

# **Ghana Micronutrient Survey 2017 (GMS 2017)**

FINAL REPORT

Recommended Citation: University of Ghana, GroundWork, University of Wisconsin-Madison, KEMRI-WellcomeTrust, UNICEF. Ghana Micronutrient Survey 2017. Accra, Ghana; 2017

### **Survey collaborators**







### **KEMRI** Wellcome Trust

### **Funding agencies**





### **Technical partners**





# **Table of Contents**

F	DREV	VORD	12
E	KECU	JTIVE SUMMARY	13
1	INITE	RODUCTION	19
•	1.1.	Nutritional situation of young children and women in Ghana	
	1.2.	Fortification programs to combat micronutrient deficiencies in Ghana	
	1.3.	Rationale for the survey	
		Primary objectives and indicators	
		Secondary objectives and indicators	
2.		THODOLOGY	
		Survey design and sampling procedure	
		Sample size determination	
		Allocation of clusters by stratum	
		Study population	
		Ethical considerations	
	2.6.	Field work and data collection	
		2.6.1. Instrument pre-testing, training of survey teams and field testing	
		2.6.2. Community mobilization and sensitization	
		2.6.3. Household listing and random selection of households	
		2.6.4. Field work (interviews)	
		<ul><li>2.6.5. Field work (Anthropometry and phlebotomy)</li><li>2.6.6. Cold chain and processing of blood samples</li></ul>	
		2.6.7. Supervision of fieldwork	
	2.7.	Definitions of indicators and specimen analysis	
	۷./.	2.7.1. Anthropometric indicators	
		2.7.2. Blood specimens	
		2.7.3. Analysis of food and water samples	
	2.8.	Data management and analysis	
		2.8.1. Data entry	32
		2.8.2. Data monitoring	
		2.8.3. Data analysis	
		2.8.4. Case definitions of deficiency	
		2.8.5. Calculation of wealth index and socio-economic status	34
	DEO		0.5
ა.		ULTS Response rates for households, children, and women	
		Household characteristics	
	3.2.	3.2.1. Demographic characteristics	
		3.2.2. Agricultural activities and livestock ownership	
		3.2.3. Cooking fuel	
		3.2.4. Water and sanitation	
		3.2.5. Oil consumption and vitamin A content	

	3.2.6.	Wheat flour consumption and iron content	47
	3.2.7.	Iron in drinking water	50
3.3.	Presch	nool children	50
	3.3.1.	Characteristics	50
	3.3.2.	Low birth weight	51
	3.3.3.	Recent illness and treatment	51
	3.3.4.	Infant and young child feeding indicators	54
	3.3.5.	Consumption of vitamins and supplements	55
	3.3.6.	Stunting	56
	3.3.7.	Wasting	58
	3.3.8.	Underweight	58
	3.3.9.	Hemoglobinopathies	63
	3.3.10	. Anemia, iron deficiency, and iron deficiency anemia	65
	3.3.11.	Vitamin A deficiency	70
3.4.	All Wo	omen	71
	3.4.1.	Pregnancy and birth history	71
	3.4.2.	Knowledge and practices related to fortified vegetable oil and	
		wheat flour	
3.5.	Non-p	regnant women of reproductive age	73
	3.5.1.	Characteristics	73
	3.5.2.	Dietary diversity and consumption of vitamins and supplements	75
	3.5.3.	Anthropometry	76
	3.5.4.	Hemoglobinopathies	79
	3.5.5.	Malaria	81
	3.5.6.	Anemia, iron deficiency, and iron deficiency anemia	83
	3.5.7.	Vitamin A deficiency	87
	3.5.8.	Folate deficiency	88
	3.5.9.	B12 deficiency	90
3.6.	Pregn	ant women	91
		Characteristics	
	3.6.2.	Dietary diversity and consumption of vitamins and supplements	92
		Mid-upper arm circumference	
	3.6.4.	Malaria	93
	3.6.5.	Anemia	94
4. DIS	CUSSIC	ON AND CONCLUSIONS	95
5. REC	ОММЕ	NDATIONS	101
6. REF	ERENC	ES	103
APPEN	<b>IDICES</b>		-139

# **List of Figures**

Figure 1.	Flow diagram for participation of households, women and children, Ghana, 201735
Figure 2.	Coverage map of adequately fortified (≥10 ppm vitamin A) vegetable oil, Ghana 201746
Figure 3.	Weighted distribution of household vegetable oil vitamin A concentrations, Ghana 201747
Figure 4.	Weighted distribution of cluster wheat flour iron concentration, Ghana 201749
Figure 5.	Histogram of height-for-age z-scores of the GMS 2017 compared to the WHO growth curve, preschool-age children, Ghana 2017
Figure 6.	Prevalence of stunting by region, preschool-age children, Ghana 2017 57
Figure 7.	Histogram of weight-for-height z-scores of the GMS 2017 compared to the WHO growth curve, preschool-age children, Ghana 201759
Figure 8.	Histogram of weight-for-age z-scores of the GMS 2017 compared to the WHO growth curve, preschool-age children, Ghana 201759
Figure 9.	Venn diagram showing overlap between anemia and iron deficiency in children 6-59 months of age, Ghana 2017
Figure 10.	Histogram of hemoglobin concentration (g/L), preschool children, Ghana 201766
Figure 11.	The distribution of MRDR values from children in Ghana71
Figure 12.	Prevalence of underweight, normal weight, and overweight and obesity in non-pregnant women, Ghana 201776
Figure 13.	Prevalence of normal weight, overweight, and obesity in non-pregnant women by age group, Ghana77
Figure 14.	Histogram of hemoglobin concentration (g/L) in non-pregnant women of reproductive age, Ghana 201784
Figure 15.	Venn diagram showing overlap between anemia and iron deficiency in non-pregnant women of reproductive age, Ghana 2017
Figure 16:	The distribution of MRDR values from women in Ghana88

# **List of Tables**

Table 1.	Summary results of the Ghana Micronutrient Survey 2017	15
Table 2.	Inclusion criteria by targeted population group	25
Table 3.	Clinical cut-off points and classifications for biomarker indicators	34
Table 4.	Distribution of various demographic variables for participating	
	households, Ghana 2017	36
Table 5.	Distribution of household composition of participating households,	
		37
Table 6.	Educational level of household head for participating households,	
		38
Table 7.	Distribution of religion and language for participating households,	
		39
Table 8.	Proportion of livestock and agriculture variables for participating	
	•	40
Table 9.	Distribution of cooking fuel variables for participating households,	
	Ghana 2017	41
Table 10.	Distribution of water and sanitation variables for participating	
	,	42
Table 11.	Distribution of handwashing variables for participating households,	
		43
Table 12.	Presence of refined vegetable oil, brand and purchase pattern for	
		44
lable 13.	Proportion of vegetable oil specimens with a vitamin A	
	concentration ≥ 10 ppm in participating households and per brand,	4 -
T     44		45
Table 14.	Wheat flour product consumption and purchase pattern in	40
T     45	,	48
Table 15.	Proportion of wheat flour specimens with iron concentration	40
T-1-1- 10		49
Table 16.	Description of sampled pre-school age children (6 - 59 months),	
T-1-1- 47		50
Table 17.	Proportion of preschool age children with caregiver-reported diarrhea, .	
Table 10	fever, cough and measured inflammation, Ghana 2017.	
	Treatment of fever variables in children 6-59 months, Ghana 2017	52
Table 19.	Proportion testing positive on malaria rapid diagnostic test for	
	P. falciparum and other Plasmodium species in children 6-59 months	EO
Table 20	of age, by various characteristics, Ghana 2017	53
Table 20.	Proportion of children with various infant and young child feeding	E 1
Table 21	indicators in children 6 - 23 months of age, Ghana 2017	54
Table 21.	Proportion of children 6-59 months of age consuming RUTF, vitamins	E
Table 22	and mineral supplements, Ghana 2017.	
	Percentage of children (6-59 months) with stunting, Ghana 2017	
	Percentage of children (6-59 months) with wasting, Ghana 2017	
	Percentage of children (6-59 months) underweight, Ghana 2017 Prevalence of hemoglobinopathies in children 6-59 months,	UΖ
ianie 20.	Ghana 2017Ghana 2017	62
	Ulialia ZVI/	US

Table 26.	Sickle cell trait), α-thalassemia (heterozygote and homozygote)	
	in children 6-59 months of age, Ghana 2017	.64
Table 27.	Anemia, iron deficiency, and iron deficiency anemia in pre-school age	
	children 6-59 months of age, Ghana 2017.	. 67
Table 28.	Anemia, iron deficiency and iron-deficiency anemia in pre-school age	
	children 6-59 months of age, by RUTF and vitamin and mineral	
	supplement indicators, Ghana 2017	. 68
Table 29.	Anemia in pre-school age children 6-59 months of age, by	
	infection-related characteristics and vitamin A status, Ghana 2017	. 69
Table 30.	Proportion of children 6-59 months of age with vitamin A deficiency,	
	by various characteristics, Ghana 2017.	.70
Table 31.	Distribution of pregnancy and birth variables in randomly selected	
	non-pregnant women 15-49 years of age and pregnant women	.72
Table 32.	Extent of knowledge about and use of fortified foods in all women	
14510 021	(non-pregnant 15-49 years of age and pregnant)	.73
Table 33.	Description of sampled non-pregnant women (15-49 years),	., 0
14510 001	Ghana 2017.	74
Table 34	Dietary diversity and vitamin/supplement consumption in	. , .
14510 0 11	non-pregnant women 15-49 years, Ghana 2017	75
Table 35	Mean Body Mass Index (BMI) and percentage of specific BMI levels	.,0
Table 55.	in non-pregnant women (15-49 years), Ghana 2017	78
Table 36	Prevalence of blood disorders in participating non-pregnant women,	
Table 50.	Ghana 20171.	
Table 37	Sickle cell trait and α-thalassemia (heterozygote and homozygote) in	. / J
Table 37	non-pregnant women, Ghana 2017	20
Tahla 38	Proportion testing positive on malaria rapid diagnostic test for	.00
Table 30.	Plasmodium ssp. in non- pregnant women, by various characteristics,	
	Ghana 2017Ghana 2017	.82
Table 30	Anemia, iron deficiency, and iron deficiency anemia in non-pregnant	.02
Table 55.	women (15-49 years), Ghana 2017	85
Table 40	Anemia, iron deficiency, and iron deficiency anemia in non-pregnant	.00
14016 40.	women (15-49 years) by supplement consumption and malaria status,	
	Ghana 2017	
Table //1	Vitamin A deficiency in non-pregnant women (15-49 years),	.00
	Ghana 2017.	27
Table 42	Serum folate deficiency in non-pregnant women (15-49 years),	.07
14016 42.	Ghana 2017aGhana 2017a	20
Tahla 13	Vitamin B12 deficiency in non-pregnant women (15-49 years),	.00
14016 45.	Ghana 2017 a	an
Table 44	Description of pregnant women, Ghana 2017	
	Food and vitamin supplement consumption in pregnant women,	. 9 1
Table 45.	Ghana 2017	ດາ
Table 46		.92
Table 40.	Mean mid-upper arm circumference (MUAC) and percentage	
	undernourished by various characteristics in pregnant women,	0.2
Table 47	Ghana 2017.	
	Malaria infection in pregnant women, Ghana 2017	
iabie 48.	Anemia in pregnant women, Ghana 2017	. 94

#### **INVESTIGATORS AND INSTITUTIONAL AFFILIATIONS**

Principal Investigators	Organization
Seth Adu-Afarwuah	Department of Nutrition and Food Science,
	University of Ghana-Legon
Fabian Rohner	GroundWork
Survey Coordinator	
Helena Bentil	Department of Nutrition and Food Science,
	University of Ghana-Legon
Investigators	
Matilda Steiner-Asiedu	Department of Nutrition and Food Science,
	University of Ghana-Legon
James P Wirth	GroundWork
Nicolai Petry	GroundWork
Bradley A Woodruff	GroundWork
Rita Wegmüller	GroundWork
SherryTanumihardjo	Department of Nutritional Sciences,
	University of Wisconsin-Madison
Laboratory Collaborators	
Thomas N Williams	KEMRI–Wellcome Trust Research Programme
Lindsay H Allen	USDA, Agricultural Research Service, Western
	Human Nutrition Research Center
Setti Shahab-Ferdows	USDA, Agricultural Research Service, Western
	Human Nutrition Research Center

#### **Survey collaborators:**

University of Ghana-Legon GroundWork University of Wisconsin-Madison KEMRI-Wellcome Trust Research Programme

### **Funding agencies:**

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) Global Affairs Canada

### **Technical partners:**

Ghana Health Service (GHS)

United States Department of Agriculture-Agricultural Research Service

### **Acknowledgements**

We are grateful to the many individuals and institutions whose support and commitment made this survey a reality:

- Parents and children who participated in the survey, for their cooperation and patience;
- UNICEF-Ghana and the Government of Canada for funding the survey; and Ms. Lilian Selenje, Dr. Victor Ngongalah and Mr. Abraham Mahama (UNICEF) for guidance and support during the survey proposal development and implementation;
- Ghana Health Service (GHS), especially Dr. Anthony Nsiah-Asare (Director General), Dr. Patrick Aboagye (Director, Family Health), and Ms. Esi Amoaful (Deputy Director, Nutrition), for support and overall guidance;
- Ghana Statistical Service (GSS), especially Ms. LucyTwumwaah Afriyie and Mr. Isaac Nyarko, for assisting with the selection of the enumeration areas and providing the cluster maps;
- Prof. Daniel Asiedu (Provost of the College of Basic and Applied Science) and Prof. Emmanuel Ohene Afoakwa (Head of the Department of Nutrition and Food Science), for their prompt responses in matters of administration concerning the survey within the University of Ghana;
- The Biomedical Technologists at the laboratories of the following hospitals and institutions for providing assistance with the cold storage of our blood samples: Mr. William Ofori Appawa at the Biochemistry Department of KNUST; Mr. Frank Asante at the Sunyani Regional Hospital; Mr Moses Banyeh at the Tamale Central Hospital; Mr. Henry Quarshie and Mrs. Josephine Akorful at the Essikado Government Hospital; Mr. Samuel Asiamah and Mr. James Allotey at the Suhum Government Hospital; Saltpond Government Hospital; Half Asini Government Hospital;
- All the team members including Supervisors: Mr. Humphrey Thompson; Mr. William Ekow Spio-Donkor; Mr. Joe Nyefene Dare and Mrs. Elizabeth Boahen; Team Leaders: Ms. Juliet Vickar; Mr. Obed Harrison; Mr. Emmanuel Kwabena Fumador; Ms. Elizabeth Duah; Mr. Felix Kweku Kyereh; Mr. Isaac Boadu; Mr. Yvon Galaa; Mr. Naapong Kuuberme Edward; Mr. Richard Apini and Mr. Prosper Chapu; Interviewers: Mr. Daniel Armo-Annor; Mr. Kofi Amissah Appiah; Ms. Evelyn Danso; Mr. Amatus Annienu Baghri; Mr. Wisdom Kodzo; Mr. Nyamedor Evans Courage; Ms. Olivia Anokye; Mr. Eric Annor; Mr. Silas Appiah; Mr. Atta Boakye Jnr.; Ms. Salomey Boakye; Mr. Ebenezer Alangura; Mr. Alidu Ismael Atote; Mr. John Adateesi Aganah; Ms. Abu-Naa Zahari Aminbo; Mr. Mohammed Awal; Mr. Alhassan Ridwan; Mr. Ibrahim Abdul-Rahman; Mr. Gyekuu-Der Nichodemus; Mr. Zuberu Osman and Mr. Hudu Alhassan; Anthropometrists: Mr. Mensah Oppong Daniel; Mr. Sydney Phixon-Owoo; Mr. Ignatius Great Sakada; Ms. Patience Anku; Mr. Frederick Gyimah Yeboah; Ms. Barbara Boye; Mr. Michael Wiafe Akenteng; Ms. Koblaji Florence Akua; Mr. James Boyele Dakurah; Mr. Ishawu Iddrisu and Mr. Sulemani Bapula Herrick; Phlebotomists: Mr. Frank Boadi; Mr. Dennis Papa Acquah; Ms. Seyram Yaa Attivor; Ms. Joyce Antwi; Mr. Lawrence Ohuapo-Agyemang; Mr. Samuel Boafo Budu; Ms. Grace Nkansah; Mr. Samuel KofiTchum; Mr. Nestor Kukpieng; Mr. Solomon Okyere Koi; Mr. Adams Batiadan Abdul-Hanif and Mr. Obed Sarfo; Data: Mr. Ebenezer Adjetey and Mr. Richard Kofi Azumah; Drivers: Mr. Kofi Nanevi and Mr. Kwame Anom.

### **Abbreviations**

**AGP** α-1-acid glycoprotein

BMI Body mass index C-reactive protein

**DHS** Demographic and Health Survey

**EA** Enumeration area

**ELISA** Enzyme linked immunosorbent assay

**ERC** Ethical Review Committee, Ghana Health Service

GHS Ghana Health Service

**GMS 2017** Ghana Micronutrient Survey 2017

GSS Ghana Statistical Service

**HAZ** Height-for-age z-score

MICS Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey

MoH Ministry of Health

MRDR Modified relative dose-response test

MUAC Mid-upper arm circumference

**NPW** Non-pregnant women (15-49 years)

ppm Parts per million

**PSC** Preschool-age children (6-59 months)

PW Pregnant women

RBP Retinol-binding protein
RDT Rapid diagnostic test
TfR Transferrin receptor

**UNICEF** United Nations Children's Fund

**WAZ** Weight-for-age z-score

WHO World Health Organization

WHZ Weight-for-height z-score

### **Foreword**

In Ghana, micronutrient malnutrition continues to affect many children under five years of age and women. Although some reductions in micronutrient deficiencies have been achieved over the last decade, the prevalence of anaemia and deficiencies of vitamin A and iodine are still high and of public health concern. Notable causes of anaemia and micronutrient deficiencies include inadequate intakes of foods rich in the micronutrients, infections such as repeated bouts of malaria and diarrhoeal diseases, worm infestations and genetically-inherited conditions such as sickle-cell and -thalassemia diseases.

Over the past decades, several programmes have been implemented by the Ghana Health Service and other government agencies, with technical and funding support from partners, to help address micronutrient malnutrition in Ghana. These include routine vitamin A supplementation for children 6-59 months of age, iron and folic acid (IFA) supplementation for pregnant women attending antenatal clinics, IFA supplementation for adolescent girls aged 10-19 years in selected regions, routine deworming for school-age children, food fortification with vitamin A and iron, and salt iodization among others.

The Ghana Demographic and Health Survey provides some data on micronutrient malnutrition, however a comprehensive national data on the micronutrient situation in Ghana, especially for the vulnerable groups; such as children under five years of age and women of reproductive age have largely been unavailable. Recognizing the need for an updated, representative and reliable national data on the nutritional status of children under five years and women of reproductive age, the National Micronutrients Task team led by the Ghana Health Service held several consultative meetings with development partners, which ultimately led to the conduct of the Ghana National Micronutrient Survey in 2017. This survey was conducted by a consortium led by the University of Ghana and GroundWork, with technical and funding support from UNICEF and the Government of Canada.

The findings show there has been some modest reduction in anaemia prevalence in both women of reproductive age and children. This is indeed heartwarming and a possible indication of the success of on-going health interventions to prevent and control anaemia. We however hasten to indicate concern over the wide regional disparity that exists and also remain disturbed about the findings that indicate high rates of stunting levels and the wide variation in between regions This trend needs our special attention. The generation of program data including findings on the National Food Fortification Program is also of interest and will be a guide for policy makers to use in strengthening implementation.

We are grateful to all who supported the Ghana Micronutrient Survey 2017 in diverse ways and look forward to working with partners to drive policy and interventions aimed at improving the nutritional and micronutrient status of the Ghanaian populace.

Dr. Patrick Kuma Aboagye The Director Family Health Ghana Health Service

### **Executive Summary**

#### Introduction

The African continent, in particular the sub-Saharan region, continues to be highly affected by malnutrition, which inhibits progress in human and economic development. In Ghana, despite two decades of sustained economic growth and reductions in some forms of malnutrition, progress on minimizing malnutrition, including micronutrient deficiencies, has been slow. Scarce data indicate that approximately 50% and 66% of non-pregnant and pregnant women and pre-school age children, respectively, suffer from anemia. Roughly 30% of pre-school children also suffer from iron and vitamin A deficiency. While 19% of children have been found to be stunted and 11% underweight in the 2014 Demographic and Health Survey (DHS), over 40% of women were found to be overweight or obese indicating the double burden of malnutrition is present in the Ghanaian population.

Currently, food fortification standards for iron, zinc, B-vitamins and vitamin A in wheat flour and vitamin A in vegetable oil exist in Ghana. Analyses conducted in 2011, however, showed that while 95% of oil samples in Ghana were adequately fortified (≥10 mg/kg for vitamin A), only 13% of wheat flour samples were adequately fortified (≥58.5 mg/kg for iron; [1]. Such low iron fortification levels in wheat flour and stability issues of retinyl palmitate added to vegetable oil, coupled with diets low in iron and provitamin A carotenoids, may be the reason for the high prevalence of anemia and vitamin A deficiencies in Ghana.

### **Objectives**

The objective of this survey was to obtain updated and reliable information on the nutrition and micronutrient status of children 6-59 months of age, non-pregnant women 15-49 years of age, and pregnant women in Ghana, to formulate evidence-based recommendations improving the nutritional status of vulnerable groups.

Keynutrition indicators assessed included prevalence of an emia and malaria parasitemia in pre-school children, non-pregnant women, and pregnant women; deficiencies of iron and vitamin A in pre-school children and non-pregnant women; deficiencies of folate and vitamin B12 in non-pregnant women; prevalence of hemoglobinopathies in pre-school children and non-pregnant women; childhood wasting and stunting; child and adult overweight and obesity; and undernutrition in pregnant women.

Other variables that may potentially influence or cause various types of micronutrient deficiencies, such as socio-economic status, household food security, individual food consumption patterns, infant feeding and breastfeeding practices, intake of micronutrient supplements and information on the consumption of fortified vegetable oil and wheat flour were also assessed. At the cluster level, up to 6 flour samples were selected from bakeries and retail points to assess the coverage of adequately fortified (i.e.,  $\geq 58.5$  ppm iron) wheat flour. For households, the coverage of adequately (i.e.,  $\geq 10$  ppm vitamin A) fortified vegetable oil by quantitative measurement of vitamin A content was the primary indicator assessed.

### Design

The GMS 2017 is a cross-sectional stratified survey based on a probability sample to produce estimates that have acceptable precision for priority indicators of nutritional status in children 6-59 months of age and non-pregnant women using three different strata across Ghana (Coastal belt, Middle belt, Northern belt) to represent areas with different agricultural and climatic conditions. Administrative regions included in each stratum are as follows: Coastal Belt (Greater Accra, Central, Volta, Western), Middle Belt (Brong-Ahafo, Ashanti, Eastern), and Northern Belt (Northern, Upper East, Upper West).

A two-stage sampling procedure was conducted to randomly select households. As a first stage, census enumeration areas (EAs) or clusters within each stratum were randomly selected with probability proportional to population size. For the second stage of sampling, a random selection of households in each EA or cluster was completed by using simple random sampling. The GMS 2017 survey was nationwide in scope, and collected data at the cluster level and from four target groups: 1) households, 2) children aged 6-59 months, 3) non-pregnant women of child-bearing age (15-49 years of age), and 4) pregnant women.

### **Results**

In this executive summary, only national estimates are presented, but Table 1 refers readers to the corresponding table in the report containing more detailed results.

**Table 1. Summary results of the Ghana Micronutrient Survey 2017** 

Target group	Indicator <sup>a</sup>	Result	Table <sup>b</sup>
Clusters	El	4 = 0/	T   1 45
	Flour iron ≥ 58.5 ppm	1.5 %	Table 15
Households	011 11 1 1 1 1	FF 0.0/	T   1 40
01.11	Oil vitamin A ≥ 10 ppm	55.6 %	Table 13
Children 6-59 ı		05.00/	T.I. 07
	Anemia	35.6 %	Table 27
	Mild anemia	17.8 %	Table A14-9
	Moderate anemia	17.0 %	Table A14-9
	Severe anemia	0.7 %	Table A14-9
	Iron deficiency	21.5 %	Table 27
	Iron deficiency anemia	12.2 %	Table 27
	Vitamin A deficiency (RBP)	20.8 %	Table 30
	Positive malaria RDT	20.3 %	Table 19
	Hemoglobinopathies, sickle cell disorder	13.1 %	Table 25
	Hemoglobinopathies, α-thalassemia	30.7 %	Table 25
	Stunting (i.e. HAZ < -2)	21.4 %	Table 22
	Wasting (i.e. WHZ (< -2)	7.0 %	Table 23
Non-pregnant	women (15-49 years)		
	Anemia	21.7 %	Table 39
	Mild anemia	14.3 %	Table A15-1
	Moderate anemia	7.0 %	Table A15-1
	Severe anemia	0.4 %	Table A15-1
	Iron deficiency	13.7 %	Table 39
	Iron deficiency anemia	8.9 %	Table 39
	Vitamin A deficiency (RBP)	1.5 %	Table 41
	Folate deficiency	53.8 %	Table 42
	B12 deficiency	6.9 %	Table 43
	Positive malaria RDT	8.4 %	Table 38
	Hemoglobinopathies, sickle cell disorder	13.5 %	Table 37
	Hemoglobinopathies, α-thalassemia	34.6 %	Table 37
	Overweight (BMI>25)	24.7 %	Table 35
	Obesity (BMI>30)	14.3 %	Table 35
Pregnant wom	ien		
	Anemia	45.1 %	Table 48
	Malaria	9.5 %	Table 47
	Underweight (MUAC)	3.6 %	Table 46

a See text of method section for case definitions;
 b Refer to the table indicated for more detailed analysis of the outcome, including group-specific results by age, region, wealth quintiles and other analyses.

#### **Discussion**

At the household level, most households had access to safe drinking water, but only 1 out of 10 households have adequate sanitary facilities. As such, access to adequate sanitation facilities should be increased, since access to safe drinking water alone is insufficient to reduce diarrhea in children.

Among household that had refined vegetable oil available, 56% were adequately fortified with vitamin A (i.e., having  $\geq$  10 µg RE/mL oil). This means that at the time of the survey, only 4 out of 10 households consumed adequately fortified oil nationally. That said, there are marked differences in proportions of adequately fortified oil by region and by agro-ecological zones, driven by the fact that the different oil brands reach different market segments and have varying vitamin A concentrations. For wheat flour, the GMS found that less than 2% of flour samples were adequately fortified, which is slightly lower that previous assessments. While wheat flour fortification is mandatory in Ghana [2], wheat flour milling companies have been reluctant to comply with national standards citing organoleptic changes following fortification.

Among preschool-aged children, infant and young child feeding practices are mostly adequate with regard to early initiation and continued breastfeeding, but clearly need improving with regard to minimum acceptable diet, both with regard to dietary diversity and food frequency. Also, vitamin A supplementation and deworming in the six months preceding the survey is quite low with only about one-third of the children receiving either of those interventions.

Child stunting affects close to 20% of the children under 5 years of age, a prevalence that is slightly lower but comparable to the 2014 DHS. Also similar to the DHS, the prevalence of overweight among pre-school children was quite low, affecting less than 1% of children. For stunting, the stunting prevalence was higher in rural children, and stunting prevalence decreased with increasing household wealth. A quarter of children 6-59 months of age reportedly had diarrhea during the two weeks preceding the interview, and a third or more reportedly had fever or cough during the same period. This high occurrence of illness is reflected by the high prevalence of elevated markers inflammation (AGP, CRP, or both) among the children.

Vitamin A deficiency affects about 20% of children in Ghana, with a higher prevalence in Ghana's northern belt (31%), and lower among children residing in wealthier households (9%). Despite the relatively high vitamin A deficiency prevalence in Ghanaian children based on retinol-binding protein, results from the modified relative dose response test are indicative of recent improvements of the vitamin A situation. Nonetheless, efforts to reduce vitamin A deficiency should be strengthened.

Anemia was markedly higher in the Northern belt (53.2%) compared to the Middle (28.2%) and Southern (32.3%) belts. A similar disparity was observed with ID and IDA as the prevalence in the Northern belt was substantially higher than in the other strata. To illustrate, IDA was nearly 30% in the Northern belt, but less than 8% in the Middle and Southern Belts. About 35% of anemic children had concurrent iron deficiency, which is slightly higher than the 28% estimate in a recent meta-analysis for countries in sub-Saharan Africa and indicates that iron deficiency continues to play an important role

in the etiology of anemia in Ghanaian children. The current analysis clearly suggests that there are multiple factors contributing to anemia in addition to ID. The GMS also illustrates that improving iron status may not always result in improved anemia prevalence. For example, children receiving deworming tablets had a significantly lower prevalence of ID and IDA, but no difference in the anemia prevalence was found. While children that consumed iron-fortified foods the day prior to the survey had very low levels of anemia (<2%), this finding may be a proxy for household wealth. About 10% and 30% of children in the fourth and wealthiest wealth quintile consumed iron-fortified foods, whereas these foods were consumed by 5% or less children in other wealth quintiles. As such, interventions focusing solely on reducing iron deficiency, although important, will not eradicate anemia.

Among non-pregnant women, about 50% consumed 5 or more food groups the day preceding the survey interview. Vitamin or mineral supplement intake when not pregnant was relatively rare, although a fifth of women stated having taken iron tablets in the previous six months. Almost seven out of ten women reported having consumed iron supplements during their last pregnancy; this coverage estimate is slightly higher compared to the 2014 DHS, where the corresponding coverage was 59%.

Nearly 40% of the Ghanaian women were overweight (25%) or obese (14%). Furthermore, prevalence of overweight/obesity is almost double in urban areas compared to rural areas, and is strongly positively associated with socio-economic status. While overweight and obesity increases with age, age likely serves as a proxy for parity. The overweight and obesity prevalence significantly increases from 12.2% in women with no births, to 28.6% in those with one birth, to 51.5% in those with two or more births. The well-documented link between overweight/obesity and type 2 diabetes, blood pressure, cardiovascular diseases and all-cause mortality highlights the importance of tackling the problem. Over and above, there is growing evidence of an intergenerational effect in that children born to overweight/obese mothers are more likely to be stunted or to also become overweight later in life.

One in five women was anemic, and about 14% and 9% had ID and IDA, respectively. Among anemic women, 40% had concurrent ID. ID is more prevalent in urban areas; there are differences by stratum for anemia and IDA, and a marginal difference for ID, with the Middle belt having higher prevalences. Sickle cell trait (HbAS) is also associated with slightly higher anemia prevalence, but it has to be noted that the numbers are small. ID and elevated inflammatory markers are highly and positively associated with anemia. Interestingly, many known risk factors for anemia were not significantly associated in the GMS 2017, such as current or recent malaria parasitemia, folate deficiency, recent iron supplement intake, folic acid supplement intake or multivitamin intake.

Vitamin A deficiency was hardly present in Ghanaian women, both when assessed using RBP and MRDR. We can conclude that the vitamin A status in Ghana appears to have improved over time and is likely due to diligent public health interventions. It is worth noting that in the Northern Belt, considerably more women are affected by VAD although the prevalence remains relatively low with 5%. Folate deficiency affects a bit over half of the women and although no prevalence thresholds for determining the

public health severity exist, can be considered highly prevalent. In contrast, vitamin B12 deficiency affects only 7% of women.

For pregnant women, because their number is limited, the GMS 2017 could only provide sub-group analyses for residence and stratum. Dietary diversity is comparable to non-pregnant women, yet supplement consumption is considerably higher.

### Recommendations

Various programs and research projects are required to address the deficiency documented in the GMS. To address vitamin A deficiency in children, multiple approaches are needed. Ghana's vitamin A supplementation program should be strengthened as a measure to reduce the risk of mortality due to measles, diarrhea, and other illnesses. In addition, the vegetable oil fortification program should be strengthened to increase the coverage of adequately fortified vegetable oil, which would likely increase quantity of retinol consumed by children on a daily basis. In areas where vegetable oil is not widely consumed (e.g. Upper East and Upper West regions), policy makers should pursue social behavior change programs that increase the consumption of vitamin A-rich foods (i.e. foods other than fortified vegetable oil) and biofortification programs, if feasible in these areas.

To reduce anemia in children and women, programs should prioritize activities in regions in the Northern belt, as the anemia prevalence here is markedly higher than in the Middle and Southern strata. Interventions should include the promotion of age-appropriate infant and young child feeding practices, including the promotion of foods (fortified or unfortified) rich in iron and vitamin A. The GMS also recommends that malaria prevention programs be strengthened and targeted to rural and low-income households. Programs that reduce the prevalence of malaria in children will both help to reduce mortality and morbidity associated with malaria directly, and will also help to reduce anemia in children.

The prevalence of overweight and obesity has increased in Ghana in the past decade, and it programs, particularly for women in urban areas, are needed to prevent the prevalence of overweight and obesity from rising further. Due to the association between increased parity and increased overweight and obesity prevalence, it is recommended that antenatal and postnatal care provided by doctors and nurses be expanded to include behavior change messages and counseling for mothers

The GMS documented a very high prevalence of folate deficiency in women. To address this deficiency, it is recommended that Ghana's health system promote and expand the distribution of folic acid supplements. In addition, the implementation of Ghana's wheat flour fortification program should be improved. The GMS results suggest that wheat flour fortification is poorly implemented in Ghana, and challenges have been cited in previous reports about Ghana's fortification program. To improve the performance of Ghana's wheat flour fortification program, it is recommended that monitoring and compliance activities be strengthened.