# Can nutrition education improve nutritional status in pregnant women?

Mahsa Mohajeri<sup>1</sup>, Ali Barzegar<sup>1</sup>, Ali Nemati<sup>2</sup>, Peghah Rafati<sup>1</sup>

Correspondence to: Mahsa Mohajeri, mahsa.mohajeri.93@gmail.com

*Background*: Nutrition during pregnancy affects the health of the mother and the health and development of the fetus. The aim of this study was to evaluate the effect of a nutrition education program on the diet of pregnant women.

*Methods*: A total of 120 pregnant women (intervention group: 62, control group: 58) attending our centre at 16–35 weeks of pregnancy were enrolled in our study. A pretested questionnaire was used to collect data on demographics, job, age, medication use and educational level, and food records were collected weekly. Three similar educational sessions were held each week for 12 weeks. Data analysis was performed using SPSS software (version 16).

#### **Keywords**

Pregnant women Nutrition Education

*Results*: There were significant improvements in diet diversity (p=0.0001) and nutrient intake (p≤0.05) in the intervention group after the educational program.

Conclusion: Nutrition education can improve the diet of pregnant women.

## Introduction

Pregnancy is accompanied by many physiological changes in women [1]. The mother's health during this period can affect her quality of life and the health of the fetus [2]. Nutrition during pregnancy is very important as it affects the health of the mother and the health and development of the fetus. A poor diet during pregnancy is associated with maternal excess weight gain, pre-eclampsia, preterm birth and even miscarriage [3]. In addition, excess weight gain and a low quality diet, particularly among obese women during pregnancy, have been identified as risk factors for abnormal glucose tolerance in the mother [4]. Poor infant outcomes have also been linked with poor maternal nutrition. These include poor development, low birth weight and an increased risk of developing chronic diseases later in life.

<sup>1</sup>Department of Nutrition, Tabriz University of Medical Science, Tabriz, Iran

<sup>2</sup>Department of Nutrition, Ardebil University of Medical Sciences, Ardebil, Iran; Tel: +98 9143594134

<sup>3</sup>Department of Health, Ardebil University of Medical Science, Ardebil, Iran Adult diseases proposed to have a fetal origin and linked with nutrition during pregnancy include cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, and issues associated with bone mass [5]. However, women show an increased awareness of nutrition status during pregnancy [6] as they know that their nutrition is important for the health of their babies [7]. Nevertheless, research suggests that pregnant women may not be receiving nutrition advice from their healthcare providers during pregnancy [8]. Studies also have reported that pregnant women are unaware of the availability of educational material (even when provided to them) unless emphasized by health professionals [9]. Nutrition education during pregnancy has been shown to be associated with positive pregnancy outcomes [4, 10] and the role of midwives in nutrition education is being increasingly recognized [11].

Currently there are limited data on the effects of nutrition education on diet diversity and nutrient intake during pregnancy. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the efficacy of a nutrition education program for pregnant women.

## **Materials and Methods**

This was a quasi-experimental (interventional) study conducted in 2011 among pregnant women in Ardebil who were attending urban health centres for prenatal care at Nutrafoods (2018) 17:23-26

16–35 weeks of pregnancy. A total of 120 pregnant women were alternately classified into an intervention group (62) or a control group (58).

Using a pretested questionnaire, a trained interviewer collected information on demographics, jobs, age, medication use and educational level. Food records were collected each week and the number of daily portions of each of five food groups was calculated.

## Intervention

Three similar educational sessions were held each week so that the women could choose which session was most convenient for them. They were not allowed to attend more than one session per week. With the aim of encouraging positive dietary practices during pregnancy, the nutritionist used PowerPoint, discussed the food groups, and gave the women one small book and a CD that explained the food groups and their importance for the body [12]. The educational program lasted 12 weeks.

### Measuring dietary diversity

Dietary diversity is the number of food groups consumed by an individual in a given period [13]. Data on the food intake of the subjects were collected using individual food records. Data analysis was performed using SPSS software (version 16). Data were analyzed using the independent sample *t*-test and paired samples *t*-test for comparing normal quantitative data. Descriptive statistical analysis (mean, standard error) was used to report normal quantitative data. The data were tested for normality with the Kolmogorov–Smirnov sample test. Non-normative quantitative data were compared using the Mann–Whitney test and Wilcoxon test. In all analyses, p<0.05 was considered significant. Nutrients were analyzed using Nutritionist IV software, which was modified for Iranian foods.

## Results

Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics of the study participants. There were no significant differences between the two groups.

Table 2 indicates the nutrient intake of the study population before and after the educational program. In intervention group, there were significant difference in fibre, iron, calcium, vitamin C, B<sub>12</sub>, B<sub>1</sub>, B<sub>5</sub>, B<sub>9</sub> and macronutrient intake before and after the program (p<0.05). No significant differences in nutrients were seen in the control group. The results of this study indicate that nutrition education had a positive impact on the diet of pregnant women and imply that such women lack adequate information on nutrient intake and health practices. This finding is in agreement with the study of Akeredolu et al [14] who suggested that nutrition education in pregnancy can improve pregnancy outcomes. In addition, Girard and Olude [15] observed that health workers often lack adequate information to counsel pregnant and lactating women on how to meet their increased nutrient requirements and are also uncertain on how to translate general requirements into individual recommendations. Our results showed that after the educational program, women in the intervention group had a better diet than those in the control group (Table 3). Meyers et al conducted a pilot study to assess the impact of a small-group, behaviourbased brief education intervention on food-buying habits and diet. Their results indicated that a brief intervention can have a positive impact on the dietary and food-buying habits of low-income, at-risk adolescents [16]. A longitudinal study of Spanish adolescents also showed that an ongoing classroom-based nutrition education intervention was successful in reducing obesity and improving various measures of metabolic function [17].

#### Limitations

The main limitation of the study was the lack of blinded randomization. Another limitation was that the amount of food consumed was declared but not verified, so the women could have given good answers to show that they had understood the lessons but without really changing their dietary habits.

## Conclusion

Nutritional education delivered to pregnant women can improve their dietary status. Consequently, nutritionists in health centres could help improve the nutritional status of pregnant women.

Variable	Intervention group (n=62)	Control group (n=58)	p Value*	
Age (years)	30.28±16.17	29.87±4.84	0.08	
Weight (kg)	66.70±10.39	67.04±12.14	0.07	
Height (cm)	160±23.30	159±30.23	0.185	
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	26.01±4.46	25.08±9.54	0.250	

\*Based on the independent t-test

 Table 1 - Baseline characters in the study population

#### **ORIGINAL RESEARCH**

Nutrients	Intervention group			Control group			<i>p</i> Value <sup>b</sup>
	Before	After	p Value <sup>a</sup>	Before	After	p Valueª	
Energy (kcal/day)	1787±356.4	1675.7±408.96	0.011	1342.01±162.01	1346.7±408.96	0.39	0.02
Carbohydrates (g/day)	235.5±70.06	225.66±51.21	0.00	225.26±64.35	225.66±51.21	0.12	0.10
Protein (g/day)	65.93±19.72	72.48±18.21	0.03	129.3±27.5	130.02±18.25	0.17	0.04
Fat (g/day)	69.07±19.11	73.21±16.23	0.03	74.05±19.71	74.31±16.85	0.35	0.05
Fibre (g/day)	11.22±3.29	14.71±3.59	0.00	14.33±1.97	14.29±0.25	0.27	0.07
Vitamin A (µg/day)	498.90±44.89	948.30±77.19	0.00	633.88±54.44	972.08±98.83	0.00	0.04
Vitamin B <sub>1</sub> (mg/day)	13.86±1.09	10.22±0.20	0.02	14.69±0.010	14.36±0.25	0.33	0.00
Vitamin B <sub>2</sub> (mg/day)	0.98±0.05	1.31±0.35	0.00	2.76±0.79	2.68±0.25	0.17	0.02
Vitamin B <sub>5</sub> (mg/day)	1.93±0.14	2.90±0.97	0.00	2.54±1.06	3.5±0.12	0.02	0.01
Vitamin B <sub>6</sub> (mg/day)	0.720±0.215	0.976±0.01	0.00	0.720±0.215	0.730±0.03	0.562	0.00
Vitamin B <sub>9</sub> (µg/day)	73.31±14.15	138.12±32.82	0.00	73.31±14.15	73.56±16.26	0.082	0.00
Vitamin B <sub>12</sub> (µg/day)	0.867±0.12	2.13±0.86	0.04	0.867±0.12	0.850±0.16	0.14	0.00
Vitamin C (mg/day)	65.40±12.28	74.24±4.38	0.02	65.40±12.28	65.56±10.09	0.092	0.04
Vitamin E (mg/day)	19.86±4.37	19.01±3.43	0.81	19.86±3.43	19.68±4.32	0.81	0.24
Calcium (mg/day)	422.7±20.16	748.37±25.14	0.00	701.13±192.96	700.06±156.32	0.60	0.01
Iron (mg/day)	19.46±6.48	18.14±3.62	0.05	20.51±0.972	20.02±0.814	0.16	0.00
<sup>a</sup> Based on the paired sampl	e <i>t</i> -test						

<sup>b</sup>Based on the independent sample *t*-test

 Table 2 - Nutrient status in the study groups before and after education

	Diet diversity before intervention	Diet diversity after intervention	p Value*		
Control	2.02±0.79	2.04±0.73	0.072		
Intervention	2.82±0.79	4.41±0.70	0.0001		
<sup>a</sup> Based on the paired sample <i>t</i> -test					

Table 3 - Diet diversity of the study groups

### **Conflict of Interest**

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

## Acknowledgements

The authors gratefully acknowledge Ardebil University of Medical Sciences for their financial support and the women who participate in this study.

#### **REFERENCES**

- Arrishm J, Yeatman H, Williamson M (2014) Midwives and nutrition education during pregnancy: a literature review. Women Birth 27(1):2–8
- Leach L (2011) Placental vascular dysfunction in diabetic pregnancies: intimations of fetal cardiovascular disease? Microcirculation 18(4):263–269

- McMillen C, MacLaughlin S, Muhlhausler B, Gentili S, Jaime L, Duffield J *et al* (2008) Developmental origins of adult health and disease: the role of periconceptional and foetal nutrition. Basic Clin Pharmacol Toxicol 102:82–89
- Streuling I, Beyerlein A, von Kries R (2010) Can gestational weight gain be modified by increasing physical activity and diet counseling? A meta-analysis of interventional trials. Am J Clin Nutr 92(4):678–687
- Jones SC, Telenta J, Shorten A, Johnson K (2011) Midwives and pregnant women talk about alcohol: what advice do we give and what do they receive? Midwifery 27(4):489–496
- Davis DL, Raymond JE, Clements V, Adams C, Mollart LJ, Teate AJ *et al* (2012) Addressing obesity in pregnancy: the design and feasibility of an innovative intervention in NSW, Australia. Women Birth 25(4):174–180

- Wilkinson SA, Tolcher D (2010) Nutrition and maternal health: what women want and can we provide it? Nutr Diet 67(1):18–25
- Begley A (2002) Barriers to good nutrient intakes during pregnancy: a qualitative analysis. Nutr Diet 59(3):175–181
- Szwajcer EM, Hiddink GJ, Koelen MA, van Woerkum CM (2009) Written nutrition communication in midwifery practice: what purpose does it serve? Midwifery 25(5):509–517
- Garg A, Kashyap S (2006) Effect of counseling on nutritional status during pregnancy. Indian J Pediatr 73(8):687–692
- Arrish J, Yeatman H, Williamson M (2016) Australian midwives and provision of nutrition education during pregnancy: a cross sectional survey of nutrition knowledge, attitudes, and confidence. Women Birth 29(5):455–464
- Mohajeri M, Sepahi S, Nemati1 A, Iranpour F (2016) Can nutrition education in primary school students affect dietary habits? Nutrafoods 15(3):213–217

- Mohajeri M, Nemati A, Khademhaghighian H, Iranpour F, Mobini S (2015) Relationships between dietary diversity and nutritional status among primary school students in Ardebil. J Health 6(1):69–76
- 14. Akeredolu I, Osisanya J, Okafor J, Seriki-Mosadolorun J (2014) Pregnancy outcomes of women in Lagos state: is nutrition education responsible? Pakistan J Nutr 13(1):7
- Girard AW, Olude O (2012) Nutrition education and counselling provided during pregnancy: effects on maternal, neonatal and child health outcomes. Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol 26(S1):191–204
- Meyers M, Mount M, Ammerman S (2014) Positive impact of a brief nutrition education intervention on underserved adolescents: a pilot study. J Child Adolesc Behav 2(161):2
- Gatto N, Martinez L, Spruijt Metz D, Davis J (2017) La sprouts randomized controlled nutrition, cooking and gardening programme reduces obesity and metabolic risk in Hispanic/Latino youth. Pediatr Obes 12(1):28–37

# Assessment of nutritional risk factors predisposing to autism among Saudi children

Sahar A. Ibrahim Hammouda<sup>1</sup>, Azza Abd El Hafiz Al areefy<sup>2</sup>, Anwar Al-Thbiany<sup>1</sup>, Shimaa Farghal<sup>1</sup>, Ghaidaa Al-Harbi<sup>1</sup>, Maha Abduallah<sup>1</sup>, Reem Al-Rehaly<sup>1</sup>, Ghadeer Al-Johani<sup>1</sup>

Correspondence to: Azza Abd El Hafiz Alareefy, Azza\_hafiz@hotmail.com

*Introduction*: Autism is a neurodevelopmental condition of unknown aetiology which is usually diagnosed in the first 3 years of life. Several studies have linked reduced intake of some nutrients with autism and autism spectrum disorder (ASD).

*Objective*: To identify nutritional risk factors that predispose to autism among preschool and school children living in Al-Madinah Al-Monawarah city in Saudi Arabia.

*Method*: Thirty children with autism/ASD aged 2–12 years and 36 matched control children were compared regarding BMI and food intake, using 24-hour recall and a food frequency questionnaire. *Results*: Both groups consumed similar amounts of carbohydrates, protein and other nutrients, many of which were below the international recommendations for children of their age. However, children with autism/ASD also consumed significantly less omega-3 and iron than the control group.

Keywords
Autism
Autism spectrum disorder
Diet
Omega-3
Iron

*Conclusions*: Children with ASD, like other children in Saudi Arabia, consume less than the recommended amounts of some nutrients. Autistic children have reduced intake of omega-3 and iron, together with limited intake of many food varieties which could be linked to autism in susceptible children.

# Introduction

Autism is a neurodevelopmental condition which is usually diagnosed in the first 3 years of life.

Its features include abnormal or impaired social interaction and communication and a restricted repertoire of activity and interests. Manifestations of the disorder vary greatly depending on the developmental level and age of the individual [1].

Genetic factors seem to be important in the aetiology of autism. However, genetics alone cannot explain the 870% increase in the number of autism cases between 1990 and 2000 [2]. This leaves nutrients and toxins interacting with genetic factors as the most likely causes of this condition.

Deficiency in several nutrients including omega-3 fatty ac-

<sup>1</sup>Clinical Nutrition Department, Faculty of Applied Medical Sciences, Taibah University, Medina, Saudi Arabia <sup>2</sup>Clinical Nutrition Department, The Universal College Abo Reesh, Jazan University, Jazan, Saudi Arabia ids, vitamin D, folic acid and vitamin B12, has been implicated in causing autism [3].

Autism was unknown in ancient times and was first described only in 1943. Prevalence estimates have increased over the last two decades and range from 0.7 per 10,000 population to 72.6 per 10,000 with a mean of 20.6 per 10,000. The mean male:female ratio is 4.2:1 [4].

In the Arab world, prevalence ranges from 1.4 per 10,000 children in Oman and 4.3 per 10,000 in Bahrain, to 29 per 10,000 in the United Arab Emirates. These rates are lower than those in the developed world, which are 39 per 10,000 for autism and 77 per 10,000 for autism spectrum disorders (ASD). In Saudi Arabia, autism affects 60 in every 10,000 individuals [5–8].

## **Methods**

We hypothesize that insufficiency of some nutrients in genetically predisposed children may be a risk factor in the aetiology of ASD. Our objective was to identify nutritional risk factors that predispose to autism among preschool and school children living in Al-Madinah Al-Monawarah city in Saudi Arabia.