

Research Article

Dietary Quantity and Diversity among Anemic Pregnant Women in Madura Island, Indonesia

Rian Diana ¹, Ali Khomsan,² Faisal Anwar,² Dyan Fajar Christianti,³ Rendra Kusuma,⁴ and Riris Diana Rachmayanti⁵

¹Department of Nutrition, Faculty of Public Health, Universitas Airlangga, Campus C Mulyorejo, Surabaya, East Java 60115, Indonesia

²Department of Community Nutrition, Faculty of Human Ecology, IPB University, Bogor, Indonesia

³Graduate School (Nutrition), IPB University, Bogor, Indonesia

⁴Department of Physical and Sport Education, STKIP PGRI Sumenep, Sumenep, Indonesia

⁵Department of Health Promotion and Behavioral Science, Faculty of Public Health, Universitas Airlangga, Surabaya, Indonesia

Correspondence should be addressed to Rian Diana; rian.diana@fkm.unair.ac.id

Received 19 June 2019; Revised 18 August 2019; Accepted 11 September 2019; Published 30 September 2019

Academic Editor: Mohammed S. Razzaque

Copyright © 2019 Rian Diana et al. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Dietary diversity and quantity are important for pregnant women, particularly anemic pregnant women. This study aimed to analyze the association between dietary quantity and diversity among anemic pregnant women. This cross-sectional study was conducted in 2017 at Madura Island, Indonesia, and involved 152 anemic pregnant women. Hemoglobin concentration was analyzed by the cyanmethemoglobin method. Dietary quantity was measured by the 2 × 24 h recall. Dietary diversity was determined by Minimum Dietary Diversity for Women of Reproductive Age (MDD-W). Spearman's rank association was performed to analyze the association between dietary diversity and quantity. The median of hemoglobin concentration was 10.1 g/dL, and 57.2% pregnant women had mild anemia. Most of the pregnant women had low adequacy levels of energy and macro- and micronutrients (except for iron). More than half (57.9%) of anemic pregnant women had reached minimum dietary diversity. Family size ($p = 0.048$) and gestational age ($p = 0.004$) had negative associations with dietary diversity. Dietary diversity had positive associations with energy ($p = 0.029$), protein ($p = 0.003$), vitamin A ($p = 0.001$), vitamin C ($p = 0.004$), and zinc ($p = 0.015$) adequacy levels. Dietary diversity had no significant association with calcium ($p = 0.078$) and iron adequacy level ($p = 0.206$). High prevalence of mild and moderate anemia was found among pregnant women in their third trimester. Anemic pregnant women already consumed food with minimum dietary diversity but did not meet dietary quantity. Increasing dietary quantity is a priority for anemic pregnant women.

1. Introduction

Maternal anemia is a major public health problem in the world, particularly in developing countries [1]. Globally, anemia prevalence among pregnant women was declining in the last 25 years (1990–2016) from 43.4% to 40.1% [2]. In contrast to this worldwide trend, there was a significant increase in the prevalence of anemia among pregnant women in Indonesia in the last five years, from 37.1% in 2013 to 48.9% in 2018 [3]. This condition may result in adverse

maternal and fetal consequences. Anemia, directly and indirectly, attributes to maternal and perinatal death [1]. The risk of preterm birth was five times higher in anemic pregnant women than nonanemic women [4].

The high prevalence of anemia in pregnant women reflects a wide range of nutritional deficiencies. Socio-economic status, gestational age, low dietary diversity, low dietary quantity, and intake of iron supplement during pregnancy are risk factors for anemia [5, 6]. Dietary diversification has been recommended for ensuring

adequate nutrient intake of pregnant women, especially micronutrient adequacy [7].

Adequate nutrient intake and its association with nutritional status of pregnant women have been studied extensively [8–11]. Dietary diversity among pregnant women also has been studied in several countries [12, 13], including Indonesia [14]. On the other hand, no study was conducted on a specific high-risk population such as anemic pregnant women. Therefore, this study aimed to analyze the association between dietary diversity and dietary quantity among anemic pregnant women.

2. Methods

2.1. Study Design and Sampling. This study was conducted using a cross-sectional design in January–March 2017 at Sumenep District, Madura Island, Indonesia. The population were all anemic pregnant women in four local community health centers (252 anemic pregnant women), with 95% confidence level and margin of error 5%; therefore, 152 anemic pregnant women were recruited in this study. The sampling frame was taken from four local community health centers, and the sample was chosen by simple random sampling. Sample inclusion criteria were as follows: pregnant women aged 18–49 years, having anemia (Hb < 11 g/dL), not having a special diet, and willing to participate in this study by signing informed consent.

2.2. Data Collection. Hemoglobin concentration of the sample was assessed by researchers using the cyanmethemoglobin method. Blood sample was taken in the morning (07.00–10.00 AM) at village hall. Venous blood samples (5 ml) were collected by midwives, and professional health analysts measured hemoglobin concentration. One-on-one interview was done in the participants' house. Socioeconomic characteristics were collected using structured questionnaires. Dietary quantity was measured by the 2 × 24-h recall (nonconsecutive days) and then converted into nutrients by a trained nutritionist. The food picture book was used in food recall to help the participants calculate the food size. Meanwhile, dietary diversity was determined by Minimum Dietary Diversity for Women of Reproductive Age (MDD-W) based on 24-h dietary recall. MDD-W consisted of 10 food groups, namely, grains, white roots and tubers and plantains, pulses, nuts and seeds, dairy, meat, poultry, and fish, eggs, dark-green leafy vegetables, vitamin A-rich fruits and vegetables, and other vegetables and other fruits [7].

2.3. Data Analysis. The data were analyzed by using the IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) program version 22. The descriptive statistics which included proportion, median, minimum, maximum, and interquartile range (IQR) were presented. The nutrient adequacy level was measured by comparing nutrient intake with Indonesian recommended dietary allowances (RDA) [15]. The Kolmogorov–Smirnov test showed that the data were not normally distributed ($p < 0.05$). Therefore, the association

between socioeconomic characteristics, nutritional adequacy levels, and dietary diversity was analyzed by Spearman's rank correlation. The Mann–Whitney U test was used to analyze the difference of nutrient adequacy level and dietary diversity between mild and severe anemia.

The WHO [16] cutoff points for anemia were as follows: mild (10.0–10.9 g/dL), moderate (7.0–9.9 g/dL), and severe (<7.0 g/dL). Meanwhile, dietary diversity was categorized as low (<5 food groups) and high (≥ 5 food groups).

2.4. Ethical Approval. Ethical approval was obtained from the Health Research Ethics Committee, Faculty of Public Health, Universitas Airlangga No 1-KEPK. All participants had signed the informed consent before the data were collected.

3. Results

A total of 152 anemic pregnant women participated in this study. The median of hemoglobin concentration was 10.1 g/dL with minimum concentration 8.0 g/dL and maximum 10.9 g/dL. In terms of severity, more than half of pregnant women (57.2%) had mild anemia and the rest (42.8%) had moderate anemia. There were no severely anemic pregnant women in this study (Table 1). In general, the majority of pregnant women were 19–29 years, in their third trimester, having small family size and eating three times/day. Most of the pregnant women had basic and secondary education. Nonetheless, moderately anemic pregnant women had a higher proportion of maternal age less than 18 years old, basic education, meal frequency less than 2 times per day, and a lower proportion of tertiary education compared to mildly anemic pregnant women. The pregnancy stages show that, in trimester 1, pregnant women had a higher proportion of having mild anemia than older gestational age. In contrast, women in trimesters 2 and 3 had a higher proportion of suffering moderate anemia than in trimester 1. In total, moderately anemic pregnant women had a higher income than mildly anemic pregnant women (Table 1).

Pregnancy complication was not assessed in this study. However, health complaints in pregnancy showed that moderately anemic mothers have a higher proportion of having health complaints than mildly anemic mothers (Table 2). Common complaints in pregnancy by participants were back pain, feeling tired, having upper respiratory tract infection, headache, nausea/vomiting, decreasing appetite, constipation, and swollen feet.

3.1. Dietary Quantity. Generally, all anemic pregnant women were unable to fulfill the Recommended Dietary Allowance (RDA) for energy, protein, and micronutrients from food consumption. Pregnant women with moderate anemia had a higher proportion of inadequate nutrient intake than mildly anemic pregnant women. Table 3 shows that most of the pregnant women have low nutrition adequacy levels. The majority of anemic pregnant women had <70% energy adequacy level and <90% protein adequacy level. The protein adequacy level was slightly better

TABLE 1: Characteristics of anemic pregnant women.

| Variables | Anemia severity | | Total |
|-------------------------|-----------------|-----------|-----------|
| | Mild | Moderate | |
| Age (years) | | | |
| ≤18 | 2 (33.3) | 4 (66.7) | 6 (100) |
| 19–29 | 61 (59.8) | 41 (40.2) | 102 (100) |
| 30–49 | 24 (54.5) | 20 (45.5) | 44 (100) |
| Education level | | | |
| Basic (≤9 years) | 32 (48.5) | 34 (51.5) | 66 (100) |
| Secondary (10–12 years) | 34 (60.7) | 22 (39.3) | 56 (100) |
| Tertiary (>12 years) | 21 (70.0) | 9 (30.0) | 30 (100) |
| Family size | | | |
| Small (≤4 people) | 50 (58.8) | 35 (41.2) | 85 (100) |
| Medium (5–7 people) | 30 (54.5) | 25 (45.5) | 55 (100) |
| Large (>7 people) | 7 (58.3) | 5 (41.7) | 12 (100) |
| Income | | | |
| Quintile 1 | 24 (63.2) | 14 (36.8) | 38 (100) |
| Quintile 2 | 27 (71.1) | 11 (28.9) | 38 (100) |
| Quintile 3 | 19 (50.0) | 19 (50.0) | 38 (100) |
| Quintile 4 | 17 (44.7) | 21 (55.3) | 38 (100) |
| Pregnancy stages | | | |
| Trimester 1 | 8 (61.5) | 5 (38.5) | 13 (100) |
| Trimester 2 | 30 (54.5) | 25 (45.5) | 55 (100) |
| Trimester 3 | 49 (58.3) | 35 (41.7) | 84 (100) |
| Meal frequency | | | |
| ≤2x/day | 22 (47.8) | 24 (52.2) | 46 (100) |
| 3x/day | 55 (61.1) | 35 (38.9) | 90 (100) |
| ≥4x/day | 10 (62.5) | 6 (37.5) | 16 (100) |

TABLE 2: Health complaints of anemic pregnant women.

| Health complaints | Anemia severity | | Total |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------|-----------|-----------|
| | Mild | Moderate | |
| Back pain | | | |
| Yes | 54 (54.0) | 46 (46.0) | 100 (100) |
| No | 33 (63.5) | 19 (36.5) | 52 (100) |
| Feeling tired | | | |
| Yes | 48 (52.2) | 44 (47.8) | 92 (100) |
| No | 39 (65.0) | 21 (35.0) | 60 (100) |
| Upper respiratory tract infection | | | |
| Yes | 36 (50.7) | 35 (49.3) | 71 (100) |
| No | 51 (63.0) | 30 (37.0) | 81 (100) |
| Head ache | | | |
| Yes | 38 (54.3) | 32 (45.7) | 70 (100) |
| No | 49 (59.8) | 33 (40.2) | 82 (100) |
| Nausea/vomiting | | | |
| Yes | 35 (56.5) | 27 (43.5) | 62 (100) |
| No | 52 (57.8) | 38 (42.2) | 90 (100) |
| Decreasing appetite | | | |
| Yes | 28 (53.8) | 24 (46.2) | 52 (100) |
| No | 59 (59.0) | 41 (41.0) | 100 (100) |
| Constipation | | | |
| Yes | 14 (56.0) | 11 (44.0) | 25 (100) |
| No | 73 (57.5) | 54 (42.5) | 127 (100) |
| Swollen feet | | | |
| Yes | 5 (50.0) | 5 (50.0) | 10 (100) |
| No | 82 (57.7) | 60 (42.3) | 142 (100) |

compared to the energy adequacy level. Many of them had low micronutrient adequacy levels, such as vitamin A, vitamin C, calcium, and zinc. In contrast, most of them had a

TABLE 3: Nutrition adequacy level of anemic pregnant women.

| Nutrition adequacy level | Anemia severity | | Total | <i>p</i> value |
|--------------------------|-----------------|-----------|-----------|----------------|
| | Mild | Moderate | | |
| Energy | | | | |
| <70% RDA | 70 (59.8) | 47 (40.2) | 117 (100) | 0.636 |
| 70–79% RDA | 6 (35.3) | 11 (64.7) | 17 (100) | |
| 80–89% RDA | 3 (42.9) | 4 (57.1) | 7 (100) | |
| 90–110% RDA | 5 (100) | 0 (0) | 5 (100) | |
| >110% RDA | 3 (50.0) | 3 (50.0) | 6 (100) | |
| Protein | | | | |
| <70% RDA | 32 (55.2) | 26 (44.8) | 58 (100) | 0.880 |
| 70–79% RDA | 16 (64.0) | 9 (36.0) | 25 (100) | |
| 80–89% RDA | 8 (47.1) | 9 (52.9) | 17 (100) | |
| 90–110% RDA | 17 (56.7) | 13 (43.3) | 30 (100) | |
| >110% RDA | 14 (63.6) | 8 (36.4) | 22 (100) | |
| Vitamin A | | | | |
| <77% RDA | 52 (55.9) | 41 (44.1) | 93 (100) | 0.794 |
| ≥77% RDA | 35 (59.3) | 24 (40.7) | 59 (100) | |
| Vitamin C | | | | |
| <77% RDA | 54 (54.0) | 46 (46.0) | 100 (100) | 0.652 |
| ≥77% RDA | 33 (63.5) | 19 (36.5) | 52 (100) | |
| Calcium | | | | |
| <77% RDA | 73 (57.0) | 55 (43.0) | 128 (100) | 0.904 |
| ≥77% RDA | 14 (58.3) | 10 (41.7) | 24 (100) | |
| Iron | | | | |
| <77% RDA | 12 (40.0) | 18 (60.0) | 30 (100) | 0.148 |
| ≥77% RDA | 75 (61.5) | 47 (38.5) | 122 (100) | |
| Zinc | | | | |
| <77% RDA | 79 (56.8) | 60 (43.2) | 139 (100) | 0.955 |
| ≥77% RDA | 8 (61.5) | 5 (38.5) | 13 (100) | |

Mann–Whitney *U* Test ($\alpha < 0.05$).

good iron adequacy level. The high iron adequacy level was mostly contributed from the consumption of iron-folic supplement; only 15–20% of RDA was fulfilled by the food. The Mann–Whitney test shows no significant differences of nutrient adequacy level among mild and moderate anemia pregnant women.

3.2. Dietary Diversity. In total, more than half of anemic pregnant women had a diverse diet (consumed ≥ 5 food groups). Sample with mild anemia (62.5%) had a better dietary diversity than moderate anemia (37.5%) (Table 4). Staple foods, particularly rice and corn, were consumed by all respondents. The consumption of animal source foods such as meat, poultry, fish, and other kinds of seafood was relatively high compared to egg, milk, and dairy product consumption. Animal source food that was often consumed was fish. Milk was the only animal source food rarely consumed by the pregnant women.

Pulses, particularly soybean in form of tempeh and tofu, were consumed more than nuts and seeds. Peanut in form of peanut sauce added in traditional mixed dishes was popular food among people in the study area. The low consumption of vegetables and fruits was found in this study. Only half of the anemic pregnant women consumed dark-green leafy vegetables. Meanwhile, other vegetables and fruits, including vitamin A-rich fruits and vegetables, were consumed by less than 30%. Dark-green leafy vegetables usually consumed by pregnant women were moringa leaves, spinach, water

TABLE 4: Dietary diversity of anemic pregnant women.

| Variables | Anemia severity | | Total | <i>p</i> value |
|--|-----------------|-----------|-----------|----------------|
| | Mild | Moderate | | |
| Dietary diversity | | | | |
| <5 food groups | 32 (50) | 32 (50) | 64 (100) | 0.025 |
| ≥5 food groups | 55 (62.5) | 33 (37.5) | 88 (100) | |
| Staple foods (grains, roots, and tubers) | | | | |
| Yes | 87 (57.2) | 65 (42.8) | 152 (100) | 1.000 |
| No | 0 (0) | 0 (0) | 0 (0) | |
| Animal food | | | | |
| Meat, poultry, fish, and other seafoods | | | | |
| Yes | 69 (57.5) | 51 (42.5) | 120 (100) | 0.899 |
| No | 18 (56.3) | 14 (43.8) | 32 (100) | |
| Eggs | | | | |
| Yes | 44 (60.3) | 29 (39.7) | 73 (100) | 0.468 |
| No | 43 (54.4) | 36 (45.6) | 79 (100) | |
| Milk and dairy products | | | | |
| Yes | 13 (65) | 7 (35) | 20 (100) | 0.453 |
| No | 74 (56.1) | 58 (43.9) | 132 (100) | |
| Plant food | | | | |
| Pulses (beans, peas, and lentils) | | | | |
| Yes | 63 (57.8) | 46 (42.2) | 109 (100) | 0.824 |
| No | 24 (55.8) | 19 (44.2) | 43 (100) | |
| Nuts and seeds | | | | |
| Yes | 32 (59.3) | 22 (40.7) | 54 (100) | 0.709 |
| No | 55 (56.1) | 43 (43.9) | 98 (100) | |
| Vegetables and fruits | | | | |
| Dark-green leafy vegetables | | | | |
| Yes | 49 (62.8) | 29 (37.2) | 78 (100) | 0.154 |
| No | 38 (51.4) | 36 (48.6) | 74 (100) | |
| Vitamin A-rich fruits and vegetables | | | | |
| Yes | 26 (70.3) | 11 (29.7) | 37 (100) | 0.066 |
| No | 61 (53) | 54 (47) | 115 (100) | |
| Other vegetables | | | | |
| Yes | 30 (63.8) | 17 (36.2) | 47 (100) | 0.273 |
| No | 57 (54.3) | 48 (45.7) | 105 (100) | |
| Other fruits | | | | |
| Yes | 29 (61.7) | 18 (38.3) | 47 (100) | 0.458 |
| No | 58 (55.2) | 47 (44.8) | 105 (100) | |

Mann-Whitney *U* Test ($\alpha < 0.05$).

spinach, and cassava leaves. Other vegetables such as cucumber, bean sprouts, and cabbage were also popular among pregnant women. Vitamin A-rich fruits and vegetables most frequently consumed was the carrot (Table 4). The Mann-Whitney *U* test showed that pregnant women with mild anemia had better dietary diversity than moderate anemia ($p = 0.025$). Mildly anemic pregnant women consume more eggs (60.3%), milk and dairy product (65%), dark-green leafy vegetables (62.8%), vitamin A-rich fruits and vegetables (70.3%), other vegetables (63.8%), and other fruits (61.7%) compared with moderately anemic pregnant women.

The Spearman rank test revealed that family size ($p = 0.004$, $r = -0.160$) and gestational age ($p = 0.044$, $r = -0.164$) were negatively associated with dietary diversity. Meanwhile, energy, protein, vitamin A, vitamin C, and zinc adequacy levels were positively associated with dietary diversity among anemic pregnant women. In this study, maternal age, education level, income, meal frequency, calcium, and iron adequacy levels were not significantly associated with dietary diversity (Table 5).

4. Discussion

This study found that among 152 anemic pregnant women, 42.8% were moderately anemic. This proportion was lower than that of the pregnant women in Indonesia [3], rural India [17], and West and Central Africa Region [18]. Nonetheless, it was significantly higher than that of anemic pregnant women in North Sumatera, Indonesia [19]. Maternal anemia may have a negative effect on birth outcomes such as stillbirth, neonatal death, and low birth weight. The risk increases with anemia severity [17].

This cross-sectional study discovered that family size, gestational age, and nutrient adequacy (energy, protein, vitamin A, vitamin C, and zinc) were associated with dietary diversity among anemic pregnant women. The anemic pregnant women with smaller family size and younger gestational age tended to have a more diverse diet. Larger family size was negatively associated with dietary diversity. A study by Gigatia et al. [20] in high-potential agricultural areas in

TABLE 5: Association between characteristics and dietary quantity with dietary diversity of anemic pregnant women.

| Variables | Median (IQR) | <i>r</i> | <i>p</i> |
|------------------------------|-------------------|---------------|--------------|
| Age (years) | 25 (8) | 0.055 | 0.497 |
| Education level (years) | 12 (3) | 0.117 | 0.152 |
| Family size (people) | 4 (2) | -0.160 | 0.048 |
| Income (IDR/cap/month) | 451,785 (350,397) | 0.125 | 0.125 |
| Meal frequency (x/day) | 3 (1) | 0.077 | 0.343 |
| Gestational age (months) | 26 (10) | -0.164 | 0.044 |
| Energy adequacy level (%) | 57.6 (23.9) | 0.177 | 0.029 |
| Protein adequacy level (%) | 76.6 (42.2) | 0.238 | 0.003 |
| Vitamin A adequacy level (%) | 51.4 (115.5) | 0.263 | 0.001 |
| Vitamin C adequacy level (%) | 50.1 (79.5) | 0.233 | 0.004 |
| Calcium adequacy level (%) | 28.6 (47.4) | 0.143 | 0.078 |
| Iron adequacy level (%) | 181.8 (89.9) | 0.103 | 0.206 |
| Zinc adequacy level (%) | 34.9 (27.7) | 0.197 | 0.015 |

Spearman's rank correlation ($\alpha < 0.05$).

Kenya found that the number of household members could affect dietary diversity through intra-household distribution and limited access to consumption of various kinds of food groups.

Pregnant women in their first trimester had a higher dietary diversity compared to those in the second and third trimester. Suffering nausea and vomiting, decreasing appetite, and feeling tired in early pregnancy were common complaints among anemic pregnant women. Therefore, pregnant women in trimester 1 consume food not causing nausea in small amount. Based on food recall, women in early pregnancy tend to consume small amount of traditional mixed dishes that contain more than 3 food groups like *rujak lontong*, *rujak buah*, and *es campur*. These dishes contain fruits and vegetables, grains, meat, poultry, and fish. Higher consumption of milk, meat product, and eggs was also found among women in their first trimester. Pregnant women in the second and third trimesters consume traditional mixed dishes in greater amount but low proportion of consumption of milk, meat product, and eggs. Pregnant women who consumed ≥ 4 food groups during pregnancy had a lower risk of anemia, low birth weight, and preterm delivery [12]. Based on severity, mildly anemic had a more diverse diet than moderately anemic pregnant women. Mildly anemic pregnant women consume more animal protein (eggs, milk, and dairy product), vegetables, and fruits than moderately anemic pregnant women. The result of the study implies that diverse food consumption needs to be taken into account by pregnant women particularly with moderate anemia.

Similar to our study, Ali et al. in Pakistan [21] also found that age, education level, and income were not significantly correlated with dietary diversity. However, it had a different result with Kiboi et al. in Kenya [13]. It might occur because of the differences in the samples used. The respondents in this study were anemic pregnant women, while other studies used a combined sample of anemic and nonanemic pregnant women.

The present study showed that nutrient adequacy (energy, protein, vitamin A, vitamin C, and zinc) was positively correlated with dietary diversity. High dietary diversity can lead to

adequate nutrient intake. More than half of anemic pregnant women reached their minimum dietary diversity with a median of five food groups. The dietary diversity was lower than that of pregnant women in Kenya [13] but higher than that of pregnant women in Bangladesh [22]. The pregnant women had given attention to minimum dietary diversity but not the dietary quantity. The anemic pregnant women mostly consumed cereals, animal food (fish), and pulses (tempeh and tofu), dark-green leafy vegetables, and eggs. Dietary recall data revealed that pregnant women in Madura were used to consume mixed dishes such as *lontong campur*, *ketupat sayur*, *lontong mie*, *rujak lontong*, *rujak buah*, and *es campur*. These traditional mixed dishes contain more than two or three food groups. The Indonesian Dietary Guidelines strongly recommend the importance of consuming a variety of foods needed to fulfill the nutritional needs [23].

Pregnant women were advised to consume many kinds of food sources of carbohydrates, protein, vitamins, and minerals such as rice and rice corn (*nasi jagung*), fish, pulses (tempeh and tofu), vegetables, and fruits [24]. Low consumption of milk needs to be a concern for pregnant women. Milk is a good source of protein and minerals. A prospective cohort study by Olsen et al. [25] revealed that milk consumption was associated with higher birth weight. However, Melnik et al. [26] were concerned about the increasing birth weight that could be a risk factor for the development of civilization diseases. Therefore, they suggested defining save upper limits for milk consumption during pregnancy, particularly for women with high prepregnancy BMIs.

Adequate nutrition is needed by pregnant women. However, low dietary quantity was prevalent among anemic pregnant women in this study. A systematic review by Harika et al. in African countries also found inadequate intakes of micronutrients among pregnant women [27]. Most of nutrient adequacy levels were below the recommendation, except for iron. Anemic pregnant women mostly ate ≤ 3 times/day. Based on 2×24 -h dietary recall, the small eating portion was commonly found among respondents. The majority of pregnant women only consumed food sources of carbohydrates with side dishes (e.g., tofu and tempeh) or with small slices of fish or chicken egg. Nutritional requirements during pregnancy increased due to physiological, metabolic, and anatomic changes. The additional requirements were used for the formation of new cells and tissues and also to fulfill the need for energy to support the activities of pregnant women and the fetus growth [28].

The iron adequacy level was the only micromineral fulfilled by pregnant women. The consumption of iron-folic acid (IFA) supplement increases the iron adequacy level. Food contributes only 15–20% to iron adequacy level. During pregnancy, the pregnant women in Indonesia receive 90 IFA tablets for free from health personnel to anticipate anemia. Multivitamin and multi-micronutrient supplementation can be one of the alternatives in solving the nutritional problem among pregnant women instead of only distributing IFA supplement. Based on the Cochrane database of systematic reviews, pregnant women who received multi-micronutrient supplementation had fewer low-birth-weight infants and small-for-gestational-age (SGA) infants than those receiving

only iron supplementation, with or without folic acid. Therefore, the replacement of iron and folic acid with multi-micronutrient supplements for pregnant women in low- and middle-income countries where multi-micronutrient deficiencies are prevalent among women is important [29]. Pense et al. stated in their review that multi-micronutrient supplement reduced the risk of low birth weight and SGA but had no significant effect on preterm birth, miscarriage, stillbirth, and overall neonatal mortality [30]. The WHO has stated that multi-micronutrient supplementation is not recommended for pregnant women to improve maternal and perinatal outcomes. However, the use of the supplement in a population with a high prevalence of nutrient deficiencies may need to be considered because the benefits of the multi-micronutrient supplement for maternal health outweigh its disadvantages [31]. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention recommend the multivitamin supplementation for pregnant women who do not consume an adequate diet [30].

4.1. Study Limitation. This descriptive study revealed no severe anemic pregnant women. Therefore, this study cannot describe the dietary quantity and diversity in all anemia categories. Dietary recall depends on participants' memory and elaboration of food or household size. Therefore, food recall was done by the trained nutritionist in nonconsecutive days using the food picture book. Probing with daily activity also done by the enumerators to help the participants remember the food they were consume. Analytical study that includes all anemia severity (mild-severe) among pregnant women with another dietary assessment method (food weighing) can be a prospective study in order to understand the correlation of dietary quantity and diversity.

5. Conclusion

Poor dietary quantity among mild and moderate anemic pregnant women was common in this study. Consumption of low dietary diversity was associated with energy, and macro- and micronutrients. Anemic pregnant women with moderate anemia, in their third trimester, and those with a large family are vulnerable to have a low dietary diversity and quantity. Attention needs to focus on increasing consumption of animal protein (eggs, milk, and dairy product), vegetables, and fruits with enough quantity, so the fulfillment of nutrient adequacy can be achieved.

Data Availability

The data used to support this article are available at RIN Dataverse (<https://data.lipi.go.id>).

Conflicts of Interest

All authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to thank to Neys-van Hoogstraten Foundation, the Netherlands, for funding this study and all

the midwives in Sumenep District, Madura Island, Indonesia, for their assistance in the data collection. This research was funded by Neys-van Hoogstraten Foundation, the Netherlands, under research project grant IN282.

References

- [1] A. Gupta and A. Gadipudi, "Iron deficiency anaemia in pregnancy: developed versus developing countries," *European Medical Journal Hematology*, vol. 6, no. 1, pp. 101–109, 2018.
- [2] The World Bank, "Prevalence of anemia among pregnant women (%)," 2019, <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/sh.prg.anem?end=2016&start=1990&view=chart>.
- [3] Ministry of Health, *Basic Health Survey 2018*, Ministry of Health Indonesia, Jakarta, Indonesia, 2018.
- [4] Q. Zhang, C. V. Ananth, Z. Li, and J. C. Smulian, "Maternal anaemia and preterm birth: a prospective cohort study," *International Journal of Epidemiology*, vol. 38, no. 5, pp. 1380–1389, 2009.
- [5] M. Lebso, A. Anato, and E. Loha, "Prevalence of anemia and associated factors among pregnant women in southern Ethiopia: a community based cross-sectional study," *PLoS One*, vol. 12, no. 12, Article ID e0188783, 2017.
- [6] C. E. Taner, A. Ekin, U. Solmaz et al., "Prevalence and risk factors of anemia among pregnant women attending a high-volume tertiary care center for delivery," *Journal of the Turkish German Gynecological Association*, vol. 16, no. 4, pp. 231–236, 2015.
- [7] FAO, & FHI, *Minimum Dietary Diversity for Women: A Guide to Measurement*, FAO, Rome, Italy, 2016.
- [8] M. L. Bayrak Erpala, A. J. Hure, L. Macdonald-wicks, R. Smith, and C. E. Collins, "Systematic review and meta-analysis of energy and macronutrient intakes during pregnancy in developed countries," *Nutrition Reviews*, vol. 70, no. 6, pp. 322–336, 2012.
- [9] M. L. Blumfield, A. J. Hure, L. Macdonald-wicks, R. Smith, and C. E. Collins, "A systematic review and meta-analysis of micronutrient intakes during pregnancy in developed countries," *Nutrition Reviews*, vol. 71, no. 2, pp. 118–132, 2013.
- [10] B. A. Italian, F. Marangoni, I. Cetin et al., "Maternal diet and nutrient requirements in pregnancy and breastfeeding. An Italian consensus document," *Nutrients*, vol. 8, no. 10, 629 pages, 2016.
- [11] C. Nguyen, D. Hoang, P. Nguyen et al., "Low dietary intakes of essential nutrients during pregnancy in Vietnam," *Nutrients*, vol. 10, no. 8, 1025 pages, 2018.
- [12] T. A. Zerfu, M. Umata, and K. Baye, "Dietary diversity during pregnancy is associated with reduced risk of maternal anemia, preterm delivery, and low birth weight in a prospective cohort study in rural Ethiopia," *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, vol. 103, no. 6, pp. 1482–1488, 2016.
- [13] W. Kiboi, J. Kimiywe, and P. Chege, "Determinants of dietary diversity among pregnant women in Laikipia County, Kenya: a cross-sectional study," *BMC Nutrition*, vol. 3, no. 12, pp. 1–8, 2017.
- [14] Y. Rosmalina and E. Luciasari, "The quality and food diversity of pregnant women in Indonesia," *Penelitian Gizi Dan Makanan*, vol. 39, no. 1, pp. 65–73, 2016.
- [15] Ministry of Health, *Recommended Dietary Allowances for Indonesian People*, Ministry of Health Indonesia, Jakarta, Indonesia, 2014.

- [16] WHO, *Haemoglobin Concentrations for the Diagnosis of Anaemia and Assessment of Severity*, WHO, Geneva, Switzerland, 2011, <http://www.who.int/vmnis/indicators/haemoglobin.pdf>.
- [17] A. Patel, A. A. Prakash, P. K. Das, S. Gupta, Y. V. Pusdekar, and P. L. Hibberd, "Maternal anemia and underweight as determinants of pregnancy outcome: cohort study in eastern rural Maharashtra, India," *BMJ Open*, vol. 8, no. 8, Article ID e021623, pp. 1–15, 2018.
- [18] M. A. Ayoya, M. A. Bendeck, N. M. Zagr e, and F. Tchibindat, "Maternal anaemia in west and central Africa: time for urgent action," *Public Health Nutrition*, vol. 15, no. 5, pp. 916–927, 2011.
- [19] S. Lestari, I. Fujiati, D. Keumalasari, M. Daulay, S. Martina, and S. Syarifaj, "The prevalence of anemia in pregnant women and its associated risk factors in north Sumatera, Indonesia," in *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science*, vol. 125, Article ID 012195, IOP Publishing, 2018.
- [20] M. W. Gitagia, R. C. Ramkat, D. M. Mituki, C. Termote, N. Covic, and M. J. Cheserek, "Determinants of dietary diversity among women of reproductive age in two different agro-ecological zones of Rongai Sub-County, Nakuru, Kenya," *Food & Nutrition Research*, vol. 63, p. 1553, 2019.
- [21] F. Ali, I. Thaver, and S. A. Khan, "Assessment of dietary diversity and nutritional status of pregnant women in Islamabad, Pakistan," *Journal of Ayub Medical College Abbottabad*, vol. 26, no. 4, pp. 506–509, 2014.
- [22] A. A. Shamim, S. R. Mashreky, T. Ferdous et al., "Pregnant women diet quality and its sociodemographic determinants in southwestern Bangladesh," *Food and Nutrition Bulletin*, vol. 37, no. 1, pp. 14–26, 2016.
- [23] Ministry of Health, *Balance Nutrition Guidelines*, Ministry of Health Indonesia, Jakarta, Indonesia, 2014.
- [24] R. Diana, R. D. Rachmayanti, F. Anwar, A. Khomsan, and D. F. Christiani, "Food taboos and suggestions among Madurese pregnant women: a qualitative study," *Journal of Ethnic Foods*, vol. 5, no. 4, pp. 246–253, 2018.
- [25] S. F. Olsen, T. I. Halldorsson, W. C. Willett et al., "Milk consumption during pregnancy is associated with increased infant size at birth: prospective cohort study," *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, vol. 86, no. 4, pp. 1104–1110, 2007.
- [26] B. C. Melnik, S. M. John, and G. Schmitz, "Milk consumption during pregnancy increases birth weight, a risk factor for the development of diseases of civilization," *Journal of Translational Medicine*, vol. 13, no. 13, pp. 1–13, 2015.
- [27] R. Harika, M. Faber, F. Samuel, J. Kimiywe, A. Mulugeta, and A. Eilander, "Micronutrient status and dietary intake of iron, vitamin A, iodine, folate and zinc in women of reproductive age and pregnant women in Ethiopia, Kenya, Nigeria and South Africa: a systematic review of data from 2005 to 2015," *Nutrients*, vol. 9, no. 10, 1096 pages, 2017.
- [28] L. Mahan and J. Raymond, *Krause's Food & Nutrition Care Process*, Elsevier, St. Louis, MO, USA, 14th edition, 2017.
- [29] B. Haider and Z. Bhutta, "Multiple-micronutrient supplementation for women during pregnancy," *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*, vol. 4, 2017.
- [30] J. Pense, J. O. Neher, G. Kelsberg, V. Family, and M. Residency, "FPIN's clinical inquiries micronutrient supplementation during pregnancy," *American Family Physician*, vol. 92, no. 3, pp. 222–224, 2015.
- [31] World Health Organization, *WHO Recommendations on Antenatal Care for a Positive Pregnancy Experience*, WHO Press, Geneva, Switzerland, 2016.



Hindawi

Submit your manuscripts at
www.hindawi.com

