is between 6 months and 5 years of age, give 1 tablet daily for 10 days
- Help the caregiver give the first dose and provide remaining supply
- Check caregiver’s understanding on the dosage and frequency
- Counsel the caregiver to complete the whole 10 day course of zinc to reduce severity of diarrhoea and prevent future cases, even if the child seems to have recovered. This point is very important. Make sure the caregiver administering the medication understands this point

REFER TO THE CHO/CHPS CLINIC

- If the child does not get better in one (1) day.

- If the child gets worse.
- If the child has **ANY DANGER SIGN**.

PREVENTING DIARRHOEA

- Wash hands as frequently as possible
- Always use latrines for defecation
- Keep livestock stands separate from households and far away from drinking water sources
- Boil, filter, or use chlorine tablets to disinfect water for household consumption
- Store food and drinking water in close containers that are clean and disinfected

Case conference

Make notes in the box below

CASE 1: The child has had diarrhoea for 5 days, but there is no blood in the stool.

CASE 2: The child has had diarrhoea for 15 days and has been losing weight.

CASE 3: The child has had 3 loose stools in the past week.

CASE 4: The child has had diarrhoea for 2 days, and there is blood in the stool.

CASE 5: The child has not had any loose stools recently but appears to be unconscious.

Key messages

- ORS solution replaces the water and salts that the child loses in the diarrhoea. It prevents the child from getting sicker and losing too much water.

Session 2.6: Feeding During Illness

Session Objectives

At the end of this session, participants will be able to:

- Explain how malnutrition is linked to illness and feeding during illness episodes
- Counsel families on continued feeding of sick infants.





MAJOR KILLERS OF CHILDREN

- Most deaths of infants under 2 years are due to pneumonia, malaria or diarrhoea, which are diseases that are preventable or can be treated.
- Diarrhoea can be treated at home by the family using ORS and continued feeding.
- Pneumonia and malaria need to be treated by a trained health worker or CHW.

FEEDING DURING ILLNESS FOR THE CHILD OVER 6 MONTHS

- **Key message for families caring for a sick child:** Increase fluid intake during illness, including more frequent breastfeeding, and encourage the child to eat soft, varied, appetizing, favourite foods. After illness, give food more often than usual and encourage the child to eat more.
- During illness, the need for fluids is often higher than normal. Sick children appear to prefer breast milk to other foods, so continued, frequent breastfeeding during illness is advisable. Even though appetite may be poor continued feeding is recommended to maintain nutrient intake and enhance recovery, and make up for nutrient losses during the illness and allow for catch-up growth. Extra food is needed until the child has regained any weight lost and is growing well again.
- **Breastfeeding:** Continue to breastfeed – often, ill children breastfeed more frequently. Tell the mother to breastfeed more frequently and for longer at each feed, especially if the child is exclusively breastfed.²
- **For children not breastfed or is over 6 months, give additional fluids:** Give as much fluid as the child will take, as soon as the diarrhoea starts to replace the lost fluids. Give one or more of the following:
 - ORS solution (for diarrhoea only)
 - Food-based fluids (soups, rice water and yoghurt drinks)
 - Clean water (preferably given along with food).
- **Give additional foods:** When sick, children may be less inclined to eat solids. Mothers should breastfeed as much as possible, and give small snacks or soft liquid foods. Give small quantities frequently rather than a large meal if this is easier. If the child vomits, wait some time and try again. If the child vomits everything ingested this is an urgent danger sign.
- **Active feeding:** Don't leave the child to serve themselves, but encourage them to eat, and serve on a separate plate. Help the child to feed, especially during illness. This can involve a parent encouraging them: "just one more bite..", or playing with the child "*here comes the airplane, open wide!*". These games may help the child eat more. Avoid any distractions (radio/TV or noise) whilst the child is eating so they can concentrate on the meal.

² Breastfed children under 6 months of age should first be offered a breastfeed then given ORS and **no other fluids**

FEEDING DURING ILLNESS			
UNDER 6 MONTHS	6 MONTHS TO 12 MONTHS	12 MONTHS TO 2 YEARS	2 YEARS AND OLDER
			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Breastfeed as often as the child wants, day and night. Feed at least 8 times in 24 hours. Do not give other foods or fluids. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Continue to breastfeed as often as the child wants. Give 3 servings of nutritious complementary foods. Always mix margarine, fat, oil, peanut butter or groundnuts with porridge. Also add: chicken, egg, beans, fish or full cream milk, or mashed fruit and vegetables, at least once each day. If baby is not breastfed, give 3 cups (3 x 200 ml) of full cream milk as well. If baby gets no milk, give 6 complementary feeds a day 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Continue to breastfeed as often as the child wants, and also give nutritious complementary foods. Give at least 5 adequate nutritious feeds. Increase variety and quantity of family foods: Mix margarine, fat, oil, peanut butter or groundnuts in porridge. Give egg, meat, fish or beans daily. Give fruit or vegetables twice every day. Give milk every day, especially if no longer breastfeeding. Feed actively with baby's own serving 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Continue to breastfeed as often as the child wants. Give at least 5 adequate nutritious feeds. Increase variety and quantity of family foods: Mix margarine, fat, oil, peanut butter or ground nuts with porridge Give egg, meat, fish or beans daily Give fruit/ vegetables twice every day Give milk every day, especially if no longer breastfeeding. Feed actively with baby's own serving.

Barriers (root causes) and misconceptions

Recommended practice	Common misconceptions or barriers	Counselling messages
Care seeking for the within 24 hours		
Active feeding		
Increased feeding and		

Session 2.7: Providing follow-up care and support

Session Objectives	<p><i>At the end of this session, participants will be able to:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Describe the key actions and checks to make during a post-referral follow-up visit in the home and explain their importance • Explain what actions the CHW would take during a post-referral follow-up visit • Explain what conditions would prompt the CHW to refer the child back to the facility
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Following up referred cases in the home

Make notes in the space provided

STORY OF A DEATH

Madame Asana called the CHW to her home, because she was worried about her youngest son, Ali, who was very sick, he had a fever the last two days and wasn't getting better. The CHW checked the child and advised her to go immediately to the health facility. Madame Asana took the child right away, although the clinic was far, and she only arrived late in the afternoon, when the clinic was about to close. She insisted that the nurse see the child. The nurse said that they had run out of malaria tests kit (RDT), but she suspected it was malaria, and so she gave the child medicines. Madame Asana gave the medicine to the child, came home and felt much relieved. Three days later the child's condition still hadn't improved and he started to have convulsions. She called the CHW, who called an ambulance, but unfortunately the child died before the ambulance could reach them.

STORY OF A DEATH PREVENTED

Madame Adizah called the CHW to her home, because she was worried about her youngest son Ibrahim, who was very sick, had a fever for the last two days. The CHW came and checked the child and advised her to go immediately to the health facility as the boy had a high fever. Madame Adizah took the child right away, although the clinic was far, and she only arrived late in the afternoon, when the clinic was about to close. She insisted that the nurse see the child. The nurse said that they had run out of malaria tests kit (RDT), but in any case it was most likely malaria, and so she gave the child medicines. Madame Adizah came home and gave the medicine to the child, feeling much relieved. The next day the CHW returned to check on the child, and found that he still had not improved after taking the medicines. He asked Madame Adizah to explain what happened. The CHW called the CHO and they referred the child to the Health Centre, right away. The boy was treated in the health centre and recovered well. The doctor at the health centre told the CHW that this fever was not in fact caused by Malaria, but by another serious infection, so it was very good that CHW had followed up at home and sent the child back again.

Discussion questions:

1. What do you notice in the first story?
2. What happened differently in the second story?
3. Does it ever happen that after a child has been treated they can complicate afterwards? What conditions might make that more likely?

FOLLOW-UP CARE FOR SICK CHILDREN

All sick children sent home for treatment or basic home care need follow-up care from the CHW. This is especially important for children who receive antimalarial drugs (Artesunate-Amodiaquine, AA or Artemether-Lumefantrine, AL in SMC (seasonal malaria chemoprevention) implementing regions) for malaria or Amoxicillin for fast breathing, as well as ORS and zinc for diarrhoea. The follow-up visit is a chance to check whether the child is receiving the medicine correctly and is improving.

Set an appointment for the follow-up visit: Even if the child improves, the CHW must ask the caregiver to bring the child back in one day for follow-up, or visit the child in the home (especially if the child is on antimalarials or Amoxicillin), and help the caregiver agree on the follow-up.

What to do during the follow-up visit:

- During the follow-up, the CHW must ask about and look for any problems in the child – danger signs or difficulties with the medication.
- The CHW must also make sure that the child is taking the correct dosage, and remind the caregiver to continue giving the daily doses of zinc, antimalarial (AA or AL) or Amoxicillin, until the course is completed, even if the child is better .
- If the child has a new problem, the CHW should treat the child and advise on home care or refer – if the child has a danger sign.
- The CHW must also refer the child if he or she is getting sicker, or continues to have fever. The CHW must fill out the referral form, and assist the referral to prevent delay.
- The CHW should refer the child if any danger signs are identified in the follow up visit.

Key messages:

- All sick children sent home for treatment or basic home care need follow-up care from the CHW. This is especially important for children who receive antimalarial drugs, Amoxicillin, or ORS and zinc. The follow-up visit is a chance to check whether the child is receiving the medicine correctly and is improving.
- During the follow-up, the CHW must ask about and look for any problems in the child – danger signs or difficulties with the medication.
- The CHW must also make sure that the child is taking the correct dosage, and remind the caregiver to continue giving the daily doses as instructed in the clinic
- If the child has a new problem, the CHW should treat the child and advise on home care or refer – if the child has a danger sign.
- The CHW must also refer the child if he or she is getting sicker, or continues to have fever. The CHW must fill out the referral form, and assist the referral to prevent delay.

Notes:

UNIT 3: COMMUNITY-BASED CARE FOR THE MALNOURISHED CHILD

*Terminal
Performance
Objectives*

At the end of this unit the participants should be able to:

- Describe the different types of malnutrition and what impact they may have on the health of the child and its relationship with illness
- Measure and interpret weight-for-age
- Counsel the caregiver and family on child feeding based on growth trend
- Explain what SAM is and why it is important to treat SAM urgently
- Detect marasmus and kwashiorkor
- Measure and interpret MUAC
- Screen for SAM using MUAC during routine activities
- Provide follow-up care in community-based management of acute malnutrition
- Explain key actions for assessing and improving the nutritional status of a child recovering from malnutrition.

Session 3.1: Types and Causes of Malnutrition

Session Objectives

At the end of this session, participants will be able to:

- Understand the types and causes of malnutrition
- Explain how to recognise and refer a child with severe acute malnutrition
- Counsel the family on appropriate care for a child with severe acute malnutrition

Importance of good nutrition for children

STORY OF POOR NUTRITION – 1

Afua lived in a nearby village and was pregnant with her second child. Because she was pregnant she stopped breastfeeding her son when he was four months old and gave him koko and goat's milk instead. Her son was often sick and had a hard time gaining enough weight. When her son was old enough to eat solid food, Afua fed him on the family foods like banku, with soup containing a little meat or fish when her family could afford them. Afua's family did not have any animals, and foods such as meat and eggs were very expensive at the market. Without these body building foods to help him grow physically and mentally strong, her son's growth became stunted. As he grew older, he fell behind in school and eventually dropped out. He was one of the smallest boys in his class, and when he tried to find work as a day labourer, he was told he was not strong enough. Although he is an adult now, Afua's son still lives at home. With little education and poor physical health, he is dependent on Afua and her husband.

STORY OF POOR NUTRITION – 2

Akosua lived in a small town with her husband and their child, Abaka. Akosua and her husband ran a small eatery close to the bus stop. They had a roaring trade and many customers came there because of Akosua's quick and tasty meals. She used to cook more traditional foods, but she found that foods like chips and fried burgers sold much better, along with soft drinks. In the evening time, Abaka would come from school hungry, but she didn't have time to cook special food for him so he ate with the truckers, usually fried rice and chicken with cola. He sometimes got tips from serving the clients and used them to buy sweets in the market. As Abaka grew up he became very heavy and stopped doing sports with the other children, and suffered low self-esteem and depression because of his weight problem. When Abaka was in his thirties he developed diabetes, and had to take medicines to control his illness. The nurse told him he needed to lose a lot of weight and avoid all sugary foods and drinks! Abaka blamed his mother for letting him eat so much junk food as a child!

Discussion questions:

- Which of these children is malnourished?
- Which of these children has been affected in their adult life by their childhood nutrition?
- Does this happen in your community?
- Is there any case of obesity in your community?

STORY OF GOOD NUTRITION

A woman in another village, Mansa, also had a son. After giving her son only breast milk for six months, Mansa began to introduce him to a variety of foods in small, mashed portions, and small healthy snacks like fruit as finger foods, which her son enjoyed. At first, the baby did not like some foods, but Mansa ate with her son, encouraging him and showing him how much she liked those healthy foods. She also continued to breastfeed him until he was two years old. Mansa made sure her family ate balanced meals from the four-star diet. Sometimes she could not afford to buy meat or eggs for the family, but she got advice from the CHO and with help from the community, she planted a small vegetable garden where she grew beans and groundnut, which she learned were also good sources of body-building food. She also began to rear guinea-fowls. She tried not to use the same ingredients every time, so her family could enjoy a diverse diet. Her son quickly grew strong and did well in school, and did not get sick as much as some of the other children in class.

Discussions questions:

- What was this happening differently here?

PRINCIPLES OF GOOD NUTRITION

Nutrition is the process by which the body takes in and uses food for growth, development and maintenance.

Good nutrition: Good nutrition is obtained from eating the right amounts, and the right kinds of foods, in the right combination. Good nutrition means:

- ✓ Providing a person with the energy needed for his/her activities.
- ✓ Providing a person with the nutrients needed to grow and maintain processes inside the body
- ✓ Providing a person with the vitamins and minerals needed to help avoid or fight off diseases
- ✓ In children - ensures that they grow to their full potential
- ✓ In children – ensures that they achieve their full potential in their mental development

Under nutrition: when nutrition needs are not being met, either through having too little or too much food, or by having too little or too much of *certain types of food*. Poor nutrition can mean:

- ✓ A person has insufficient energy for his/her activities.
- ✓ A person has insufficient nutrients needed to grow and maintain processes inside the body
- ✓ A person has insufficient vitamins and minerals needed to help avoid or fight off diseases
- ✓ In children – prevents children growing well and attaining their optimum height and weight
- ✓ In children – prevents them from achieving their full potential in their mental development

Over nutrition: when the food amounts or types eaten on a regular basis are beyond the needs. Over nutrition can mean:

- ✓ A person's food intake is more than what they need for their activities
- ✓ Food intake has too much unhealthy food like refined sugar and saturated fat.
- ✓ In children – can reduce physical activity and reduce wellbeing
- ✓ Can increase the lifetime risk of chronic illnesses like heart disease, diabetes and stroke
- ✓ A person who is over-nourished or obese can also be lacking in vitamins and minerals

REVISION: FOOD GROUPS AND THE FOUR-STAR DIET

- **Energy giving foods** give our bodies energy to move, work and think. They include grain crops such as wheat, maize, sorghum, millet and rice, and root crops such as potatoes, sweet potatoes

and cassava. These are also called **carbohydrates or starchy foods**. In many parts of the world, most people eat one main carbohydrate meal with almost every meal. This is called the main meal.

Fats and oils also contain a lot of energy.

- **Animal-source body building foods** help our bodies for growth and repair and are rich in **protein**. They come from plants (beans and other legumes), processed plant products (peanut butter and soya mince), processed animal products (cheese, sour milk and yoghurt) and animals (eggs, meat, fish and poultry). The latter group from animal sources have higher quality protein.
- **Protective foods** provide the body with **vitamins and minerals** needed to help different parts such as the blood, eyes, bones, skin and hair work properly. These foods protect us by strengthening the immune system to fight infections and help the absorption of other nutrients. Green leaves, vegetables and fruits such as mango, pawpaw, oranges, and pineapples are examples.
- **Water:** Water is required for all body activities to take place. It is essential to maintain adequate intake of clean water to replace the water lost by the body from urine, sweating, etc.

MALNUTRITION

CHRONIC MALNUTRITION

- 'Chronic' malnutrition means the child has suffered a lack of food or lack of certain foods over a long period of time. This could lead to:
 - Stunting: a condition where the child has very low length/height for the age
 - Underweight: a condition where a child has very low weight for the age

ACUTE MALNUTRITION

- Acute malnutrition means that the child has had a lack of food or suffered a sudden weight loss due to illness or not eating enough. This can be identified by:
 - Swelling of some body parts including swelling of both feet (pitting oedema), also called **Kwashiorkor**. There may also be swelling of the lower arms and lower legs.
 - Very low weight for height, causing visible wasting, 'baggy pants' appearance of the buttocks (also called **Marasmus**)
- OR
- Mid-upper arm circumference (MUAC) less than 11.5 cm for severe acute malnutrition (SAM) and between 11.5 and 12.5 cm for moderate acute malnutrition (MAM). In Ghana MUAC has been adopted as an independent criteria for identifying wasting in children 6-59 months.
- SAM children are 9 times more likely to die before age five than children with good nutrition. We will learn more about SAM in the next Session.

MICRONUTRIENT DEFICIENCY

- Illness caused by a lack of essential vitamins or minerals in the diet. The most common deficiencies are iron deficiency (anaemia), vitamin A deficiency (night-blindness) and iodine deficiency (goitre).

OBESITY

- Overweight and obesity are when there is too much fat built up in the body, damaging health.
- Overweight and obesity can increase the risk of certain diseases including diabetes, cardiovascular diseases and cancer. Obesity can decrease quality of life leading to low self-esteem or depression.

Deficiency	Causes	How to prevent it?	Risks
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Anaemia (Iron deficiency)	Low iron in the diet Loss of blood Malaria infection Parasites and worms e.g. hookworm Frequent infections and/or diarrhoea	Iron-rich or iron-fortified food Deworming 6 monthly from 1 year old Malaria prevention Adequate hygiene and sanitation	Retarded growth Increased risk from infections Impaired mental development
Vitamin A deficiency	Not eating foods that contain vitamin A can result in vitamin A deficiency.	Eating vitamin A-rich foods e.g. animal products, orange and yellow fruit and veg, dark green leaves, palm oil Continued breastfeeding to 2 years and beyond Vitamin A supplements every 6 months in children 6m-5 years	Increased risk of infections Slowed growth and development. Blindness Night blindness is the first sign of vitamin A deficiency
Iodine deficiency	Low dietary iodine Also higher risk with alcohol use, smoking and contraceptive pill.	Using iodized table salt Or eating foods high in iodine, e.g. dairy, seafood, meat, eggs Multivitamin supplements	Enlarged thyroid (goitre) Hypothyroidism Mental retardation in infants born to mothers with iodine deficiency in pregnancy

CAUSES OF MALNUTRITION

Malnutrition can ultimately cause death in children both directly (starvation), or indirectly through increased vulnerability to illness and infection.

Vicious cycle of illness and malnutrition: As we read earlier in this Module, when children get an infection or illness such as diarrhoea, it weakens their defences and they may lose weight due to poor appetite, and they can lose more weight. The more underweight a child becomes, the more likely they are to catch infections, and so the cycle continues.

What causes malnutrition? Malnutrition is often caused by a combination of factors. The contributing causes or factors are classified as:

- **Immediate causes:** inadequate intake and diseases and infections, which forms a vicious cycle
- **Underlying causes:** household food insecurity, inadequate care practices, access to health care, access to safe water, hygiene, sanitation.
- **Basic causes:** factors related to socio-cultural, economic, political and policy environment which influence food security and access to a diverse healthy diet.

For CHWs to help families during the recovery of a child from malnutrition, they must understand *immediate causes as well as the underlying causes* to prevent the child becoming malnourished again.

STORY IN CONTEXT

Nandi and her husband had a large family with five children of their own, and after the death of her sister, they also cared for 3 of Nandi's nephews. That's a lot of mouths to feed! They were very poor and all lived

together in two rooms. The husband was saving money to build another room. They tried to get a loan, but the bank's policy meant they needed something to guarantee the loan.

Nandi, fed the children sorghum and rice, sometimes plain, or with a little sauce, which she bought. She didn't have time to farm with so many kids and they didn't own any land. Nandi complained often that they needed a latrine closer to home, the children often used the bushes behind the house as a toilet! They often played there, and came to eat without washing their hands. One day, Aba, her youngest, suffered vomiting and diarrhoea for several days. He lost his appetite and didn't eat as much as usual. The kids all shared one plate, so no one noticed he wasn't eating much which resulted in a loss of weight. After he recovered, he ate as usual again with the rest of the family, but didn't gain weight. One day a neighbour said that the child was looking thin, and Nandi agreed but she said the child never eats, what can she do? Next month Aba got sick with fever, and was treated for malaria. The CHW told Nandi to give more food to Aba when he was sick, and to give him eggs to help him grow. She gave him a thin porridge to drink, which he liked, but didn't gain any weight, but she couldn't give eggs, because in her culture children eating eggs was taboo. His hair colour became sandy, like a dog, so Nandi went to the traditional healer, as she had heard about "Asram" and he gave her some traditional medicines. A few weeks later, all the children developed a cold. Aba developed pneumonia! She went to see the CHW, who found Aba had severe acute malnutrition.

Answers:

Immediate causes:

Underlying causes:

Underlying factors:

Test your knowledge

Question	Answer
What is anaemia?	
Give three examples of causes of anaemia	
What foods contain high levels of iron and therefore can prevent anaemia?	
Name two ways of preventing anaemia	
What do we mean by "underlying causes" in terms of causes of malnutrition	
What is Kwashiorkor?	

What is marasmus?	
What are the risks of vitamin A deficiency?	
How can we prevent it?	
At what age should children start to have Vitamin A supplements every six months?	

What have we learnt?

Key messages:

- Chronic malnutrition means the child has suffered a lack of food or lack of certain foods over a long period of time, and can lead to stunting (low height for age) and underweight.
- Acute malnutrition means that the child has had a lack of food or suffered a sudden weight loss due to illness or not eating enough. These children become “skin and bones” (marasmus) and/or develop swelling in some body parts such as both feet with discoloured hair (kwashiorkor).
- Micronutrient deficiency is a condition caused by a lack of essential vitamins or minerals in the diet. The most common deficiencies are iron deficiency (anaemia), vitamin A deficiency (night-blindness) and iodine deficiency (goitre).
- Overweight and obesity occur when there is too much fat built up in the body, damaging health.
- Malnutrition can be caused by multiple factors, including immediate, underlying causes and basic causes..

Notes:

Session 3.2: Measuring Child Growth (practical)

Learning objectives	<p><i>At the end of this session, participants will be able to:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Correctly demonstrate measurement of weight of children under 5 years • Correctly demonstrate calibrating and zero a scale • Correctly demonstrate how to use a length using mat and scale • Correctly interpret data on child growth charts • Assist the CHO during growth monitoring sessions
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IMPORTANCE OF GROWTH MONITORING IN EARLY LIFE

- Nutrition and growth especially during the first two years of life, will determine how healthy a child is for the rest of their lives. All children under five years should be weighed monthly.
- Detecting malnutrition early is key to preventing stunting, which is permanent and irreversible.
- Poor nutrition can reduce a child's ability to learn and do well in school, and protection from illness.

Recap the definitions:

- **Length** is measured when a child under two years of age is laying down using a length mat
- **Height** is measured when a child between two and five years is standing up using a height board
- **Stunting** - low length-for-age or low height-for-age and is an indicator of chronic malnutrition
- **Wasting** - low weight-for-length or low weight-for-height and is an indicator of acute malnutrition
- **Underweight** - low *weight-for-age* attributed to stunting, wasting, or a combination of both.

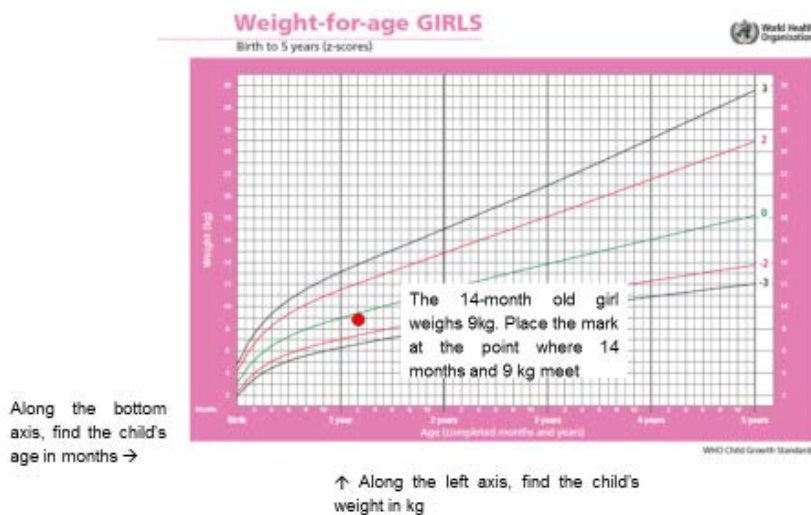
Overweight/Obesity - high weight-for-height.

MEASURING WEIGHT

- Using standard weights (preferred, if available) or other objects with known weights (e.g., a 5kg sack of grain), check the accuracy of the scale. If the measurement is incorrect, “zero” the scale by setting the needle to zero when it's empty, and try again. If the weight is consistently off by a small amount, subtract that amount from the final weight.
- Tips for measuring weight accurately:
 - Calibrate also after every 10 children
 - Place hanging scales at the measurer's eye level
 - Place standing scales on a smooth flat and hard surface
 - Two people are required to weigh a child. Involve the caregiver in weighing the child
 - Make sure the child is undressed or has only light clothing on.
 - Make sure the child is still and ask the caregiver to calm the child if needed
 - Carry extra batteries for digital scales.

PLOTTING THE WEIGHT – EXAMPLE

This is an example of a 14-month old girl who weighs 9 kg:



INTERPRETING GROWTH CHARTS

The green line represents the “normal” weight-for-age of a healthy child. The area between the green and red lines represents a normal range. If a child’s measurements fall between the red lines and black lines, then the child is underweight. If the child’s measurements fall outside of the black lines, the child is severely underweight.

Key trends to watch out for:

- A child’s growth line crosses the red or black line away from the normal range.
- There is a sharp decline or incline in the child’s growth line
- The child’s growth remains flat; there are no changes in weight or length/height
- It is very important to consider all factors when interpreting a child’s growth charts. Even if a child is within the normal range, if the line has suddenly changed directions or is at a steep incline or decline, there may be a potential growth problem

The same principles apply when we interpret height-for-age or weight-for-height.

Exercise: Diana’s growth curve

Fill in the growth chart in their Manuals using the information below:

- At 6 months, Diana was 5 kg
- At 9 months, Diana was 6.5 kg
- At 1 year, Diana was 8.5 kg
- At 1 year and 3 months, Diana was 11 kg
- At 1 year and 6 months, Diana was 12 kg

Questions for participants:

Diana’s latest weight indicates that she is currently _____ (normal/underweight/severely underweight)

Diana’s growth chart trend indicates that she is _____ (gaining weight/not gaining weight/losing weight).

Name one action the CHW must take to counsel her caretaker as a result: _____.

ROLE OF CHWs IN GROWTH MONITORING

Session 3.3: Counselling for child growth

Learning objectives

At the end of this session, participants will be able to:

- Explain how to counsel the caregiver on child feeding based on the growth curve
- Explain what next steps to plan with the caregiver based on the weight pattern

CHW'S COUNSELLING BASED ON GROWTH CURVE

One of the activities during a household visit is for the CHW to observe the growth pattern as recorded in the growth chart of the child. This can be useful to assess barriers to growth in the child and negotiate solutions with the family, based on the pattern of growth.

If the child is gaining weight:

- Praise the mother/caregiver
- Review feeding practices negotiated with the family during the previous visit
- For children under two years of age: focus on increasing quantity and diversity of complementary feeds and continuing breastfeeding
- For children aged 2-5 years: focus on maintaining quantity, frequency and diversity
- Other related issues for maintaining child nutrition: birth spacing methods for the mother and her partner; handwashing, toilet use and water treatment in the home, bed net use.

If the child has not gained adequate weight from the past reading:

- Review feeding practices negotiated with the family during the previous visit: If the family has not been able to do the negotiated practices: dialogue with family to identify barriers and negotiate solutions.
- If the family has been able to do the negotiated practices: dialogue with the family to identify barriers that were not identified before; enquire about illness such as diarrhoea during the intervening period, cessation of breastfeeding, a new pregnancy and about food availability in the home. Negotiate new practices based on the barriers identified.
- Emphasise the need for regular weighing of the child, preferably every month.

If the child has lost weight from the previous reading:

- Review breastfeeding, feeding and hygiene practices. Enquire about illness especially diarrhoea.
- If there is no obvious reason for the weight loss, refer the child if the previous reading was more than a month ago. If the previous reading was a month ago or less, counsel the caregiver to take the child for weighing in a month's time. If there is no gain in weight, the child should be taken to the facility.

Case studies

Make notes in the space provided

Case 1: A 9-month old baby boy weighs 6.5 kg. His weight was the same at 8 months

Case 2: A 14-month old baby girl weighs 11 kg. She weighed 12 kg at 12 months, 11 kg at 13 months

Case 3: A 10-month old baby boy has been weighed every month since birth. His last 3 readings are the same – at 8 kg.

Case 4: An 18-month old baby girl weighs 13 kg. She was not weighed for the past 4 months. Her previous weight recorded at 13 months was 12 kg.

Key messages

- The weight gain pattern of the child, as noted in the growth chart enables the CHW to tailor the negotiation and counselling with the caregiver.
- The three scenarios are – steady gain in weight, no gain in weight for 2-3 consecutive readings, loss in weight.
- Negotiation and counselling should include feeding practices, sanitation and hygiene, birth spacing and illness episodes.

Notes:

Session 3.4: Detecting and referring severe acute malnutrition

Learning objectives

At the end of this session, participants will be able to:

- Explain how to look for marasmus and kwashiorkor
- Explain MUAC in simple language
- Demonstrate how to measure a child's MUAC accurately
- Interpret MUAC readings and explain their implications

SEVERE ACUTE MALNUTRITION – TWO PRESENTATIONS

Severe acute malnutrition (SAM) presents in one of two ways:

- Visible severe wasting or Marasmus
- Swelling of some body parts such as swelling of both feet, lower legs and lower arms, along with skin and hair changes, or Kwashiorkor

Presence of these signs suggest the child require urgent referral and medical care.

OBSERVING VISIBLE SEVERE WASTING (MARASMUS)

A child with marasmus is very thin, has no fat, and looks like skin and bones. The skin appears to 'hang off them' like baggy clothing as they have little fat and muscle left to support it. **Also explain** that wasting will typically show on the MUAC. **Point out** the following in the pictures:

- **Severe wasting** of the shoulders, arms, buttocks and legs.
- **Ribs** - can be seen protruding from the body.
- **Hips** - appear small than chest and abdomen.
- **Buttocks** - The fat of the buttocks is missing, folds are seen on the buttocks and thighs. It looks as if the child is wearing baggy trousers.
- **Abdomen** – may be large or distended.
- Compare to normal child

Wasted/baggy pants appearance



Distended abdomen Normal abdomen

OBSERVING SWELLING OF BOTH FEET (“BILATERAL” PITTING OEDEMA)

A child with SAM could also present with oedema. This is known as *kwashiorkor*. If the oedema is just one of the feet, it may not be caused by malnutrition. Children with kwashiorkor may have other signs like thin, sparse and pale hair that easily falls out, dry, scaly skin, a puffy face.

Pitting oedema is caused by fluid gathering in the child's tissues so that they look swollen or puffed up. It is called 'pitting' because if you press your thumb down on the top of the foot, it will leave a 'pit' or thumb impression in the skin.



To check for bipedal pitting oedema, use your thumbs to press gently for a few seconds on the top of each foot at the same time. The child has oedema if a pit remains in both feet when you lift your thumbs, even for a few seconds.

1. Press gently on both feet for a few seconds



2. Lift the fingers and observe if a 'pit' remains



MUAC SCREENING

- Mid-upper arm circumference (MUAC) is a measurement that can quickly and effectively identify cases of SAM, which can be used at appropriate times during routine and follow-up visits.
- MUAC is based on the fact that a small arm circumference shows loss of muscle mass and indicates SAM. MUAC is a good predictor of immediate risk of death from SAM between 6 months and 5 years. Muscle mass is important in maintaining body functions and in fighting infections.
- MUAC is not appropriate for use in children under the age of 6 months of age.
- MUAC is a useful tool, but cannot replace growth monitoring as it is not sensitive enough to detect all malnutrition cases. Regular growth monitoring is still very important, especially in the first two years.

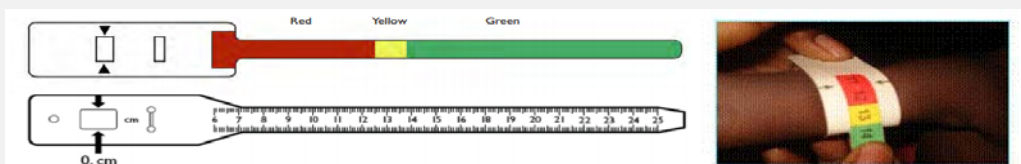
WHEN MIGHT YOU ASSESS A CHILD FOR MALNUTRITION USING MUAC?

- Whilst supporting outreach growth monitoring services or surveys
- During routine and targeted household visits (all children over 6 months)
- During follow-up visits after illness
- During follow-up of children undergoing treatment of acute malnutrition (CMAM)

TAKING A MUAC READING

Different types of MUAC bands are available. Some have numbers, some have numbers and colours, and some have colours only. Colour-coded bands are the easiest to use.

1. Work at eye level. Sit down if possible.
2. Ask the mother to remove any clothing that covers the child's left arm.
3. Locate the tip of the child's shoulder with your fingertips.
4. Bend the child's elbow to a right angle.
5. Place a mark on the child's arm halfway between the shoulder tip and the elbow.
6. Straighten the child's arm.
7. Wrap the MUAC band around the child's left arm at the mid-point mark you have just made. Insert the end of the band through the thin opening at the other end of the band.
 - Keep the colours or numbers on the band right side up and the band flat against the skin.
 - Make sure the band is not too tight.
 - Make sure the band is not too loose (it is too loose if you can fit a pencil under it).
 - Make sure the band is horizontal around the child's arm.
8. Read the measurement aloud (either the colour or the number that shows most completely in the wide window on the band). Ask the assistant to repeat the measurement and to record it.
9. Check that the measurement is recorded correctly.
10. Gently remove the band from the child's arm. Thank the mother and child for their co-operation.



Interpreting MUAC

- MUAC readings of 12.5 cm or more fall in the green zone of the tape and are considered normal
- Readings of 12.5-11.5cm indicate moderate acute malnutrition or MAM
- Readings of less than 11.5cm indicate SAM

Key messages

- Severe acute malnutrition is characterized by: presence of swelling of both feet (pitting oedema), also called kwashiorkor, very low weight for height or severe visible wasting indicated by 'baggy pants' appearance of the buttocks (also called Marasmus), or a middle upper arm circumference for children 6 months to 5 years of less than <math>< 11.5\text{ cm}</math>.
- MUAC helps us to quickly assess malnutrition in large groups of people such as surveys.
- It is not appropriate to do a MUAC screening for a child under the age of 6 months.
- Check for bipedal pitting oedema and wasting of children during routine and timed visits, and during or after an illness, and also when following up a child undergoing community-based treatment of malnutrition.
- Moderate acute malnutrition is when a child is under weight, characterized by a MUAC reading between 11.5cm and 12.5cm.

Session 3.5: Community-Based Management of Acute Malnutrition

Learning objectives

At the end of this session, participants will be able to:

- Explain what we mean by severe acute malnutrition (SAM) and define common terms used in SAM management
- Describe the principles and processes involved in managing SAM in the community
- Describe the steps the CHW will support during recovery of a SAM child.
- Demonstrate the home visit monitoring steps for a SAM case.

WHAT IS SEVERE ACUTE MALNUTRITION AND WHY IS IT IMPORTANT

Children with a MUAC of less than 11.5cm are said to have severe acute malnutrition, or SAM. Most of them present as very thin (marasmus) or swollen (kwashiorkor). They need special medical care. They should be taken to a trained health worker or health facility for assessment and treatment.

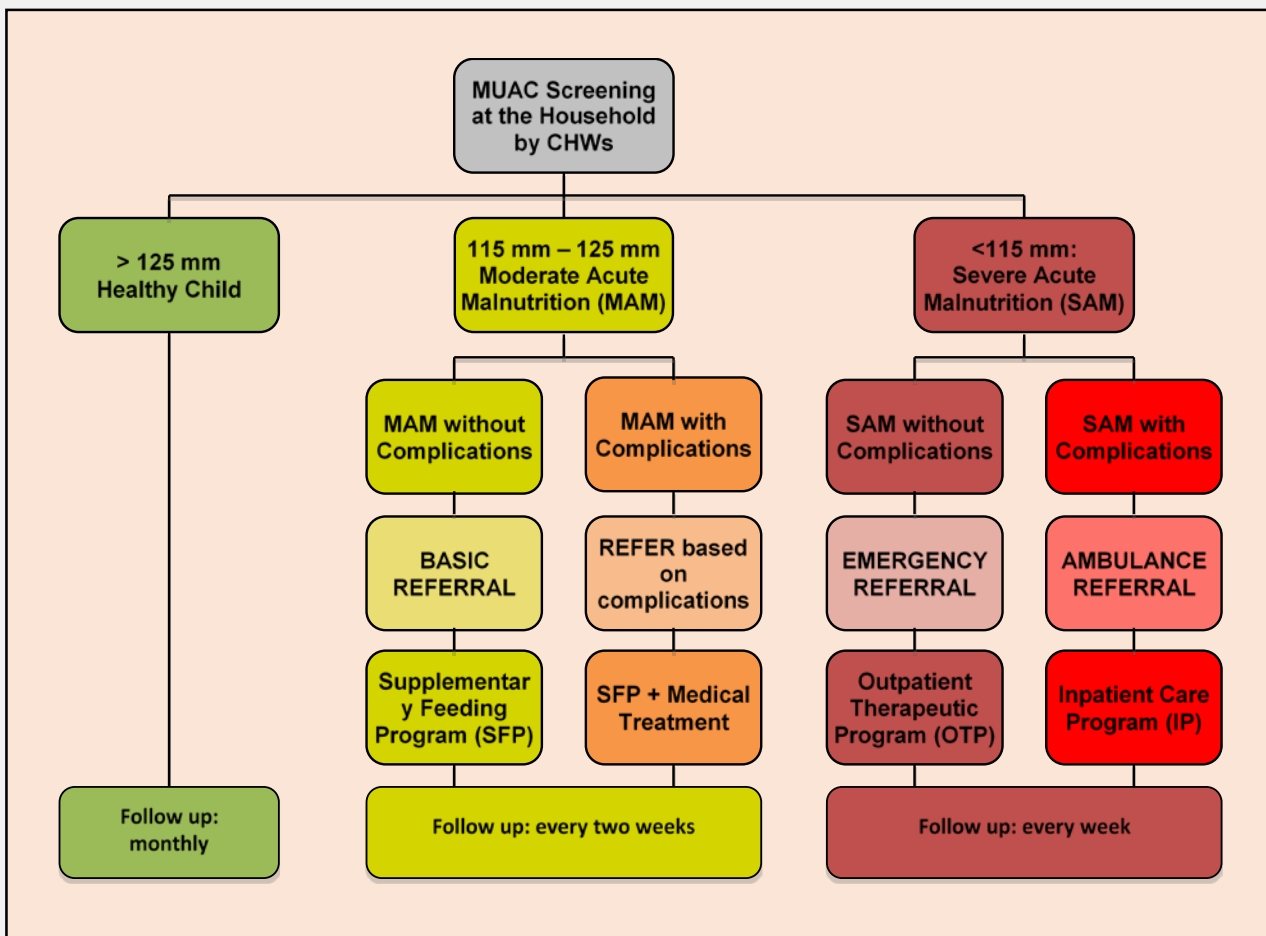
- A SAM child is 9 times more likely to die than other children, before aged 5 years.
- A SAM child may have underlying illnesses needing treatment e.g. HIV infection, intestinal worms.
- A SAM child may have complications like severe anaemia, oedema and infections needing treatment.
- A SAM child cannot fight infections like other children – home-based care for infections like malaria and diarrhoea would put them at risk of death.

DEFINITIONS AND TERMS

- **Uncomplicated SAM cases** are children with SAM but with no medical complications as evidenced by *danger signs* or signs of a specific illness.
- **SAM with complications** are children with SAM and one or more *danger signs*.
- **Outpatient Care (OPC)** provides children with uncomplicated SAM who are over 6 months of age with routine medical treatment and ready-to-use therapeutic foods (RUTF) for use at home.
- **Community management of acute malnutrition (CMAM)** is managing children with uncomplicated SAM in the community in conjunction with OPC.
- **Inpatient Care (IPC)** treats SAM children who also have medical complications, those under 6 months of age, or who cannot eat RUTF, in a health facility with 24-hour care. The child is treated with F75, F100 and/or RUTF until complications are resolved and weight recovery is achieved.
- **Supplementary Feeding Program (SFP)** is a form of outpatient treatment in which the caregiver receives a food supplement to give the child in addition to breast milk and/or usual diet. Children with moderate acute malnutrition or MAM (MUAC reading of 11.5-12.5) are treated through SFP and/or IYCF counselling and support.
- **RUTF Ready to Use Therapeutic Food (RUTF)** - is a soft pre-packaged food that contains all the nutrients needed for the child's recovery. It is easy for children to eat directly from the packet. It needs no mixing with water or other foods, making it safe to use anywhere.
- In Ghana CMAM involves all four components: IPC, OPC and community outreach through feeding counselling and support, as well as SFP where available.

FLOW CHART FOR MUAC ASSESSMENT AND MANAGEMENT

- The following flow-chart outlines what actions the CHW should take based on MUAC measurement:



COMMUNITY MANAGEMENT OF ACUTE MALNUTRITION (CMAM)

The key for managing SAM is the use of therapeutic feeding with ready-to-use therapeutic food, or RUTF. Guided by appetite, children may eat RUTF at home, with minimal supervision, at any time of the day or night. RUTF does not contain water, so children should also be offered safe drinking water after eating. A child under SAM treatment will need 10–15 kg of RUTF, over six to eight weeks.

Uncomplicated SAM cases can be treated at home if they are well, over 6 months of age, and the mother is able to use RUTF at home. This forms part of the community-based management of acute malnutrition (CMAM). Community support is needed to fill the common gaps. For **complicated SAM cases**, treatment needs to be done by a health-care provider, who can manage complications, give any medicines the child needs, and look for underlying infections such as parasites and HIV. The treatment depends on how sick the child is and type of complication they present with.

Gap #1. Most caregivers don't know their children have severe malnutrition.

Solution: active case finding (screening) by CHWs, which includes MUAC screening and growth monitoring.

Gap #2. Most caregivers stop treatment once the child “appears better”.

Solution: The CHW ensures OPC attendance every week until they reach a healthy weight.

Gap #3. Counselling at the OPC often excludes important influencers of household feeding practices including fathers, mothers-in-law and grandmothers who may present barriers to change. Counselling at the OPC may not uncover the root-causes (underlying and basic causes) contributing to the child's condition.

Solution: CHWs can engage the entire household and negotiate new behaviours in feeding the child. They can also assess food security, water, sanitation and hygiene as well as family feeding practices and farming.

Gap #4. Transitioning from RUTF to an improved diet needs to be monitored closely to ensure that the SAM child returns to a feeding routine that will protect him or her from future episodes of SAM.

Solution: CHWs are best positioned to ensure that this transition happens.

- For **complicated SAM cases**, such as those with infections, treatment for SAM needs to be done by a health-care provider, who can manage complications, give any medicines the child needs, and look for underlying infections such as parasites and HIV. The treatment depends on how sick the child is and if they have complications.
- Guided by appetite, children may eat RUTF at home, with minimal supervision, at any time of the day or night. RUTF does not contain water, so children should also be offered safe drinking water at will. A child under SAM treatment will need 10–15 kg of RUTF, over six to eight weeks.

HOME-BASED CARE AND SUPPORT

CHW should monitor or check:

1. **Danger** signs - refer all SAM children with any danger sign
2. **Weight gain**
3. Improved **Feeding** practices
4. **Medicine** and RUTF adherence
5. **Clinic** attendance

CHWs should counsel and/or promote:

1. Continued Breastfeeding
2. **Hygiene** – SAM children are vulnerable to infections so they need clean hygienic conditions, with access to safe drinking water and sanitation.
3. **Warmth** – as SAM children get cold more quickly than other children. Skin-to-skin contact with a caregiver can help keep a child warm, with both mother and child covered.
4. More **loving affection, nurture, communication and play** from their caregivers, as this will support their recovery.

DON'T: MANAGE MALARIA OR DIARRHOEA IN A SAM CHILD AT HOME, THEY NEED TO BE REFERRED

Don't Walk From Malnourished Children – Bring Hope with Love

Danger signs **W**eight gain **F**eeding **M**edicines **C**linic **B**reastfeeding **H**ygiene **W**armth **L**oving care

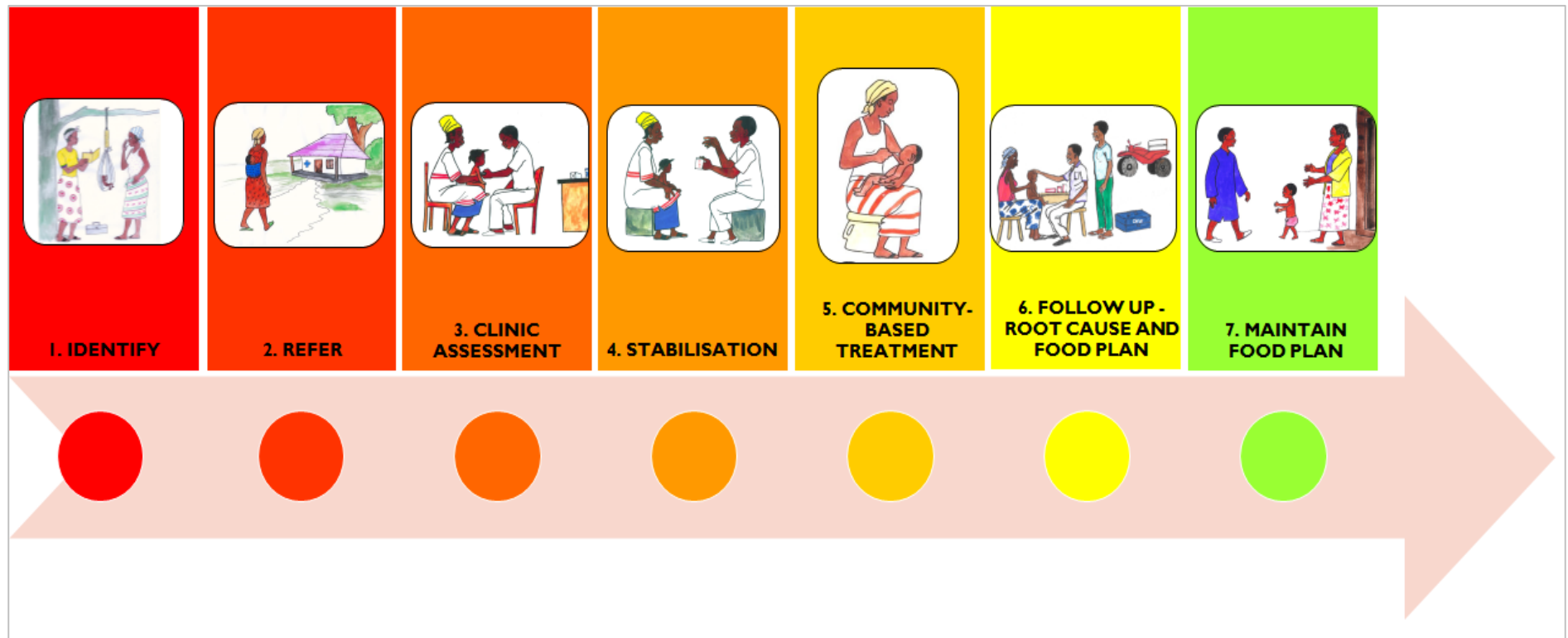
SPECIAL SITUATIONS

Consideration of socio-economic context: Most SAM cases occur in families in conditions of poverty, food insecurity, who may live in unhygienic conditions, increasing the risk of repeated infections. CHWs can address these issues through “Priority” home visiting (3 monthly) rather than 6-monthly visits.

Considerations for high HIV prevalence areas: HIV-positive children are more vulnerable to acute malnutrition. They can benefit from CMAM treatment, but may recover more slowly, suffer more

infections, and case fatality is higher. Strong links between OPC and HIV/AIDS services are essential: HIV testing should be available for SAM patients and their caregivers. If HIV-positive, they need a course of **co-trimoxazole** to prevent *Pneumonia* and other infections, and antiretroviral therapy when indicated. Children known to be HIV-positive need rapid access to therapeutic feeding to improve nutritional status.

THE ROAD TO RECOVERY – Community-based treatment of the malnourished child



STEP	Role of the CHW/CHO/Caregiver
<p><u>Step 1. Identifying the Case</u> Can be during routine household visit, follow-up visits, or growth promotion service or timed and targeted counselling visits, and also visit of a sick child</p>	<p>The CHW:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Checks the child growth curve – <i>child not gaining weight/losing weight</i> - Does MUAC screening (<i>finds that it is less than 11.5</i>) - Assesses for signs of marasmus or bipedal pitting oedema - Assesses for other danger signs (<i>there is a danger sign</i>)
<p><u>Step 2: Refer</u> To the nearest facility or CHPS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - All SAM - All MAM under six months 	<p>The CHW:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Writes a referral - Counsels the family - Explains what will happen at the facility
<p><u>Step 3: Clinic assessment</u></p>	<p>The CHO/facility staff:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Assess the child, take blood, do lab tests
<p><u>Step 4: Stabilisation</u> CHO provides RUTF and counsels the mother</p>	<p>The CHO/facility staff:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The clinic stabilises the child's condition, gives therapeutic feeds and manages complications.
<p><u>Step 5: Community-based treatment</u></p>	<p>The CHO/facility staff</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Give mother RUTF to use at home and a discharge notice about when to return
<p><u>Step 6: Follow-up- root causes and food plan</u></p>	<p><u>The CHW - Discuss and discover (root cause assessment)</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Recent or current illnesses - Feeding & breastfeeding practices: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> o Breastfeeding o Meal frequency o Dietary diversity - Water sanitation and hygiene practice in the home - Food insecurity and options - Mother pregnant again
<p><u>Step 7: Maintain and monitor</u></p>	<p><u>The CHW should monitor 5 things in the 7th step.</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Danger signs (refer if yes) - Weight gain (refer if no weight gain) - Feeding practices and feeding plan - Adherence to medicines and RUTF - OPC appointments (refer if missed appointment) <p><u>CHWs to promote:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Breastfeeding - Warmth - Water, hygiene and sanitation (WaSH) - Love, nurture, communication and play

CHWs SCREENING FOR SAM

The CHWs would review children's growth charts during every routine or priority home visit or during TTC visits:

- If the child has not been gaining weight, or has been losing weight, the CHW would measure MUAC and also assess for danger signs
- If the child has not been weighed in the past 3 months, the CHW would do MUAC screening.

The CHW would also screen children using MUAC during growth monitoring sessions.

These are the *routine* opportunities that the CHW has to screen children for SAM.

In *special* situations, and in areas where SAM is common, or during lean periods of the year, the CHO could organise special MUAC screening drives, along with the CHMC and the CHW.

Barriers to CMAM completion and recovery

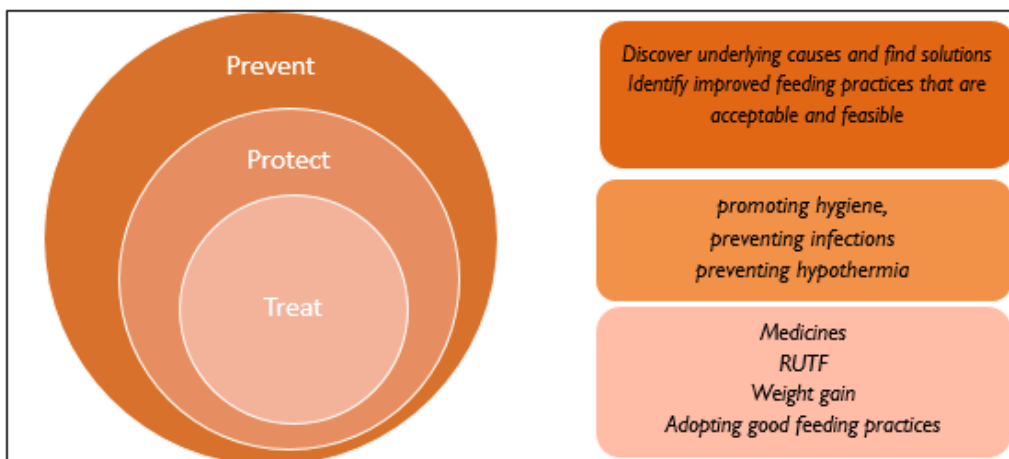
Step	Barrier	Solution
1. Identification	<i>Poor awareness of acute malnutrition</i>	
2. Referral uptake	<i>Poor awareness of CMAM Poor understanding of need Access – cost/distance Lack of trust in providers</i>	
3. Clinic assessment	<i>Inappropriate referral</i>	
4. Community-based treatment	<i>Incorrect use of RUTF Family don't give all medicines Stigma Access to OPC sites (transport)</i>	
5. Follow-up and feeding plan	<i>Influence of peers or family members on feeding practice Lack of access to nutritious food Difficulties breastfeeding Stigma</i>	
6. Maintain and monitor	<i>Poverty/food insecurity Tradition/food taboos Support for behaviour change</i>	

Test your knowledge

TRUE OR FALSE	ANSWER
A SAM case with bilateral pitting oedema must be referred	
An uncomplicated SAM case can be treated at an OPC centre.	
A SAM child undergoing treatment should have monthly visits to the OPC centre.	
If a SAM case develops diarrhoea you should help the mother give the child ORS and manage at home.	
If a SAM child develops malaria you should give the first dose of medicine (if you have) and refer urgently.	
If the caregiver of a SAM case reports that the child is not able to eat the RUTF you should refer them to the OPC.	
CHWs should conduct home visits for SAM kids weekly.	
The CHW conducts the first follow-up without the CHO.	
The feeding plan will be developed by the CHW.	
Bonus question 1: The CHW should ensure five things during the home visit: what are they?	
Bonus question 2: What four things should they promote in the care of SAM children at home?	

Session 3.6: Home-based follow-up for the malnourished child

Learning objectives	<p><i>At the end of this session, participants will be able to:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Describe the steps of a follow-up visit for a SAM child Demonstrate the process of root-cause discovery in counselling Demonstrate the counselling of feeding practices and making a feeding plan Correctly describe how a caregiver should complete a food diary
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HOME-BASED FOLLOW-UP FOR THE MALNOURISHED CHILD

Following stabilisation, the child with SAM will need special support in the home to ensure that:

- the family adopts improved feeding practices for the child to sustain the growth
- the child attends follow-up and growth monitoring and promotion as per recommendations
- the child is gaining weight
- the child does not have any danger signs
- any contributing factors or “root causes” that may have caused the malnutrition are resolved
- Step 6 in the road to recovery details the “root cause assessment”

ROOT CAUSE ASSESSMENT

Step 6: Follow-up- root causes and feeding plan

Discuss and discover:

- Recent or current illnesses
- Feeding & breastfeeding practices:
 - o Breastfeeding
 - o Meal frequency
 - o Dietary diversity
- Water sanitation and hygiene practice in the home
- Food insecurity and options
- Mother is pregnant again

Ask:

- “In the weeks and months leading to the malnutrition, has the child been unwell? What illnesses?”
- “In the weeks and months leading to the malnutrition, what did you feed the child? How often? What about breastfeeding?”

- “What options have you had available, what difficulties do you experience in accessing nutritious foods?”

Check:

- Safe water/drinking water access and purification
- Sanitation
- Handwashing and hygiene

Root cause assessment

Make notes in the space provided

<p>Case 1: 9 month old child is breastfed infrequently as the mother is working away from the home, and child is cared for by grandmother. Food given is runny maize porridge, once or twice a day for several months.</p>	<p>Case 2: Lack of clean water and recurrent diarrhoeal infections over recent months. Home is overcrowded, and the latrine is shared with many other homes. No soap or handwashing facilities and water is from a stream/spring nearby.</p>	<p>Case 3: No dietary diversity – the child eats from the family plate typically maize meal or rice with sauce. The family rear chickens and grow foods for market sale to buy rice.</p>
<p>Case 4: Breastfeeding practice stopped as the mother became pregnant, but is a single mother without support, living in conditions of poverty, with very limited resources to feed the child.</p>	<p>Case 5: A child has had chronic diarrhoea over the last several months, and has been losing weight. Mother and father have recently tested HIV-positive, but have not yet tested the child.</p>	<p>Case 6: Severe vomiting and diarrhoeal illness led to sudden weight loss recently, and feeding practice during illness was very poor so the child lost a lot of weight quickly and has failed to regain.</p>

CREATING A FEEDING PLAN: WITH MOTHER AND FATHER

WHEN TO CREATE THE FEEDING PLAN?

- When the child first starts the CMAM treatment, they will eat mostly RUTF and breastfeeding.
- After 4-6 weeks or as advised by the CHO, the CHW can support the family to develop the feeding plan.

- It is not appropriate to initiate the feeding plan whilst the predominant feeding plan is RUTF and breastmilk, this may confuse the family. The feeding plan will be developed when the child meets the discharge criteria, i.e. 12.5cm.

WHAT IS INCLUDED IN A FEEDING PLAN?

- Promote dietary diversity:
 - Discuss options the mother has for each food group:
 - Animal source body building foods: eggs, meat, fish, chicken, dairy
 - Vegetable source body building food such as beans, groundnut, pulses.
 - Protective foods: fruit and vegetables, include orange and yellow fruit and veg (vitamin A) and dark leafy greens if possible (iron rich)
 - Energy foods: oils, fats, nuts, palm oil (high energy)
 - Energy foods (staples) – sorghum, millet, rice, yam, plantain)
- On the food diary (below) circle the foods she can agree to try.
- Discuss **meal frequency** for age. During recovery, aim for at least 4 meals plus healthy snacks.
- Remind her about **breastfeeding and RUTF** whenever the child has appetite
- Encourage them and praise their progress.

HOW LONG SHOULD THE FEEDING PLAN BE MONITORED?

- The time to recovery of a SAM case is an average of 8 weeks, until the child fully recovers the weight and is growing well.
- The feeding plan, started once the child begins to resume eating normal foods, should be maintained for 2-3 months, or until the family feeding practices are being regularly sustained and the child has a normal weight for age.

PRIORITY HOUSEHOLDS

- All homes with current or previous SAM cases should be considered 'priority homes' under the vulnerability assessment, if they are not already, especially where underlying food security or feeding practices are identified. This means that they will go on the have routine home visits every 3 months, in which all children are screened using MUAC.

Developing and monitoring a feeding plan

Food diary
Name: _____ Date started: _____ Week number: _____

Day	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4	Group 5	Group 6
1	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 icons	10 icons
2	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 icons	10 icons
3	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 icons	10 icons
4	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 icons	10 icons
5	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 icons	10 icons
6	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 icons	10 icons
7	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 icons	10 icons

mother/father to circle which foods, from each group, they have available.

mother/father to put 1 mark for each sachet of RUTF finished.

mother/father to mark one symbol for each breastfeed

Mother/father to mark one bowl for each meal which contained the food from this food group that the child ate most or all of

Food diary
Name: *Fatima Amwafo* Date started: *18/8/15* Week number: *5*

Day	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4	Group 5	Group 6
1	10 bowls (2 circled, 2 crossed out)	10 bowls (2 circled, 2 crossed out)	10 bowls (2 circled, 2 crossed out)	10 bowls (2 circled, 2 crossed out)	10 icons (2 circled, 2 crossed out)	10 icons (2 circled, 2 crossed out)
2	10 bowls (2 circled, 2 crossed out)	10 bowls (2 circled, 2 crossed out)	10 bowls (2 circled, 2 crossed out)	10 bowls (2 circled, 2 crossed out)	10 icons (2 circled, 2 crossed out)	10 icons (2 circled, 2 crossed out)
3	10 bowls (2 circled, 2 crossed out)	10 bowls (2 circled, 2 crossed out)	10 bowls (2 circled, 2 crossed out)	10 bowls (2 circled, 2 crossed out)	10 icons (2 circled, 2 crossed out)	10 icons (2 circled, 2 crossed out)
4	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 icons	10 icons
5	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 icons	10 icons
6	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 icons	10 icons
7	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 bowls	10 icons	10 icons

Questions

1. Which high-energy foods (fats, nuts and oils) did the Amwafo family have available to them?	
2. Which protective foods (fruit and vegetables) did they have access to?	
3. Which body-building foods (protein-rich foods) did the family have access to?	
4. On the 1 st day how many meals did the child eat most/all of that contained protective foods?	
5. On the 2 nd day how many meals did the child eat most or all of which contained rice?	
6. How many breastfeeds did the child have on day 1?	
7. How many RUTF sachets has the child eaten so far this week in total?	

CONDUCTING WEEKLY FOLLOW-UP

Meet and Greet	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain the purpose of your visit • Ask if other caregivers are able to join • Greet the mother and ask her how is, and how the child is doing.
Danger signs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Has the child suffered any illness since your last visit? If yes, assess according to the manner you have been trained: • Has the child had danger signs? • Does the child have diarrhoea? • Does the child have fever or cough? • Look for visible severe wasting of the arms, legs and buttocks. • Look for palmar pallor. Is it: Severe palmar pallor? Some palmar pallor? • Look for oedema of both feet. • If the mother reports diarrhoea, fever or cough, check the child for danger signs.
Weight gain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Check the growth curve • How far below the healthy zone was the child at the last reading? • For how long has the child been at a low weight for age? • What is the trend of the line? • Ask the mother if the child is gaining weight • Weigh the child/check the MUAC for wasting
Feeding (improved)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Has the child been feeding well according to the guidelines given? • How do you feed the child? • What foods are you giving: preparation, balance of nutrients? • What meal frequency? Is the child eating – some/most/all?

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Check the food plan (if completed) and review progress against the agreed • Check breastfeeding
Complete the home-based care register	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Medicines being given • OPC clinic – missed appointment? • Completed the register
Counsel the caregiver on care of the malnourished child	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Breastfeeding • Warmth • Hygiene • Love, play and communication with the SAM child

Key messages

- Following stabilisation, the child with SAM will need special support in the home to ensure that the family adopts improved feeding practices, the child attends follow-up and growth monitoring and promotion, the child is gaining weight and does not have any danger signs.
- The CHW should conduct a “root cause assessment” to identify in the home any contributing factors or “root causes” that may have contributed to the malnutrition and ensure that they are addressed with the key family stakeholders.
- After 4-6 weeks or as advised by the CHO, the CHW can support the family to develop the feeding plan, which they will monitor on a weekly basis. It is not appropriate to initiate the feeding plan whilst the predominant feeding plan is RUTF and breastmilk, this may confuse the family.
- The purpose of the feeding plan and diary is to promote and monitor *dietary diversity*, discussing options the family have for each food group, *meal frequency*, *breastfeeding* and *RUTF consumption*.
- The feeding plan, started once the child begins to resume eating normal foods, should be maintained for 2-3 months, or until the family feeding practices are being regularly sustained and the child has a normal weight for age.
- All homes with current or previous SAM cases should be considered ‘priority homes’ under the vulnerability assessment, if they are not already, especially where underlying food security or feeding practices are identified. This means that they will go on the have routine home visits every 3 months, in which all children are screened using MUAC.

Notes:

Session 4.1: HIV: Transmission and Disease Progression

Session Objectives	<p><i>By the end of this unit participants will be able to:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain the concepts of HIV and AIDS • List and explain how HIV is transmitted and spread • Explain the progression of HIV infection to AIDS • List and explain the danger signs of HIV infection and AIDS • Discuss the role of the CHW in the prevention of HIV transmission
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HIV AND AIDS

HIV stands for **H**uman **I**mmunodeficiency **V**irus. HIV attacks the body's immune system and slowly weakens the body's defence against infections and illnesses like tuberculosis. A person with HIV is positive for life and can infect others. It is preventable and treatable, but it is still incurable. If HIV is left untreated, it can develop into a serious illness called **A**cquired **I**mmune **D**eficiency **S**yndrome or AIDS. HIV is transmitted through body fluids like, blood, semen, vaginal fluid and breast milk.

TRANSMISSION OF HIV

HIV/AIDS can be transmitted through:	HIV is not transmitted through:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sexual intercourse (80% of all cases). • Transfusion with infected blood (<1%). • Mother-to-infant transmission during pregnancy, labour and delivery and breastfeeding. . • Infection with contaminated needles and syringes. • Use of non-sterile piercing/tattoo instruments. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Everyday contact. • Hugging and kissing. • Sharing food or drink. • Bites of mosquitoes, bed bugs, or other insects. • Shaking hands. • Crying, sneezing, and coughing. • Sitting next to an HIV-positive person. • Sharing combs, sheets, towels, or clothes. • Sharing toilets or latrines.

Progression of HIV infection to AIDS

STORY IN ACTION: PAAKOR'S STORY

Paakor was an energetic and highly motivated young man in Adensu village. He completed his SHS and decided to join a friend in the neighbouring country. He was away for several years. He returned one day and was welcomed by the family and friends. He set up a small business centre, and things went well to start with, but he began to have repeated 'cold-sores' on his mouth, and had frequent bouts of diarrhoea. He thought this was because he wasn't used to the food around here and so he did nothing about it. After some time, he became more seriously ill. He had frequent bouts of diarrhoea, and a cough, and was losing weight quickly. Then he began coughing up blood in his sputum, and he called a friend to take him to the hospital. The hospital discovered that he had TB infection, and they recommended a test for HIV. It was confirmed he was HIV-positive and has developed AIDS.

Discussion questions:

- How will you explain the development of the conditions in Paakor?
- Why did Paakor not know that he was HIV-positive?
- How does the HIV infection progress to the AIDS stage?
- What can be done to possibly prevent HIV infection progressing to AIDS?

HIV INFECTION AND DISEASE PROGRESSION

Loss of immunity

The body is equipped with an IMMUNE system – this is made up of processes and cells which respond to attacks by germs. The HIV infects the cells in the immune system, and damages the immune system itself, leaving the body less able to fight off common infections. When an HIV-infected person begins to experience signs of recurrent infections, this can be a sign that they are developing AIDS.

Awareness of status

Some people, when they first contract the HIV, will not experience any symptoms, whilst others experience signs of illness, including headaches, fever or rash. These symptoms are associated with many illnesses and therefore it is impossible to know if you have HIV without doing a test.

Progression to AIDS

People can live with HIV virus in their bodies for many years and not experience any signs of AIDS or frequent infections, as the body is able to fight against the virus and control the disease.

Over time, the body's immune system will become overwhelmed by HIV and gradually the person will be less and less able to control diseases and fight off infections, and they move into the AIDS stage (the end stage of the HIV infection).

Early identification of HIV infection is important. This is achieved through counselling and testing. People should be counselled on the need to know their status. When they are negative they should endeavour to stay negative. When they are positive and eligible they get treatment with antiretroviral drugs (ARTs). They should also endeavour to comply with the treatment.

HIV and TB co-infections

HIV and TB often go together and hence it is important to test for both illnesses. Community members must be counselled and educated on the importance of testing for both HIV and TB. This allow for treatment to be started early and prevent complications. The CHW plays important roles in counselling community member on these conditions, encouraging them to be tested, providing emotional support to clients and family and contribute to defaulter tracing.

SIGNS AND SYMPTOMS OF AIDS

When HIV infection progresses to AIDS, the following are seen:

Major signs	Minor signs
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rapid weight loss greater than 10% of body weight. • Chronic diarrhoea (more than a month). • Prolonged fever (more than a month). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Persistent cough (more than a month). • Generalized skin rashes. • History of herpes zoster ('ananse'/ shingles). • Frequent severe sore throat attacks. • Continuous and progressive herpes simplex infection. • Persistent generalized and painful swelling in the neck, under the jaws and in the groins.

Test your knowledge

Question	Answer
Name two ways that a mother can pass HIV infection to her baby.	
Name two ways a person might become infected in a healthcare setting	
What proportion of HIV infections are transmitted by unprotected sexual intercourse?	
What other disease might someone being tested for HIV also be tested for and why?	
Name three major signs of AIDS that a person living with HIV might experience	
Name three minor signs of AIDS that a person living with HIV might experience	

Key Messages

- HIV stands for Human Immunodeficiency Virus. It is a condition that is mostly spread through unprotected sexual intercourse (contact) with an infected person. It could also be spread through other means.
- AIDS is the end stage of HIV infection. When the infection is not identified and managed well HIV infection progress to AIDS. In this state the body defences are lost and common diseases set in and may quickly lead to death.
- HIV and TB often go together and hence it is important to test for both illnesses.

Session 4.2: Supporting positive living

Session Objectives

By the end of this unit participants will be able to:

- Explain the need for confidentiality
- Describe aspects of positive living for PLHIVs
- Describe the role of CHWs in helping PLHIVs live positively
- Describe home care for minor ailments and follow-up care for PLHIVs

Living positively with HIV

CASE STUDY

When the CHW MrTongo visited Baba Moro Atinga's compound, he found that Baba's 30-year old daughter, Tene, was brought from her marital home sick. She complained of headaches, persistent weight loss, and persistent cough. She and her family believed that the husband's first wife was bewitching her. Mr Tongo referred her to the CHO, who took her to the health centre where after several investigations, it was revealed that she was HIV-positive. Tene let her household members know of the diagnosis and also Mr. Tongo, the CHW. Nevertheless, Tene and her family still believed her rival was behind it all. As such, Tene and the family, including the husband are not taking preventive measures to control the spread of the infection. The family has not accepted the fact that Tene is HIV-positive, and hence are not providing her the appropriate home care or medication.

Discussion questions:

1. How did the CHW learn the HIV status of Tene?
2. What can the CHW do to help Tene, her husband and her household accept the fact that she is HIV-positive?
3. How can the CHW get the husband and his other sexual partners get tested?
4. What preventive measures should Tene take to prevent spreading the virus to her husband?
5. What preventive measures should Tene take to prevent spreading the virus to other members of the household?

HIV STATUS – CONFIDENTIALITY AND DISCLOSURE

During the course of their work in communities, CHWs would often counsel and refer individuals for HIV testing, such as persons who confide in them about symptoms of an STI and pregnant women counselled to go for ANC. However, it is important that CHWs do not ask to know the result of the HIV testing. It is up to the person (or caregiver, in the case of a child) to disclose the HIV status to the CHW. The CHW would never be asked to report on the results of HIV testing of individuals in his or her community. The CHW might also get to know of a person's HIV-positive status with the client's consent from the health centre, for the purpose of providing home-based care.

When the CHW comes to know of a person's HIV status, it is important to keep this information confidential, and not disclose it to anyone. Legal action can be taken against the CHW in the course of his/her work when confidentiality is broken. The counsellor at the HIV centre would help the person decide to whom the status must be disclosed.

LIVING WITH HIV: ACCEPTANCE

HIV infection is a chronic illness. With the advent of potent anti-retroviral (ARV) drugs, PLHIVs can expect to live a normal lifespan, if they learn to understand and deal with their condition, taking care of their overall health and wellbeing. As with any chronic illness, they need the help, support and care of the immediate family and community.

An important first step is for the person and the family to accept the HIV status of the person concerned. If the infected person or family members disclose the status to the CHW, the CHW must counsel the family to accept the status and learn to live positively and to adopt measures to prevent further spread of the infection. The CHW must use the counselling skills learnt in Module 1. If these fail, the CHW must bring this to the attention of the HIV counsellors at the centre where the person is being treated.

LIVING WITH HIV: PREVENTIVE MEASURES

The overall purpose of preventive measures is to prevent new infections and re-infection (of the one who is already positive, by another "strain" or type of the virus).

It is important for the spouse and other sexual partners, if any, of the HIV-positive person to get tested for HIV.

If the couple are HIV-discordant (that is, one of them is HIV-positive and the other negative), it is important for them to use condoms consistently and correctly. This will also protect the HIV-positive person from acquiring STIs.

The HIV-positive person needs to take the following **preventive measures with all household members**, including the spouse:

- Not share blades, razors and other sharp objects; and not to share toothbrush.
- HIV-positive girls who have their menses should burn the material used for menstrual hygiene. Those who use rags should soak them in household bleach (chlorine/parazone) before washing them (buy household bleach from recognised shops).
- Bath floors or baths and toilets should be disinfected with concentrated household bleach after bathing. Toilets and baths can be shared.

- Household bleach should be used to disinfect articles soiled with body fluids e.g. blood, vomit, faeces. Clothes and utensils that have come in contact with the person's body fluids can be boiled or soaked in disinfectant.
- Open wounds and cuts should be dressed and covered with plaster.

There is no risk of infection from sharing cups, plates and other household items where there is no contact with blood. Infected persons can eat together at the table with uninfected friends and family members without risk of transmitting the virus to them. However, if this client has other infections such as Tuberculosis (TB), precautions that will be taken for a TB patient should apply.

AIDS patients who suffer badly from fever, diarrhoea and pain may need to be cared for in a medical institution for a period of time.

Those being treated in a facility are likely to be sent home at the earliest because families can better respond to the social and psychological needs of their sick member

LIVING WITH HIV: EMOTIONAL AND MARITAL HEALTH

Emotional health of the infected person:

The PLHIV needs time and help to deal with these feelings. A PLHIV may know that he/she has the AIDS disease once a diagnosis is made. This can cause fear, anxiety and anger. He/she needs somebody who is prepared to listen and support him/her. He needs to be encouraged to continue to live and take part in daily activities as much as possible. Relatives of PLHIV need to remember that they need physical and psychological closeness, and support just as anyone else and even more. The CHW could arrange for the person to obtain counselling help and reassurance from a pastor or counsellor if necessary.

Relationship with spouse/partner:

A discovery of infection with HIV or a diagnosis of AIDS can create severe stress in intimate relationships. It can result in suspicion that a spouse has been unfaithful and has also put the other spouses at risk of acquiring HIV infection. This could result in anger that could lead to immediate separation and future divorce.

Some HIV-negative spouses may want to stay in the marriage to take care of the children and the infected partner. But this does not mean any emotional distress has been resolved. Unresolved anger may lead to outbursts of rage against the infected spouse or such outbursts may be misplaced on children and/or other family members. Spouses who agree to stay together need to decide if sexual relations will continue, agree on practising safer sex and whether to trust each other again. The counsellor at the clinic will work with spouses to deal with their feelings and practical details of their lives together.

LIVING WITH HIV: HEALTHY EATING

Nutritional needs of PLHIVs are determined by physical need (pregnant and lactating women, children and adolescents have higher requirements), level of physical exercise, the stage of HIV and the presence of other infections. PLHIVs need to eat healthy meals in order to keep up the body's ability to fight infections. Generally, PLHIVs require 10-30% more energy than HIV-negative persons.

- Poor nutrition speeds up the progression of HIV to AIDS. Nausea or vomiting caused by medication, and oral thrush limit the ability of the PLHIV to consume wholesome meals.
- PLHIVs need to eat from all food groups, and make sure to eat protective foods (fruits and vegetables) with every meal.
- Good hygiene such as handwashing should be practiced; raw and undercooked foods should be avoided. Cooked food should be kept covered and water treated in the home. The household should have a refuse disposal facility.
- Any specific food advice given at the health facility should also be followed.

LIVING WITH HIV: SOCIAL AND COMMUNITY SUPPORT

Insufficient quantity and diversity of food in the home, reduced ability to work and earn a regular income, discrimination against the PLHIV by household members, and gender inequalities in food distribution in the household are other more fundamental factors that will affect the food intake and wellbeing of a PLHIV.

The PLHIV may be a single parent, with the responsibility of caring and providing for children, one or more of whom could be HIV-positive. Stigma and discrimination associated with the illness limits their ability to find work, or other means of sustenance.

It is important that such individuals and households be linked with local institutions and government schemes related to livelihoods and food security.

It is important to remember that this support must not come at the cost of violating confidentiality.

PLHIVS' RIGHTS AND RESPONSIBILITIES

PLHIVs have rights just as any person. They have the right to health care, privacy, confidentiality, information and security, that should be respected by health care providers, family and the community members.

They also have a responsibility to their neighbours by behaving in ways that will not transmit the virus to others. For example, using condoms during sexual intercourse and not sharing instruments that have come in contact with their body fluids with others.

Case 1: Recent diagnosis in good health

A young woman of 20 split from her boyfriend after discovering he was unfaithful to her. She went for HIV testing and found out that she was HIV-positive. She is highly distressed and turns to the CHW for advice and support.

Case 2: Sero-discordant couple

A recently married couple go together to test for HIV. During the tests, they find out that the man is HIV-positive and the woman is not.

Case 3: Recent diagnosis of AIDS and initiation of treatment

A person has recently started on ART medicines and is recovering from a prolonged episode of ill health including weight loss and diarrhoea. Support them to adopt health eating habits.

SYMPTOMATIC TREATMENT IN THE HOME

Diarrhoea It is a common symptom, especially among children. As with other diarrhoeas, it is important to prevent dehydration. They can do this by taking oral rehydration solution, and available home fluids, like porridge, and rice water.

Oral Thrush This is a common infection in PLHIVs. Gentian violet paint can be used after rinsing the mouth with mineral water.

Herpes zoster (or shingles) It is useful to give paracetamol or aspirin to relieve pain. It is important not to use herbs or other preparations.

Fever This can be managed with fluids, tepid sponging and aspirin or paracetamol.

Non-specific itching and pain Anti-histamines can relieve itching along with pain killers.

ROLE OF CHWS IN CARING FOR PLHIVS

CHWs can provide home care and counselling for HIV-positive people and their households.

WHAT SUPPORT CAN BE GIVEN?

- *Maintain confidentiality:* The CHW must honour the trust that the PLHIV and the household placed on him/her and not disclose HIV status to anyone not associated with the person's care.
- *Communicate effectively and counsel:* The PLHIV and his/her household need counselling support at every stage of the illness, from the time they hear the diagnosis. Counselling would cover a range of issues including accepting the diagnosis, dealing with emotional and marital issues, adopting a range of new practices such as preventive measures and healthy eating, dealing with stigma.
- Refer to the health facility when required.
- Provide home-based care and post-referral follow-up.
- Work with the community to address stigma and discrimination (against those living openly with HIV). We will learn more about it in the next session.
- Link PLHIVs and their supporters with earning opportunities and government and NGO support.

WHEN TO OFFER SUPPORT

There are several opportunities within the CHW’s services wherein this support can be provided:

- During routine and priority household visits – assess preventive measures, healthy eating, emotional health, marital issues etc.
- Home-based care for minor illnesses as well as for follow-up after treatment at a health facility
- Referral for major illnesses/danger signs
- Work with the CHMC to address stigma and discrimination

HOME-BASED CARE FOR PLHIVS

The CHW must visit PLHIVs in their homes at least once a month (in addition to the routine household visits). During these visits, the CHW would:

- Assess adherence to ARVs and other medication given at the health facility and help the PLHIV manage minor side-effects of the medication
- Assess the diet of the PLHIV and counsel accordingly
- Assess the preventive measures that the PLHIV is taking with regard to sexual relations as well as general preventive measures around the house
- Enquire about the emotional well-being and address any relationship issues
- Assess the food and income situation of the home and help link the family with local resources

Key messages

- The CHW must maintain confidentiality regarding any person’s HIV status and not disclose to anyone not involved in the care of such people
- Living positively includes – accepting the diagnosis, taking preventive measures in the household, taking preventive measures in sexual relationships to avoid infecting others and being re-infected and healthy eating
- PLHIVs have rights and responsibilities like any other citizen
- PLHIVs require social and community support to ensure food and income security
- CHWs can provide home-based care, provide counselling for positive living and refer when needed

Notes:

Session 4.3: Addressing stigma and discrimination

Session Objectives

By the end of this unit participants will be able to:

- Explain the concepts stigma and discrimination
- Describe the causes and effects of stigma and discrimination against PLHIVs
- Explain how to minimise the effects of stigma in HIV infection and AIDS
- Discuss the role of the CHW in minimising stigma,

STIGMA AND DISCRIMINATION

Stigma is a discrediting attitude that a person or community have against a person or a group of persons with a physical characteristic or an illness, reducing their status and standing in society.

To stigmatize is to think badly about people or treat them badly because of a condition they have. Stigma has many forms: thoughts, comments, gossip, name calling, actions, and exclusion. It causes people to feel rejected, isolated, alone, guilty, or ashamed. Stigma can be obvious or subtle.

Stigma can delay diagnosis, keep infected people from taking preventive measures and not seek timely care. Stigma also keeps the infected person from seeking economic or livelihoods support.

Self-stigma is a discrediting attitude a person has towards themselves because of illness or a physical feature.

WHAT IS DISCRIMINATION?

Discrimination is stigma in action. Stigma often leads to discrimination, which happens when distinction is made against a person that results in him or her being treated unfairly or unjustly on the basis of his or her health condition or a perception that he or she belongs to a particular group. Stigma related to TB, HIV, and AIDS is intimately linked to discrimination.

Stigma and discrimination associated with TB and HIV are among the greatest barriers to preventing further infections and providing adequate care, support, and treatment.

WHY STIGMA?

Why are people with AIDS or HIV infection discriminated against or stigmatised in our communities?

- This is mainly due to commonly held attitudes on sexuality. Since HIV is mainly sexually transmitted and those with multiple sexual partners are at a higher risk, anybody who becomes infected is seen as immoral and promiscuous. This leads to negative attitudes.
- The misconception that one can become infected through casual contact with a PLHIV can result in the community rejecting and isolating the sick person.
- c. Many households in Ghana are communal, and share bathrooms, kitchen and compounds. The fear of contamination can, therefore, lead to the PLHIV being ejected from a house. Counselling of individual households and general education in the community will help in changing such negative attitudes that result mainly from ignorance.

HOW CAN CHWs ADDRESS STIGMA AND DISCRIMINATION?

Improve awareness in the community about the modes of transmission of HIV. Correct misinformation and myths that sustain stigma. The CHW needs to work with the CHO and CHMC

Session 4.4: HIV Infection in Children and Young People

Session Objectives

By the end of this session, participants will be able to:

- Explain the concept of PMTCT
- Discuss the care of children with HIV
- Discuss the special needs of families with HIV
- Discuss the special needs of caregivers of HIV-positive children

PMTCT IN THE COMMUNITY

The HIV-positive mother can transmit the HIV to her baby during pregnancy, during labour and delivery and through breastfeeding. With the coming of new and potent ARVs, it is now possible to even eliminate mother-to-child transmission of HIV. PMTCT is prevention of mother-to-child transmission of HIV

Although key PMTCT interventions happen in health facilities, several **interventions in the community** contribute to PMTCT and ensure that communities utilise these services appropriately:

- Help prevent HIV among girls and women in the first place. This is also called primary prevention of HIV. This includes the full range of preventive actions that we learnt in Module 1, Unit 6: delaying sexual debut, abstinence, limiting sex partners, consistent and correct use of condoms, and prompt treatment of STIs in the women and their partners.
- Help prevent unplanned pregnancies, by helping families discuss and determine what family planning methods suit them and helping them access the service
- Help HIV-positive pregnant women prevent transmitting the infection to the baby, by promoting HIV testing for all pregnant women and their partners, condom use during pregnancy and exclusive breastfeeding, promote delivering in a health facility and counsel and promote exclusive breastfeeding
- Provide support and care for mothers living with HIV through home-based care, ensuring adherence to ARV treatment, follow-up care at the facility for the mother and the baby and follow-up care at home and promoting household hygiene and sanitation and healthy eating.

SPECIAL NEEDS OF CHILDREN WITH HIV

- All the matters discussed in earlier chapters about caring for PLHIVs apply to children also. In addition to those, children require additional care.
- Children with HIV require high-energy, high-protein meals, so that they grow as well as HIV-negative children, to the extent possible.
- They also need special care and follow-up for adhering to medication.
- Caregivers, health workers and CHWs must help them understand HIV infection in an age-appropriate way and help them deal with anger, guilt and bitterness, especially towards parents.
- As they grow into adolescence, they will need additional help and support to deal with their sexuality, peer pressure and relationships.
- It is also important that a child's HIV status is kept confidential.

FAMILIES WITH HIV

Families provide the 'first-line' response for protecting, caring for and supporting children infected with or affected by HIV. Families and relatives absorb almost all the costs involved in caring for these children. Families are the best source of the loving care, protection and support that children need. Mothers, fathers

or other primary caregivers infected with HIV need support to live longer. Prolonging their lives and keeping them healthy helps to keep a family together.

Parents living with HIV should make sure that each of their children has a birth certificate. Parents should make a will to establish 1) who will be the guardians of their children and 2) if they have money land or livestock how these assets will be distributed. If the children are old enough to understand, they should be involved in these deliberations with their parents.

As part of the social welfare services, health-care providers should make sure that HIV-positive children and adults from the same family can obtain treatment and support in the same health facility. This helps conserve the family's time, energy and resources.

Social welfare services, with support from community and non-governmental and faith-based organizations, should help parents and other caregivers develop the skills needed to care for children infected with or affected by HIV.

CAREGIVERS OF HIV-POSITIVE CHILDREN

The majority of children who have lost one or both parents are living in families that are often stretched economically and in need of support. Caregivers tend to be female, including some who are children themselves and many who are elderly, such as grandmothers.

Partnerships involving the government and community or non-governmental or faith-based organizations can provide support to improve the economic situation of families affected by HIV. Support might include access to microcredit, low-interest bank loans and social grants.

CHWs can help these caregivers understand guidelines and instructions on how to access income support, such as social grants, and social welfare services. CHWs can help fill out the necessary forms. Information provided by families when applying for social grants and services should be kept confidential.

HIV-NEGATIVE CAREGIVERS CARING FOR AN HIV-POSITIVE CHILD

If the child is HIV-positive, the caregivers need help to:

- Learn about the HIV infection
- Know how to care for and support the child, including ensuring adherence to an ART regimen
- Reduce their fear of contracting HIV from the child
- Know how to protect themselves when caring for the child
- Understand and respond to the emotional needs of the child.

A child who has lost a parent, other caregiver or sibling because of AIDS needs psychosocial support from his or her family and possibly counselling to work through the trauma and grief. A parent or other caregiver may need support to understand the stages of a child's grief relative to his or her age, as well as appropriate psychosocial responses.

Key messages

- Community-based PMTCT includes activities that help girls and women prevent acquiring HIV, have access to diagnostic and curative services, and help prevent transmitting the infection to their babies.
- Children with HIV need special attention to healthy eating and help in dealing with emotional stress. When they enter adolescence they need support to deal with their sexuality and relationships

Session 4.5: Follow-up care for TB treatment

Session Objectives

By the end of this session, participants will be able to:

- Explain the basics about Tuberculosis (TB) and its management
- Explain relationship between TB and HIV
- Explain the side-effects of TB drugs and the importance of treatment adherence
- Explain specific issues related to TB in children
- Describe treatment default and defaulter tracing
- Discuss the follow-up care for TB treatment
- Discuss the role of the CHW in the follow-up care for TB treatment

TUBERCULOSIS - BASICS

Tuberculosis (TB) is a chronic infectious disease caused by bacteria known as *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. Tuberculosis disease mostly affects the lungs, though other parts of the body such as bones, kidneys and lymph glands can be infected.

Being infected with TB does not necessarily mean *having TB disease*. Almost everyone living in developing countries harbour the organism but do not have the disease. Progression to TB disease happens in the presence of malnutrition, other chronic illness (especially HIV and diabetes), in the very young and very old, alcoholism and smoking, poor living conditions such as overcrowding and poorly ventilated homes. Low socio-economic status is closely associated with TB illness.

The most common form of TB occurs in the lungs. It is called **pulmonary TB** and this is the only form of TB that is infectious. It spreads through droplets created with the infected person coughs or sneezes. Anyone with a cough for 2 weeks should go to a health facility to get a sputum test.

Other forms of TB such as in the glands, kidneys and bone are called **extra-pulmonary TB** and they require tests depending on the site of infection.

TB and HIV: TB is the most common infection in HIV-positive persons. HIV-positive people are about 30 times more likely to develop TB disease than others. This is called TB-HIV coinfection. All HIV-positive persons are tested for TB and vice versa, in HIV and TB treatment facilities. It is very important for HIV-positive persons with TB to complete the course of treatment as TB infection can worsen quickly in the HIV-positive person.

Childhood TB: TB infection often progresses to TB disease in young children. Children often get the infection from a family member or other close contacts that have pulmonary TB. All children who are in contact with a TB patient must be screened for TB. BCG vaccination in newborns protects children from severe forms of the disease. TB often presents in children as failure to gain weight, or loss of weight. Fever and persistent cough are less common. Regular and accurate weighing of children is the most important means to diagnosing TB in children. Children can also have extra-pulmonary TB.

Myths and misconceptions about TB: There are several **misconceptions** regarding how TB spreads which need to be addressed through community work. TB is not hereditary (does not run in the family),

and does not spread through sexual contact, or from a mother to her baby. TB is not brought about by witchcraft or breaking taboos.

MANAGEMENT OF TB

Testing sputum for the TB organism is the definitive way to diagnose lung TB. The other, less common forms of TB have specific tests. Children with suspected TB who have cough and can produce sputum, should take a sputum test. For extra pulmonary TB, the diagnosis will be based on tests that depend upon the site of infection.

There are effective drugs to cure TB, and these are given in combinations for the prescribed length of time. TB treatment usually lasts 6 months and occurs in two phases: two months of an intensive phase followed by four months of a continuation phase. Drug dosages are calculated based on the patient's weight and varies from one patient to another. In cases of retreatment (for relapse and those returning after default) treatment includes injections and lasts a total of 8 months.

SIDE-EFFECTS OF TB DRUGS AND ADHERENCE TO TREATMENT

TB treatment often causes minor side-effects such as nausea, vomiting, skin rash, and body aches. One of the anti-TB drugs turns the urine red, which is normal. Minor side-effects can be managed at home and the patient needs to be reassured, and encouraged not to give up the treatment.

Patients often give up the treatment course when they begin to feel better, after about 2 months of treatment. It is very important that they complete the course to be fully cured of the infection.

Occasionally TB drugs cause major side-effects such as jaundice, vision problems and severe and generalised skin eruptions. These can be life threatening and the patient should be referred immediately to the TB treatment centre.

HIV-positive persons with TB are at risk of discontinuing medication because of the large number of pills they have to take, and of possible interactions between the different drugs. Therefore these patients need to be closely followed up to ensure that they complete the TB treatment course.

SCREENING CHILD CONTACTS

It is critical that all children who are in close contact with a person with pulmonary TB be screened for possible TB infection.

DIRECTLY OBSERVED TREATMENT

It is very important that TB patients complete the treatment course. Completion of the TB treatment course will ensure that the patient is cured and is no longer transmitting the infection. It also ensures that the infection will not progress to TB disease again (relapse). Completing the course of treatment also prevents the development of resistance to TB drugs.

The government uses the Directly Observed Treatment (DOT) strategy to ensure that TB patients complete the course of treatment. In this strategy, the patient takes TB drugs in the presence of a treatment supporter. A family member, the CHW, or other community members such as the local school teacher, or the patient's employer could function as DOT providers.

The treatment supporter is not merely observe the intake of medication, but gives encouragement and moral support for the patient to complete the treatment course.

TREATMENT DEFAULT

A TB treatment defaulter is any patient who misses scheduled appointments twice during the intensive treatment phase (the first 2 months) or misses the second month's scheduled appointment during continuation. Some of the reasons why TB patients default are:

- Long distance to the treatment centre.
- Long duration of treatment. These two reasons often lead to the patient missing out on work, and hence the wages. This can be especially disadvantageous for daily-wage labourers.
- Large number of tablets required for treatment (pill burden).
- Minor side-effects of TB drugs which can cause discomfort, discouragement as well as wage loss.
- Not knowing and understanding the need to complete the treatment course
- Lack of support from community, family, and friends.
- Negative attitude of clinic staff towards patients.

Defaulter tracing of TB patient is the process of identifying and locating patients who have stopped collecting or taking TB medication. Defaulter tracing helps return the patient to treatment, and contributes to the completion of treatment course. It thus helps reduce the spread of TB and the risk of dying from TB. By helping patients complete the treatment course, it helps reduce the risk of development of resistance to TB drugs.

Community health workers, volunteers and CHMC members can all participate in defaulter tracing.

Defaulter tracing process: The CHW can help in this process either during routine checks during home-based care visits or routine household visits. Staff at the TB treatment centre may contact the CHW to help them trace the defaulting patient, based on the details of the patient available at the facility.

A key role of the CHW is to work with the patient and the family to identify the root cause for the default, and identifying workable solutions to the issues.

Barriers to diagnosis and treatment

Case study	Root causes or barriers	Potential solutions
Group 1: 32-year old daily-wage labourer has had cough for a month now but has not gone for TB testing even after the CHW had counselled him to do so.		
Group 2: A 40-year old woman has been on TB treatment for 10 days now. When the CHW visits her home, the woman says she has not taken her drugs for over a week. <i>(Note: the obvious reason is a minor side effect, but go beyond that to understand why the side effect led her to stop taking the drugs)</i>		
Group 3: A 65-year old male farm worker has been on TB medicines for 2 months now. He has		

<p>gained weight and his appetite has returned. He has now decided to stop taking the medication. He is living alone, and financial circumstances make it difficult for him to travel.</p>		
<p>Group 4: A 25-year old mother of two children (aged 7 and 3 years respectively) has been diagnosed with TB and is taking medicines regularly. The CHW finds out that her 2 children have not been screened for TB.</p>		

HOW CAN CHWs SUPPORT TB MANAGEMENT

- CHW's role in managing TB in the community is to support patients' treatment through follow-up visits, encouraging and helping patients and their families overcome any barriers to completing the treatment. CHWs also need to remind patients about follow-up sputum examinations at the 2nd, 5th and 8th month of treatment. These are part of the home-based care service of the CHW.
- Occasionally the CHW can also function as the DOT treatment supporter to one or more patients. This will depend on the CHW's work load at the time.
- The CHW would refer the patient if there are any serious side-effects of medications, or if there are other danger signs during the course of treatment.
- As the CHW is familiar with households, he or she is in the best position to identify any children in close contact with a TB patient, and refer them for further screening for TB.
- The CHW has important role to play in tracing defaulters, identifying root causes for the default, referring them back to the TB treatment centre to continue with the treatment as prescribed.
- The indirect role of the CHW in TB care and control is to ensure that all children under five years are regularly weighed and those who are not gaining weight or who are losing weight are evaluated at the health centre, as TB may be an underlying factor.

Key messages

- The most common form of TB occurs in the lungs. It is called **pulmonary TB** and this is the only form of TB that is infectious. It spreads through droplets made when an infected person coughs or sneezes. Anyone with a cough for 2 weeks or more should have a sputum test for TB at a facility.
- TB is the most common infection in HIV-positive persons. HIV-positive people are about 30 times more likely to develop TB disease than others. This is called TB-HIV coinfection. All HIV-positive persons are tested for TB and vice versa, in HIV and TB treatment facilities.
- There are effective drugs to cure TB. They are given in combinations and need to be taken for the prescribed length of time. TB treatment usually lasts 6 months. It is very important that TB patients complete the treatment course. Completion of the TB treatment course will ensure that the patient is cured and is no longer transmitting the infection. It also ensures that the infection will not progress to TB disease again (relapse). Completing the course of treatment also prevents the development of resistance to TB drugs.
- Minor side-effects can be managed at home and the patient needs to be reassured, and encouraged not to give up the treatment. Major side-effects must be treated in a health centre.

Session 4.6: Long-term community support for chronic illness

Session Objectives

By the end of this session, participants will be able to:

- List conditions for which the CHW would provide follow-up care
- Describe the counter referral form and the home-based care register
- Correctly fill the home-based care register

FOLLOW-UP CARE BY THE CHW

CHWs can provide follow-up care in the community for a range of conditions, which we have learnt about in Module 2. These include short-term (acute) and long-term (chronic) conditions.

Short-term conditions may include:

- Children returning from facility treatment for a serious illness such as pneumonia or malaria or severe diarrhoea
- Children with uncomplicated SAM completing their OPC treatment
- Children with complicated SAM returning after completing in-patient treatment
- Pregnant or post-partum women who have to be on medication for a longer period such as those with high blood pressure.

Medium to long-term conditions may include:

- Persons on TB medication
- HIV-positive persons
- Persons on treatment for chronic conditions such as diabetes and high blood pressure.
- Pregnant mothers taking treatment for pregnancy related conditions such as hypertension or diabetes in pregnancy.

Home-based follow-up care is critical for full and complete recovery from any form of illness. CHWs are best placed to provide that care because:

- They are familiar with the person's medical condition (through household visits)
- They are the ones who refer the person to the facility for care
- They are aware of the family's social condition and any constraints to continued care
- They live in the same community and are able to tailor the care they require and also watch out for situations that can compromise the recovery of the person
- They can link the family with locally available resources to ensure that the patient recovers well.

The **counter-referral form** sent from the facility helps the CHW understand the nature of continued care the person needs and what kinds of medication he or she is on.





The **home-based care register** helps the CHW keep track of those being given follow-up care.

THE COUNTER-REFERRAL FORM

- This is filled by the facility staff at the time of discharge of the patient or after the patient is seen as an out-patient. The form gives details of medication including dosage and duration, dietary restrictions, if any, and other precautions to take. It also gives the date for the next visit to the facility and what side-effects to watch out for.
- The counter-referral form is the reference point for the CHW to provide home-based care.































- The CHO at the CHPS compound may provide a counter-referral for any individual that they feel needs follow-up care in the community, which may include but is not limited to HIV, hypertension, diabetes, TB, malnutrition.
- The counter-referral form must be issued with the consent of the individual client, confirming that they are happy for the CHW to provide follow up support. The counter-referral form can be delivered by hand by the individual to the CHW, but also the CHW may collect the counter referral form during a follow-up visit when they have made a referral.

The counter-referral form

 <p>CHW Referral form</p> <p><small>Part completed by the CHW, kept by CHPS for reference</small></p>		Date of referral: ___/___/___	
		CHW name: _____	
		CHW Mob No.: _____	
Referring location: Circle location type		 Community <input type="checkbox"/>  CHPS compound <input type="checkbox"/>  Health centre <input type="checkbox"/>	
Patient name: Circle patient type		Facility discharging patient: Circle facility type	
Pregnant <input type="checkbox"/> Post-partum <input type="checkbox"/> Newborn <input type="checkbox"/> Child <input type="checkbox"/> Adolescent <input type="checkbox"/> Adult <input type="checkbox"/>		CHPS compound <input type="checkbox"/> Health centre <input type="checkbox"/> Hospital <input type="checkbox"/>	
Reason for referral		Conditions treated at facility	
Child 0-59 months <input type="checkbox"/> Pregnant/post-partum mother <input type="checkbox"/> Young person/ adults <input type="checkbox"/>		Child 0-59 months <input type="checkbox"/> Pregnant/post-partum mother <input type="checkbox"/> Young person/ adults <input type="checkbox"/>	
Medical history: Date of first symptoms: _____ Description of condition: _____		Medical history: Date of first symptoms: _____ Description of condition: _____	
Newborn danger signs <input type="checkbox"/> Suspected pregnancy <input type="checkbox"/> HIV test <input type="checkbox"/>		Newborn danger signs <input type="checkbox"/> Suspected pregnancy <input type="checkbox"/> HIV confirmed <input type="checkbox"/>	
Small baby <input type="checkbox"/> Fever in pregnancy <input type="checkbox"/> TB testing <input type="checkbox"/>		Small baby <input type="checkbox"/> Malaria <input type="checkbox"/> TB confirmed <input type="checkbox"/>	
Fever <input type="checkbox"/> Bleeding <input type="checkbox"/> Family planning <input type="checkbox"/>		Malaria <input type="checkbox"/> Miscarriage <input type="checkbox"/> Family planning <input type="checkbox"/>	
Cough with difficult breathing <input type="checkbox"/> Danger sign in pregnancy <input type="checkbox"/> Routine check-up <input type="checkbox"/>		ARI <input type="checkbox"/> Pregnancy condition <input type="checkbox"/> Routine check-up <input type="checkbox"/>	
Diarrhoea <input type="checkbox"/> Complication in labour <input type="checkbox"/> Other (describe) <input type="checkbox"/>		Diarrhoea <input type="checkbox"/> Complication in labour <input type="checkbox"/> Other (describe) <input type="checkbox"/>	
Malnutrition <input type="checkbox"/> Postpartum danger sign <input type="checkbox"/>		Malnutrition <input type="checkbox"/> Postpartum condition <input type="checkbox"/>	
Condition at departure		Condition on discharge	
Normal <input type="checkbox"/> Moderate <input type="checkbox"/> Severe <input type="checkbox"/> Critical <input type="checkbox"/>		Normal <input type="checkbox"/> Moderate <input type="checkbox"/> Severe <input type="checkbox"/> Critical <input type="checkbox"/>	
Prior treatments (community)		Instruction to CHW	
1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____		Date return to CHPS: _____ Return immediately if: _____ Follow-up: Visit patient _____ times per week/month for _____ days /months CHW to check in follow-up: _____ Signature: _____	
Next of Kin contact			

This side is completed by the CHO and given to the patient to return to the CHW – if, and only if, follow-up by the CHW is required. The form is torn in two, and one side retained by the CHO for monitoring purposes.

This side is completed by the CHW when referring a case to the CHPS compound or other.

 <p>CHW Referral form</p> <p><small>Part completed by the CHW, kept by CHPS for reference</small></p>		Date of referral: ____/____/____																	
		CHW name: _____																	
		CHW Mob No.: _____																	
Referring location: <i>Circle location type</i>		 Community <input type="checkbox"/>	 CHPS compound <input type="checkbox"/>	 Health centre <input type="checkbox"/>															
Patient name: <i>Circle patient type</i>		Patient record number: _____																	
		 Pregnant	 Post-partum	 Newborn	 Child	 Adolescent	 Adult												
Reason for referral		Child 0-59 months 	Pregnant/post-partum mother 	Young person/ adults 															
Medical history: Date of first symptoms: _____		Newborn danger signs  <input type="checkbox"/>	Suspected pregnancy  <input type="checkbox"/>	HIV test  <input type="checkbox"/>															
Description of condition: _____		Small baby  <input type="checkbox"/>	Fever in pregnancy  <input type="checkbox"/>	TB testing  <input type="checkbox"/>															
		Fever  <input type="checkbox"/>	Bleeding  <input type="checkbox"/>	Family planning  <input type="checkbox"/>															
		Cough with difficult breathing  <input type="checkbox"/>	Danger sign in pregnancy  <input type="checkbox"/>	Routine check-up  <input type="checkbox"/>															
		Diarrhoea  <input type="checkbox"/>	Complication in labour  <input type="checkbox"/>	Other (describe) <input type="checkbox"/>															
		Malnutrition  <input type="checkbox"/>	Postpartum danger sign  <input type="checkbox"/>																
Condition at departure		<input type="checkbox"/> Normal	<input type="checkbox"/> Moderate	<input type="checkbox"/> Severe	<input type="checkbox"/> Critical 														
Prior treatments (community)		<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Medicine</th> <th>Dose</th> <th>Date</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>1. _____</td> <td>_____</td> <td>_____</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2. _____</td> <td>_____</td> <td>_____</td> </tr> <tr> <td>3. _____</td> <td>_____</td> <td>_____</td> </tr> <tr> <td>4. _____</td> <td>_____</td> <td>_____</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>			Medicine	Dose	Date	1. _____	_____	_____	2. _____	_____	_____	3. _____	_____	_____	4. _____	_____	_____
Medicine	Dose	Date																	
1. _____	_____	_____																	
2. _____	_____	_____																	
3. _____	_____	_____																	
4. _____	_____	_____																	
Next of Kin contact		_____																	

Name of community and location type for referral










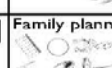







Name, type and ID/medical record of the patient

Write what danger signs they have experienced, and since when. If not literate, they can tick the image next to the reason for referral.

At the time they left the location was the patient:
 Normal – able to walk, comfortable
 Moderate – able to walk with difficulty
 Severe – conscious, unable to walk
 Critical – unconscious or very weak.

Ask the family for all treatments the woman or child might have taken before leaving the village. If they can, they should take the medicines with them to the facility, or write them here.

In the event of further complication whom should the health facility contact? Write a mobile number if possible.

 <h2 style="text-align: center;">CHW Counter-referral form</h2> <p><small>Part completed by CHPS, retained by the CHW after follow-up</small></p>		Date of discharge: __/__/__			
		CHO Name: _____			
Facility discharging patient: <small>Circle facility type</small>		<input type="checkbox"/> CHPS compound	<input type="checkbox"/> Health centre	<input type="checkbox"/> Hospital	
Patient name: <small>Circle patient type</small>	Name: _____			ID number of patient record	
	<input type="checkbox"/> Pregnant	<input type="checkbox"/> Post-partum	<input type="checkbox"/> Newborn		<input type="checkbox"/> Child
Conditions treated at facility		Child 0-59 months		Pregnant/post-partum mother	Young person/adults
		Newborn danger signs <input type="checkbox"/> 		Suspected pregnancy <input type="checkbox"/> 	HIV confirmed <input type="checkbox"/> 
Medical history: Date of first symptoms: _____ Description of condition: _____		Small baby <input type="checkbox"/> 		Malaria <input type="checkbox"/> 	TB confirmed <input type="checkbox"/> 
		Malaria <input type="checkbox"/> 		Miscarriage <input type="checkbox"/> 	Family planning <input type="checkbox"/> 
		ARI <input type="checkbox"/> 		Pregnancy condition <input type="checkbox"/> 	Routine check-up <input type="checkbox"/> 
		Diarrhoea <input type="checkbox"/> 		Complication in labour <input type="checkbox"/> 	Other (describe) <input type="checkbox"/> _____
Malnutrition <input type="checkbox"/> 		Postpartum condition <input type="checkbox"/> 			
Condition on discharge		<input type="checkbox"/> Normal	<input type="checkbox"/> Moderate	<input type="checkbox"/> Severe	<input type="checkbox"/> Critical
Instruction to CHW					
Date return to CHPS: _____		Return immediately if: _____			
Follow-up	Visit patient _____ times per week/month for _____ days /months				
CHW to check in follow-up	_____				
Signature	_____				

Follow up schedule can be indicated by the CHO, most cases can have a prescribed follow-up, e.g. once per week for CMAM, 2 times/month for HIV/TB new cases. Others may be prescribed as per needs e.g. acute cases 2 times a week for 2 weeks.

- Specific instructions can be provided here for what to check and should include:
- Medicine schedule
 - Home based care and self-care needs
 - Danger signs or side effects which might be encountered. CHO may continue on the back if extensive instructions needs

THE HOME-BASED CARE REGISTER

This is a simple register that the CHW uses to maintain records of the persons she/he provides follow-up care.

This register has one page for each person receiving home-based care. At the top of the page, the CHW enters the person's details from the Household register and from the counter-referral form. The CHW also notes his or her visiting schedule to the home (weekly, fortnightly etc.), based on details from the counter referral form

The first column in the register is to record the date of visit of the CHW to the person's home. For each visit, the CHW notes the following in subsequent columns in the register:

- Checks if the person has been attending the clinic as advised in the counter-referral form
- Writes brief notes on what kind of care was provided in the home (counselling, pill check, checking for danger signs etc.)
- Checks if a referral was required during that home visit
- Checks if the patient has been taking all medication as prescribed and records that
- Notes down any specific observations (health is improving or remains the same) and any actions to be taken by the family before the next home visit, and
- Notes the date for the next home-visit in discussion with the family

Home Based Care (HIV, TB, SAM)						
Name:	Age:	Priority Household (✓/X):	Contact Info (mobile #):		Condition:	
Individual Code:	Sex:		Address:		Visiting Schedule	
Date of Visit	Clinic attendance on time (✓/X)	Details of care provided	Referral required (✓/X)	Adhering to treatment plan (✓/X)	Observations and follow up actions	Date for Next Visit
A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Date of Completion:		Condition at last visit:				

