

The Importance of Breastfeeding and Barriers of Breastfeeding Practices in Disasters

Esra Zehra Biçer Özdemir¹

Egemen Ünal²

Abstract

Natural disasters can have adverse effects on infant nutrition and breastfeeding. Post-disaster challenges, such as infrastructure damage, disruptions in healthcare services, and limitations in food supply, can negatively impact the breastfeeding experience of infants who rely on breast milk. Similarly, disasters and post-disaster conditions can lead to issues in breastfeeding mothers' physical and mental health, causing problems in breast milk supply. Breastfeeding provides health benefits for both infants and mothers, strengthening infants' immune systems and aiding in the prevention of diseases such as diarrhea. However, during disasters, breastfeeding practices may encounter various challenges. These challenges include environmental factors, psychological traumas, insufficient breast milk supply, and difficulties in accessing hygiene and care materials. Therefore, understanding the factors influencing breastfeeding practices in populations residing in disaster-prone regions is crucial. Breast milk holds critical importance for the health and survival of infants, serving as a vital source of nutrition and protection against infections even in disaster conditions. The main goal of this study is to understand the importance of breastfeeding and the impact of natural disasters on breastfeeding practices, address the challenges that arise in this context, and provide guidance for disaster preparedness policies in future emergencies.

- 1 Research Assistant, MD, Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University, Faculty of Medicine, Department of Public Health/ Ankara-TURKİYE, esrazehrabicer@aybu.edu.tr, <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7308-0257>
- 2 Associate Professor, MD, Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University, Faculty of Medicine, Department of Public Health/ Ankara-TURKİYE, egemenunal28@hotmail.com, <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9939-9191>

1. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, the frequency and intensity of natural disasters have gradually increased. The combination of the magnitude of the disaster and the lack of disaster response actions affects the physical and mental health of the population exposed to the disaster. (1,2). However, disasters do not affect all groups of people equally. Specific demographics are more susceptible to the negative effects of disasters, and the most severe consequences are often experienced by mothers and their children (3–7).

Natural disasters can create a challenging environment which significantly disrupts infant feeding and breastfeeding. Such a calamity can often destroy infrastructure, disrupt fundamental health services and restrict food supplies, making it challenging to provide the required nutrition for infants. This disruption can have a detrimental effect on the breastfeeding experience for breastfed infants. Evidence supports that there is a significant risk among infants and young children of mothers who are displaced in disaster camps and may stop breastfeeding (8). On the other hand, disasters and post-disaster environments and conditions affect the physical and mental health of breastfeeding mothers and cause problems in breast milk supply (9–12).

Breastfeeding mothers and their infants constitute a distinct population subgroup requiring special attention in terms of both immediate and long-term healthcare needs. Given the increased rates of child mortality and the decline in breastfeeding prevalence during disasters, comprehensive understanding of the factors influencing maternal breastfeeding practices becomes particularly crucial, especially for the human population residing in disaster-prone regions.

2. BREASTFEEDING

Considering the increased risk of diarrhea and other infectious diseases in emergency situations where hygiene and care practices and supplies are at risk, breastfeeding has a vital protective and beneficial effect for both infants and mothers (13–15). Breast milk is a vital immune-boosting factor, as well as being an essential nutrient that supports the healthy growth and development of infants and newborns. International health authorities such as the World Health Organization (WHO) and UNICEF recommend that infants are exclusively breastfed for the first six months. This period represents a critical period for optimal growth, development and immune system strengthening in infants and newborns (16,17). Exclusive breastfeeding in the first 6 months of infancy and continued breastfeeding between 6-11 months is the most effective public health intervention to reduce child mortality (18). The antibodies, enzymes, hormones, immunological factors and nutrients

in breast milk strengthen the baby's immune system and protect against infections, allergies and other diseases (19,20). Otherwise, inadequate or absent breastfeeding is associated with an increased risk of illness and infant mortality, including acute infections and chronic conditions (21,22).

Diarrhoea is a common killer of infants and newborns in natural disasters, often with high mortality rates (23). Breastfeeding is a safe and healthy source of food and water to help prevent and treat diarrheal diseases (24,25). Furthermore, breast milk protects against diseases with antibodies such as anti-bacterial, anti-viral and anti-protozoal which are crucial for the immune system of infants and newborns. Since they have not yet fully developed their own immune systems at birth, they are protected by active immunity from their mothers (26).

Moreover, antibodies present in breast milk bind to pathogens that enter the infant's intestine, preventing them from adhering to cells in the small intestine. In this way, they are better protected against infections. In addition, breast milk is a living fluid and contains "white cells" such as mast cells, phagocytes and natural killer cells. These white cells contain defence mechanisms against pathogens. They attack pathogens by engulfing and absorbing pathogens or by producing harmful substances. White cells provide non-specific defence and do not require the mother to have had previous contact with a specific pathogen (26).

In conclusion, breast milk is crucial for the health and survival of infants and newborns. It contains white cells that support defence mechanisms against pathogens. During disasters, when basic health services may be limited or unavailable, ensuring access to breast milk becomes even more critical. Even in challenging circumstances, breast milk provides babies with food, water, and most importantly, immunity against infections. In the face of natural and humanitarian disasters, breastfeeding has a great importance in protecting mother and child health and protecting public health problems which come from lack of food in especially disadvantaged groups.

3. FACTORS THAT MAKE BREASTFEEDING DIFFICULT DURING NATURAL DISASTERS

Although breastfeeding plays a crucial role in life-saving during emergencies, the preservation, promotion, and support of breastfeeding encounter various obstacles in emergency situations. These challenges often stem from environmental factors, psychological traumas, lack of privacy, stress induced by displacement and poor living conditions, inappropriate donations, formula distribution, technical knowledge deficiencies among field officials, misconceptions, and misguided guidance regarding breastfeeding (27–30).

Usage of Formula Milk

In disaster areas, infant formula is used as an alternative when access to breastfeeding is difficult or when mothers are unable to breastfeed for health reasons. In such regions, the distribution of formula milk is often a preferred practice. It is well-documented that improper use of formula milk can lead to inadequate nutrition, weakened immune systems, and an increased risk of contracting infectious diseases in infants (31). Studies have observed higher mortality rates in children fed with formula milk during emergencies and natural disasters (3,32). For instance, in Bosnia, an outbreak of diarrhea that resulted in the death of over 500 infant, newborn and young children was 30 times more prevalent among those fed with formula milk (33).

In disaster areas, hygiene conditions are often challenging. Ensuring the necessary hygienic conditions for the preparation of formula milk may be impractical. Factors such as limited access to clean water sources, absence of proper sterilization equipment, the need for electricity, gas, clean containers, and bottles to heat water during formula milk preparation pose significant difficulties and, in addition, can increase the risk of infection (34). Furthermore, the use of formula milk can pose a risk to certain aspects of the immune system in young children, as these products tend to lack the specific antibodies and other immune factors provided by breast milk (11,28). For instance, in India, improper distribution of low-quality and inexpensive baby formula following the tsunami exacerbated the occurrence of diarrhea in infants (3).

On the other hands, media platforms, in the aftermath of disasters, inadvertently promote the excessive donation of formula milk, complementary foods, and other dairy products, leading to the substantial collection of breast milk substitutes (10). Donated or collectively supplied formula milk products lack proper instructions for safe usage (35). These products are distributed in an uncontrolled manner without prior needs assessment or identification of the infants in need (1).

All these situations negatively impacts mothers' breastfeeding practices, leading them to hesitate in continuing breastfeeding and indirectly resulting in premature weaning of from breast milk. (11,29).

Professional Breastfeeding Counseling and Social Support

In disaster camps, mothers often face challenges in accessing breastfeeding counseling services and trained health professionals (15). Many volunteers and healthcare professionals in disaster camps lack the necessary experience and skills to assist breastfeeding mothers (36–38). Insufficient experience

and skills among volunteers and healthcare professionals in disaster camps pose significant challenges in providing adequate support to breastfeeding mothers. In such situations, the promotion of formula feeding over breastfeeding is a common misconception (38). The lack of sufficient professional support in these camps poses a challenge for mothers in choosing to continue breastfeeding or opting for re-lactation if breastfeeding cessation occurs (15,39).

Social support is another important factor guiding mothers' decisions to breastfeed their infants (40). Research on sustaining breastfeeding post-disaster emphasizes the significance of family and community support (30,41–43). For instance, separation from close relatives or the loss of loved ones due to a disaster has been observed to reduce the breastfeeding capacity of mothers (43). These studies reveal the positive effects of both close and extended family support, interpersonal communication, and support from elders in sustaining breastfeeding practices. Prudhon et al. highlighted that promoting breastfeeding through interpersonal communication widely supports breastfeeding practices (30). Hirani et al. pointed out that the lack of support from close relatives and limited avenues for benefiting from social support, particularly after a natural disaster in Pakistan, minimizes mothers' capacities and affects the effectiveness, independence, and control (functionality) of breastfeeding (43).

Breastfeeding Privacy

The breastfeeding environment influences the degree of autonomy and independence mothers can exercise in breastfeeding (43,44). Many studies have identified the fundamental requirement of privacy for mothers to breastfeed their children in the aftermath of natural disasters (9,15,41,45–48), and they have shown that mothers feel uncomfortable breastfeeding in public (5,15). The lack of privacy experienced by breastfeeding mothers during disasters can increase their stress levels, potentially leading to adverse health outcomes (5,15). Designated breastfeeding areas (rooms, tents, or partitions created with curtains) are provided for breastfeeding mothers during natural disasters. These spaces enhance mothers' breastfeeding confidence and self-efficacy (46,47).

After a disaster, mothers who faced challenges regarding privacy while breastfeeding for a period of time considered having a temporary shelter with a designated private area as the most significant assistance they could receive, as they lacked a private space to breastfeed previously (41). MirMohamadalile et al., on the other hand, noted that the sense of preserving privacy among mothers is also rooted in their cultural and religious beliefs (42).

Decrease in Maternal Breastfeeding Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy can be defined as an individual's ability to perform a specific task or behavior that can be improved (23). Situations such as a decrease in breastfeeding self-efficacy among mothers can arise in the aftermath of natural disasters. Studies have indicated that mothers experience concerns about breastfeeding adequately after disasters, leading to a decline in both the supply of breast milk and the ability to breastfeed effectively (12–14). Hargest-Slade and Gribble noted that after a natural disaster in New Zealand, many mothers were at risk of experiencing a crisis of confidence in breastfeeding (9). DeYoung et al. revealed that mothers who had to relocate to disaster tent camps after an earthquake in Nepal believed that their milk had 'spoiled,' and they no longer had enough milk for their infants (28). Another study identified concerns among evacuated mothers in Canada, who, due to driving for extended periods during the Fort McMurray forest fire evacuation, worried about a reduction in their milk supply (27).

Maternal Well-being and Mental Health

Displacement due to disasters and the aftermath often expose many mothers to physical trauma/injury, the loss of close family members, the disruption of social connections, or giving birth without professional assistance (50). In relief camps established for the displaced individuals, which are often in conditions not conducive to women, mothers with small children tend to rely on donations of basic necessities such as clothing and food. For these reasons, trauma can be induced in mothers (50,51). Subsequently, post-traumatic mothers may develop depression and stress disorders, resulting in an inadequate response to their infants' breastfeeding needs (9–12).

The literature also emphasizes the particular need for sensitive care and breastfeeding support for mothers who have pre-existing health issues, those experiencing complex prenatal or postnatal experiences, and those grappling with newly emerging psychiatric problems due to displacement (12,52). However, there is a gap in the literature regarding how the emotional and mental well-being of mothers, along with the support provided by humanitarian workers, influences breastfeeding practices in displaced mothers in disaster relief camps.

Misconceptions About Breastfeeding

Among the various factors that influence mothers' breastfeeding practices, attitudes, myths, and misunderstandings related to breastfeeding by family

members, community leaders, healthcare professionals, and volunteers in disaster relief camps can lead to adverse outcomes (15,53). For example, there is a misconception that breastfeeding should be stopped if an infant has diarrhoea (54). On the contrary, in such situations, the baby actually needs more breast milk because it contains rich content and antibodies that prevent dehydration (15).

On the other hand, the lack of knowledge among health personnel in disaster camps about breastfeeding can also result in inappropriate outcomes (55). Particularly, the absence of a guideline or sufficient information for healthcare professionals in approaching breastfeeding issues can lead to the improper management of malnutrition problems, misinform mothers, and guide them towards formula feeding (56).

Aftermath disasters, cultural misunderstandings also emerge as one of the reasons affecting mothers' breastfeeding practices (28). For instance, in certain cultures, there may be a perception that breast milk is of poor quality in cases where a mother is malnourished or her psychosocial condition worsens, leading to a tendency to resort to formula supplements (11). Even though the stress experienced by the mother and mild or moderate malnutrition do not significantly alter the quality of breast milk, many mothers in such conditions may tend to discontinue breastfeeding (10–12,15,49). Another common misconception is that mothers believe they won't be able to resume breastfeeding their infants after a few weeks of not breastfeeding in the aftermath of a disaster (11).

4. CONCLUSION

Factors that make breastfeeding challenging include the prevalence of formula feeding, lack of breastfeeding counseling and social support, privacy issues, decrease in breastfeeding self-efficacy, maternal well-being, psychological issues, and misconceptions about breastfeeding. These factors can negatively impact mothers' breastfeeding practices and have adverse effects on the health of infants. In conclusion, special measures need to be taken to meet the needs of breastfeeding mothers and infants during natural disasters. Health authorities and relief organizations should provide education and support for breastfeeding, regulate the distribution of formula, and implement measures that promote breastfeeding, such as establishing breastfeeding areas. This is crucial for supporting the healthy growth and development of infants, reducing mortality rates, and preserving the physical and mental health of mothers.

5. References

1. Binns CW, Lee MK, Tang L, Yu C, Hokama T, Lee A. Ethical issues in infant feeding after disasters. *Asia-Pacific J public Heal*. 2012 Jul;24(4):672–80.
2. World Health Organization (WHO). Geneva: World Health Organization. 2004 [cited 2023 Sep 9]. Guiding principles for feeding infants and young children during emergencies. Available from: <https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9241546069>
3. Adhisivam B, Srinivasan S, Soudarssanane MB, Deepak Amalnath S, Nirmal Kumar A. Feeding of infants and young children in tsunami affected villages in Pondicherry. *Indian Pediatr*. 2006 Aug;43(8):724–7.
4. Adeoya AA, Sasaki H, Fuda M, Okamoto T, Egawa S. Child Nutrition in Disaster: A Scoping Review. *Tohoku J Exp Med*. 2022;256(2):103–18.
5. Gribble KD, McGrath M, MacLaine A, Lhotska L. Supporting breastfeeding in emergencies: Protecting women’s reproductive rights and maternal and infant health. *Disasters*. 2011;35(4):720–38.
6. Gribble K, Peterson M, Brown D. Emergency preparedness for infant and young child feeding in emergencies (IYCF-E): an Australian audit of emergency plans and guidance. *BMC Public Health* [Internet]. 2019;19(1):1278. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-019-7528-0>
7. Callaghan WM, Rasmussen SA, Jamieson DJ, Ventura SJ, Farr SL, Sutton PD, et al. Health Concerns of Women and Infants in Times of Natural Disasters: Lessons Learned from Hurricane Katrina. *Matern Child Health J* [Internet]. 2007;11(4):307–11. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10995-007-0177-4>
8. Ratnayake Mudiyansele S, Davis D, Kurz E, Atchan M. Infant and young child feeding during natural disasters: A systematic integrative literature review. *Women and Birth* [Internet]. 2022 Nov 1 [cited 2023 May 10];35(6):524–31. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wombi.2021.12.006>
9. Hargest-Slade AC, Gribble KD. Shaken but not broken: Supporting breastfeeding women after the 2011 Christchurch New Zealand earthquake. *Breastfeed Rev Prof Publ Nurs Mothers’ Assoc Aust*. 2015 Nov;23(3):7–13.
10. Gribble KD. Media messages and the needs of infants and young children after Cyclone Nargis and the WenChuan earthquake. *Disasters*. 2013 Jan;37(1):80–100.
11. Dörnemann J, Kelly AH. “It is me who eats, to nourish him”: a mixed-method study of breastfeeding in post-earthquake Haiti. *Matern Child Nutr*. 2013 Jan;9(1):74–89.

12. World Health Organization. Infant feeding in emergencies: A guide for mothers. 1997;
13. Group IFEC. Operational Guidance on Infant Feeding in Emergencies (OG-IFE) version 3.0. 0:0. Available from: <https://www.enonline.net/operationalguidance-v3-2017>
14. American Academy of Pediatrics. In a Natural Disaster or Public Health Emergency [Internet]. American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP); 2020 [cited 2023 Sep 7]. Available from: <https://downloads.aap.org/AAP/PDF/DisasterFactSheet6-2020.pdf>
15. Sulaiman Z, Mohamad N, Ismail TAT, Johari N, Hussain NHN. Infant feeding concerns in times of natural disaster: lessons learned from the 2014 flood in Kelantan, Malaysia. *Asia Pac J Clin Nutr*. 2016;25(3):625–30.
16. World Health Organization (WHO). Breastfeeding [Internet]. [cited 2023 Sep 7]. Available from: https://www.who.int/health-topics/breastfeeding#tab=tab_1
17. UNICEF, WHO. Breastfeeding: A mother's gift, for every child. Unicef [Internet]. 2018;1–13. Available from: <https://data.unicef.org/resources/breastfeeding-a-mothers-gift-for-every-child/>
18. Jones G, Steketee RW, Black RE, Bhutta ZA, Morris SS. How many child deaths can we prevent this year? *Lancet* (London, England). 2003 Jul;362(9377):65–71.
19. Victora CG, Bahl R, Barros AJD, França GVA, Horton S, Krasevec J, et al. Breastfeeding in the 21st century: epidemiology, mechanisms, and life-long effect. *Lancet* (London, England). 2016 Jan;387(10017):475–90.
20. Walters D, Horton S, Siregar AYM, Pitriyan P, Hajeebhoy N, Mathisen R, et al. The cost of not breastfeeding in Southeast Asia. *Health Policy Plan*. 2016 Oct;31(8):1107–16.
21. Eidelman AI, Schanler RJ, Johnston M, Landers S, Noble L, Szucs K, et al. Breastfeeding and the Use of Human Milk. *Pediatrics* [Internet]. 2012;129(3):e827–41. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1542/peds.2011-3552>
22. Feldman-Winter L, Van T, Varadi D, Adams AC, Kural B, Rouw ECJ. Academy of Breastfeeding Medicine Position Statement: Breastfeeding As a Basic Human Right. *Breastfeed Med Off J Acad Breastfeed Med*. 2022 Aug;17(8):633–4.
23. Kingston D, Dennis CL, Sword W. Exploring breast-feeding self-efficacy. *J Perinat Neonatal Nurs*. 2007;21(3):207–15.
24. Morrow AL, Rangel JM. Human milk protection against infectious diarrhea: implications for prevention and clinical care. *Semin Pediatr Infect Dis*. 2004 Oct;15(4):221–8.

25. Newburg DS. Innate immunity and human milk. *J Nutr*. 2005 May;135(5):1308–12.
26. Riordan J, Countryman BA. Basics of breastfeeding. Part iii: the biological specificity of breast milk. *JOGN Nurs*. 1980;9(5):273–7.
27. DeYoung SE, Chase J, Branco MP, Park B. The Effect of Mass Evacuation on Infant Feeding: The Case of the 2016 Fort McMurray Wildfire. *Matern Child Health J* [Internet]. 2018;22(12):1826–33. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10995-018-2585-z>
28. DeYoung S, Suji M, Southall HG. Maternal Perceptions of Infant Feeding and Health in the Context of the 2015 Nepal Earthquake. *J Hum Lact Off J Int Lact Consult Assoc*. 2018 May;34(2):242–52.
29. Issues GKB. Infant feeding in the post Indian Ocean tsunami context: reports, theory and action. 2004;0:0. Available from: <https://www.enonline.net/iycftsunami>
30. Prudhon C, Benelli P, Maclaine A, Harrigan P, Frize J. Informing infant and young child feeding programming in humanitarian emergencies: An evidence map of reviews including low and middle income countries. *Matern Child Nutr*. 2018 Jan;14(1).
31. Hirani S, Richter S, Salami B. Humanitarian aid and breastfeeding practices of displaced mothers: a qualitative study in disaster relief camps. *East Mediterr Heal J = La Rev sante la Mediterr Orient = al-Majallah al-sihhiyah li-sharq al-mutawassit* [Internet]. 2021 Dec [cited 2023 May 10];27(12):1197–202. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.26719/emhj.20.087>
32. Hipgrave DB, Assefa F, Winoto A, Sukotjo S. Donated breast milk substitutes and incidence of diarrhoea among infants and young children after the May 2006 earthquake in Yogyakarta and Central Java. *Public Health Nutr*. 2012 Feb;15(2):307–15.
33. Arvelo W, Kim A, Creek T, Legwaila K, Puhr N, Johnston S, et al. Case-control study to determine risk factors for diarrhea among children during a large outbreak in a country with a high prevalence of HIV infection. *Int J Infect Dis IJID Off Publ Int Soc Infect Dis*. 2010 Nov;14(11):e1002-7.
34. Gribble KD, Berry NJ. Emergency preparedness for those who care for infants in developed country contexts. *Int Breastfeed J* [Internet]. 2011;6(1):16. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1186/1746-4358-6-16>
35. Hirani SAA, Richter S, Salami BO, Vallianatos H. Breastfeeding in Disaster Relief Camps: An Integrative Review of Literature. *Adv Nurs Sci* [Internet]. 2019 Apr 1 [cited 2023 May 10];42(2):E1–12. Available from: https://journals.lww.com/advancesinnursingscience/Fulltext/2019/04000/Breastfeeding_in_Disaster_Relief_Camps__An.8.aspx

36. Hirani SAA, Kenner C. International Column: Effects of Humanitarian Emergencies on Newborn and Infants' Health in Pakistan. *Newborn Infant Nurs Rev* [Internet]. 2011;11(2):58–60. Available from: <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1527336911000468>
37. Warraich H, Zaidi AKM, Patel K. Floods in Pakistan: a public health crisis. *Bull World Health Organ*. 2011 Mar;89(3):236–7.
38. Abney SE. Support of Breastfeeding and Pregnant Women in the Disaster Shelter Setting. *J Obstet Gynecol Neonatal Nurs* [Internet]. 2010 Sep 1;39:S125. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1552-6909.2010.01131.x>
39. Morin KH. Disaster planning and infant nutrition. *MCN Am J Matern Nurs*. 2008;33(4):258.
40. Heidari Z, Keshvari M, Kohan S. Breastfeeding Promotion, Challenges and Barriers: a Qualitative Research. 2016;4:1687–95.
41. Hirani SAA. Facilitators and barriers to breastfeeding practices of internally displaced mothers residing in disaster relief camps in Pakistan: a critical ethnography. In 2019. Available from: <https://api.semanticscholar.org/CorpusID:199153847>
42. MirMohamadilile M, Khani Jazani R, Sohrabizadeh S, Nikbakht Nasrabadi A. Barriers to breastfeeding in disasters in the context of Iran. *Prehosp Disaster Med*. 2019;34(1):20–4.
43. Hirani SAA, Richter S, Salami B, Vallianatos H. Sociocultural Factors Affecting Breastfeeding Practices of Mothers During Natural Disasters: A Critical Ethnography in Rural Pakistan. *Glob Qual Nurs Res* [Internet]. 2023 Jan 1 [cited 2023 May 10];10:1–16. Available from: [/pmc/articles/PMC9884949/](https://pmc/articles/PMC9884949/)
44. Bloom SS, Wypij D, Das Gupta M. Dimensions of women's autonomy and the influence on maternal health care utilization in a north Indian city. Vol. 38, *Demography*. United States; 2001. p. 67–78.
45. Dozio E, Le Roch K, Bizouerne C. Baby friendly spaces: an intervention for pregnant and lactating women and their infants in Cameroon. *Intervention*. 2020;18.
46. Sarimin DS, Ponidjan TS, Wanda D. The Use of the Apron and Disaster Baby Carriers to Improve the Exclusive Breastfeeding Self-Efficacy of Mothers in Disaster-Affected Zones in Indonesia. *Compr Child Adolesc Nurs* [Internet]. 2021;44(3):166–73. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1080/24694193.2020.1761481>
47. Ayoya MA, Golden K, Ngnie-Teta I, Moreaux MD, Mamadoultai bou A, Koo L, et al. Protecting and improving breastfeeding practices during a major emergency: lessons learnt from the baby tents in Haiti. *Bull World Health Organ*. 2013 Aug;91(8):612–7.

48. Hwang CH, Iellamo A, Ververs M. Barriers and challenges of infant feeding in disasters in middle- and high-income countries. *Int Breastfeed J*. 2021;16(1):1–13.
49. Goudet SM, Griffiths PL, Bogin BA, Selim N. Impact of flooding on feeding practices of infants and young children in Dhaka, Bangladesh Slums: what are the coping strategies? *Matern Child Nutr*. 2011 Apr;7(2):198–214.
50. Sadia H, Iqbal MJ, Ahmad J, Ali A, Ahmad A. Gender-sensitive public health risks and vulnerabilities' assessment with reference to floods in Pakistan. *Int J Disaster Risk Reduct* [Internet]. 2016;19:47–56. Available from: <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2212420916302473>
51. Hirani SAA. Vulnerability of internally displaced children in disaster relief camps of Pakistan: issues, challenges, and way forward. *Early Child Dev Care* [Internet]. 2014 Oct 3;184(9–10):1499–506. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1080/03004430.2014.901012>
52. Heinig MJ. Hope in the darkest days: breastfeeding support in emergencies. Vol. 21, *Journal of human lactation : official journal of International Lactation Consultant Association*. United States; 2005. p. 395–6.
53. Hirani SAA. Malnutrition in young Pakistani children. *J Ayub Med Coll Abbottabad*. 2012;24(2):150–3.
54. Naylor AJ. Breastfeeding: A Vital Emergency Response - Are You Ready? In 2009. Available from: <https://api.semanticscholar.org/CorpusID:73199528>
55. Radzimirski S, Callister LC. Health Professionals' Attitudes and Beliefs About Breastfeeding. *J Perinat Educ*. 2015;24(2):102–9.
56. Dobson B, Murtaugh MA. Position of the American Dietetic Association: breaking the barriers to breastfeeding. *J Am Diet Assoc*. 2001 Oct;101(10):1213–20.