

**Breastfeeding practices and attitudes among women in  
West Sumatra, Indonesia**

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1    **Breastfeeding practices and attitudes among women in**  
2    **West Sumatra, Indonesia**

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22

## 23 **Abstract**

### 24 **Background:**

25 Significant variations in breastfeeding initiation and continuation exist in different global  
26 communities. Understanding women's attitude and experiences about breastfeeding within different  
27 communities is important to inform optimum infant feeding practices.

### 28 **Aim:**

29 To explore breastfeeding practices and gain insights into women's practices, knowledge and beliefs  
30 concerning infant feeding in West Sumatra, Indonesia.

### 31 **Methods:**

32 A mixed methods study was undertaken. Breastfeeding data were collected from mothers at birth, 6  
33 weeks, 6 and 9 months of infant's age within a feasibility study of antenatal nutritional  
34 supplementation in West Sumatra (n=158). Additionally, a convenience sample of mothers (n=19)  
35 undertook qualitative semi-structured interviews. Interviews were analysed thematically.

### 36 **Results:**

37 While only 84.2% of infants were exclusively breastfed within the 24 hours prior to hospital  
38 discharge, 93.7% of infants at 6 weeks and 64.7% at 6 months were exclusively breastfed. At 9  
39 months 92.9% of infants continued to breastfeed.

40 Qualitative interviews generated three overarching themes: 1. "Mothers' attitude". Women viewed  
41 breastfeeding as normal and natural and strongly valued the health benefits of exclusive breastfeeding.  
42 2."Cultural perspectives" showed breastfeeding was the default choice within the women's  
43 communities. 3."Family and social support" found women received good family support and  
44 encouragement to breastfeed.

### 45 **Conclusion:**

46 The exclusive breastfeeding rate of 64.7% and any breastfeeding rate of 96.0% at 6 months in West  
47 Sumatra is noteworthy. Cultural values, family and social support along with a positive attitude  
48 reinforced by information and knowledge regarding breastfeeding appeared to catalyse high rates of  
49 breastfeeding. Further international comparative studies to provide insights into the underpinning  
50 social and belief constructs that may contribute to these positive health behaviours (or lack of it in  
51 other communities) is worthy of further investigation.

52

53 **Keywords:** Breastfeeding; breastfeeding practices; cultural norms; Indonesia; mixed methods study

## 55 **Introduction**

56 Exclusive breastfeeding is recommended for the first six months of a child's life, with continued  
57 breastfeeding alongside consumption of supplementary foods up to 2 years of age or beyond (World

58 Health Organization, 2021). Globally, only 48% of infants aged zero to five months are exclusively  
59 breastfed, with breastfeeding rates decreasing with increasing age from 0-5 months (UNICEF, 2023).  
60 In the most recent Indonesia demographic health survey, 67% of infants were exclusively breastfed at  
61 one month, 38% exclusively breastfed at four to five months, and nationally 55% of infants received  
62 some breastmilk until age 2 years (National Population and Family Planning Board (BKKBN),  
63 Statistics Indonesia (BPS), Ministry of Health (Kemenkes), and ICF, 2018).

64 Adequate nutrition in early life is vital, with breastfeeding providing optimal nutrition and unique  
65 health benefits (Eidelman et al., 2012; Victora et al., 2016). Extensive research has shown that  
66 breastmilk has a protective effect against infant sickness, including reduced rate of hospitalisations for  
67 diarrhoea and respiratory infections (Lessen and Kavanagh, 2015; Victora et al., 2016) and a lower  
68 mortality rate (North et al., 2022). This is of importance in Indonesia as infant mortality is a major  
69 public health issue. The latest Indonesia Demographic and Health Survey indicated the mortality rate  
70 among children under 1 year to be 24 per 1,000 live births, and the neonatal mortality (death in the  
71 first 28 days of life) to be 15 per 1,000 live births, equating to 1 in 67 children dying within the first  
72 month of life (BKKBN, BPS, Kemenkes and ICF, 2018). Additionally, the advantages of  
73 breastfeeding continue into adulthood with a lower risk of obesity and diabetes in later life (Victora et  
74 al., 2016). The benefits of breastfeeding are not just limited to the infant, research has indicated a  
75 decline in breast and ovarian cancers, type two diabetes and endometriosis in women who breastfeed  
76 (Victora et al., 2016; Farland et al., 2017; Modugno et al., 2019).

77 In Indonesia, 36.7% of under 5-year-olds suffer from stunting, signalling the necessity for adequate  
78 nutrition early in life (Rachmi et al., 2016). That study suggested that Indonesian infants breastfed for  
79 6 months or more were more likely to be stunted or underweight (Rachmi et al., 2016). However,  
80 other studies suggest infants are more likely to be undernourished if they are not exclusively breastfed  
81 (Ananta et al., 2016) and in areas with higher proportions of infants not receiving any breastmilk from  
82 0-23 months (Perdani et al., 2021), in particular among low income women (Hadi et al., 2021).

83 Many factors have been indicated to improve rates of breastfeeding. Mothers with a higher level of  
84 education have been demonstrated to improve rates of breastfeeding in the UK (McAndrew et al.,  
85 2012). To date, there has been little agreement on whether this result is replicated in Indonesia, with  
86 some studies reporting a correlation between high education levels and shorter durations of any or  
87 predominant breastfeeding (BKKBN, BPS, Kemenkes and ICF, 2018). Conversely, other studies have  
88 shown increased exclusive breastfeeding among women receiving any level of formal education  
89 compared to no education (Laksono et al., 2021). Other factors that have also been shown to influence  
90 breastfeeding rates in Indonesia include employment (Laksono et al., 2021), mode of birth and  
91 smoking status (Nurokhmah et al., 2022).

92 Understanding women's attitudes to and experiences of breastfeeding in different parts of the globe  
93 could help in guiding promotional strategies in optimum infant nutrition. This study was therefore  
94 aimed to explore breastfeeding practices and gain insights into women's practices, knowledge and  
95 beliefs concerning infant feeding in West Sumatra, Indonesia.

96

## 97 **Methods**

98 **Design:** This is part of a feasibility trial aimed to assess the practicality of protocol implementation  
99 and acceptability of a food supplementation intervention using a traditional Indonesian yogurt (Dadih)  
100 made from buffalo milk during pregnancy. The control group in the study were provided with a  
101 gelatine-based pudding with lower fat, protein, and calorie content. This intervention was developed  
102 in response to the high prevalence of malnutrition during pregnancy in Indonesia, where 20.1% of  
103 pregnant women have been found to be underweight ( $BMI < 18.5\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$ ) and over 50% of women gain  
104 less weight in pregnancy than recommended by the Institute of Medicine (IOM) (Soltani et al., 2017).

105

106 **Setting:** Women were recruited from three areas of West Sumatra: Agam, Padang Panjang and the  
107 Lintau Buo district in Tanah Datar from January 2019 to December 2019, with a second wave of  
108 recruitment in Padang Panjang from May to September 2020.

109

110 **Participants:** Women were recruited to the feasibility study at their first antenatal clinic appointment.  
111 Any woman presenting to antenatal care within the target districts (Agam, Padang Panjang and Lintau  
112 Buo) were invited by their midwife to participate in the study through the provision of a participant  
113 information sheet. Women willing to participate in the feasibility study signed a consent form.  
114 Women were recruited regardless of parity. Exclusion criteria were pre-existing diabetes or a dislike  
115 or allergy to Dadih. After inclusion, women were randomly assigned to the intervention or control  
116 group using random sequences of block sizes of 2, 4 or 6, and random permutations of group  
117 allocation within each block. The intervention group received the high calorie Dadih product from  
118 approximately 18 weeks gestation until delivery. Women in the control group received a gelatine-  
119 based pudding which was lower in fat, protein, and calorie content than Dadih from approximately 18  
120 weeks gestation until delivery. The feasibility study aimed to recruit approximately 208 women. This  
121 was to provide 80% power to detect a reduction in gestational weight gain below IOM  
122 recommendations (Rasmussen and Yaktine, 2009) from 57% to 37% with 95% confidence, allowing  
123 for a 10% attrition rate. A subsample of 19 women undertook semi-structured interviews, eight of  
124 these had been randomised to the control group and the remaining eleven randomised to the  
125 intervention group.

126

127 **Data collection:** Data was collected about breastfeeding status at discharge from hospital, 6 weeks, 6  
128 months and 9 months. Women were asked about exclusive breastfeeding in the previous 24 hours up  
129 to 6 months and any breastfeeding in the previous 24 hours and more than 50% of feeds being at the  
130 breast in the previous 24 hours at all time points. Exclusive breastfeeding was defined as no nutrition  
131 other than breastmilk within the last 24 hours.

132 Additionally, qualitative semi-structured interviews were undertaken with a convenience subsample  
133 of women. The breastfeeding questions employed during the interview can be found in Supplemental  
134 File S1. These interviews were undertaken with women individually and occurred when the infant  
135 was aged between 9 months and one year. During these interviews, women's knowledge and beliefs  
136 concerning infant feeding practices were explored. Interviews were conducted in the women's native  
137 language, then translated into English by a professional translation service prior to analysis.

138

139 **Data analysis:** Descriptive statistics regarding rate of breastfeeding at each time point were  
140 determined. Maternal characteristics including maternal age, body mass index (BMI), parity,  
141 employment outside of the home, educational level and smoking status, alongside mode of birth and  
142 infant's birthweight were investigated for any differences in rate of exclusive breastfeeding at  
143 discharge, 6 weeks and 6 months and proportion of women who provided more than 50% of feeds at  
144 the breast at 9 months. It was not possible to analyse maternal characteristics according to any  
145 breastfeeding due to the limited number of women who did not provide any breastmilk within this  
146 cohort. Maternal age and infant's birthweight were assessed using independent t-tests. Maternal BMI  
147 was not normally distributed, so analysed using the Mann Whitney U test. Binary categorical  
148 variables were assessed using Chi Square tests and ordinal categorical variables using the Chi square  
149 for trend. Where Chi square test assumptions were violated due to more than 20% of cells having  
150 expected counts less than 5, the Fisher exact test was used.  $p<0.05$  was taken as statistically  
151 significant.

152 For the qualitative data, interview transcripts were transcribed and then coded thematically by one  
153 researcher and independently reviewed by two additional researchers. Themes generated within the  
154 data were discussed by the research team until consensus was reached. No new themes were identified  
155 after interviewing 19 women, so data collection was discontinued.

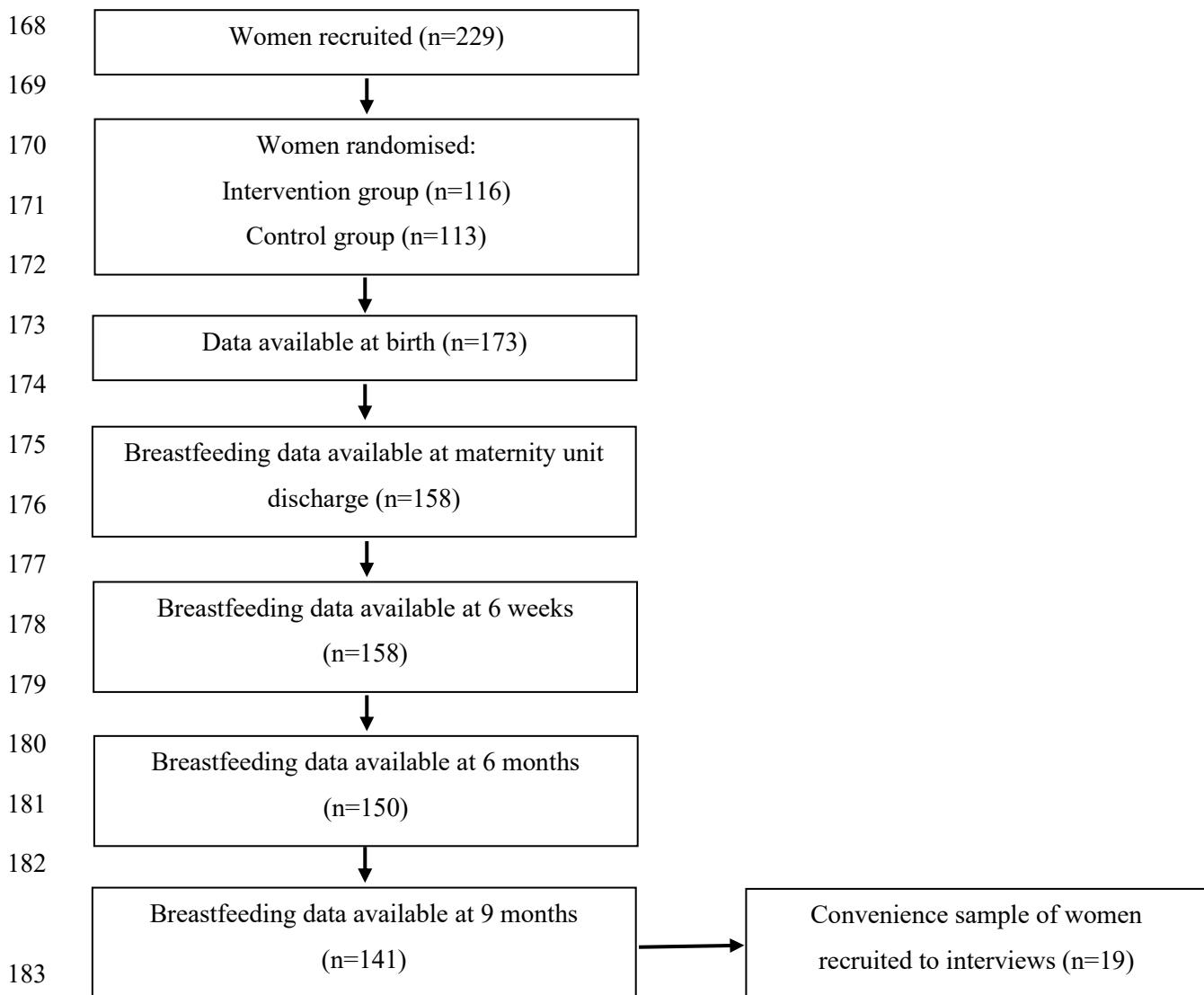
156

157 **Ethical implications:** Ethical approval was obtained from the ethical committee of the Faculty of  
158 Medicine of Andalas University in January 2019. Informed consent was gained from participants  
159 separately for the feasibility study and the qualitative interview component.

160

## 161 **Results**

162 In total 229 women were recruited to the feasibility study, with 173 having birth data available and  
163 158 having breastfeeding data available at one or more timepoints (See Figure 1). Of the 158 women  
164 with breastfeeding data, 85 (53.8%) had been allocated to the intervention group and 73 (46.2%) to  
165 the control group. The mean gestation at birth within the sample was 39.2 weeks (standard deviation  
166 2.5 weeks). Eight included infants had had a special care baby unit admission prior to hospital  
167 discharge.



184 **Figure 1. Flow chart of study participation**

185 The rate of exclusive, any and more than 50% of feeds at the breast at each time point are given in  
186 Table 1. Only 2 women did not undertake any breastfeeding on discharge from hospital or at 6 weeks.  
187 96% of women continued to provide at least some breastmilk at 6 months, with 64.7% of women  
188 exclusively breastfeeding at 6 months.

189

190 **Table 1. Rates of Breastfeeding at Different Time Points**

	N (%)
Exclusive breastfeeding at discharge from maternity unit	133/158 (84.2)
Any breastfeeding at discharge from maternity unit	156/158 (98.7)
Exclusive breastfeeding at 6 weeks	148/158 (93.7)
Any breastfeeding at 6 weeks	156/158 (98.7)
Greater than 50% of feeds breastfeeding at 6 weeks	152/158 (96.2)
Exclusive breastfeeding at 6 months	97/150 (64.7)
Any breastfeeding at 6 months	144/150 (96.0)
Greater than 50% of feeds breastfeeding at 6 months	132/150 (88.0)
Any breastfeeding at 9 months	131/141 (92.9)
Greater than 50% of feeds breastfeeding at 9 months	49/141 (34.8)

191

192

193 The proportion exclusively breastfeeding at discharge, 6 weeks, 6 months or providing more than  
 194 50% of feeds at the breast at 9 months according to maternal and infant's birth characteristics are  
 195 given in Table 2 and Table 3. Those with high school or graduate education were significantly more  
 196 likely to exclusively breastfeed at discharge ( $p$ -value=0.002), but not at other time points. Mothers  
 197 who smoked were more likely to exclusively breastfeed at discharge ( $p$ -value =0.001), but less likely  
 198 to continue providing more than 50% of feeds at the breast by 9 months ( $p$ -value<0.001). The  
 199 proportion of women breastfeeding at each time point did not vary according to any other maternal or  
 200 birth characteristics.

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210 **Table 2. A Comparison of Maternal and Infant Characteristics at Discharge, 6 Weeks, 6 Months  
 211 and 9 Months According to Breastfeeding Status.**

Exclusively breastfed at discharge
------------------------------------

Characteristic	Total	Exclusively breastfed	Not exclusively breastfed	p-value
	N=158	n=133	n=25	
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	
Maternal age (in years)	29.0 (5.5)	29.2 (5.6)	27.9 (4.9)	0.281
Maternal BMI (in kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	22.7 (4.2)	22.5 (3.9)	23.4 (5.4)	0.343
Infant's birthweight (in grams)	3239 (420) <sup>a</sup>	3253 (396) <sup>a</sup>	3151 (529)	0.256
Exclusively breastfed at 6 weeks				
Characteristic	Total	Exclusively breastfed	Not exclusively breastfed	p-value
	N=158	n=148	n=10	
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	
Maternal age (in years)	29.0 (5.5)	29.0 (5.5)	29.1 (5.7)	0.959
Maternal BMI (in kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	22.7 (4.2)	22.7 (4.2)	22.4 (3.1)	0.812
Infant's birthweight (in grams)	3239 (420) <sup>a</sup>	3235 (409) <sup>a</sup>	3298 (587)	0.646
Exclusively breastfed at 6 months				
Characteristic	Total	Exclusively breastfed	Not exclusively breastfed	p-value
	N=150	n=97	n=53	
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	
Maternal age (in years)	29.1 (5.5)	29.6 (5.4)	28.1 (5.7)	0.107
Maternal BMI (in kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	22.8 (4.2)	22.9 (4.2)	22.6 (4.3)	0.756
Infant's birthweight (in grams))	3256 (417) <sup>a</sup>	3255 (419) <sup>a</sup>	3259 (417)	0.952
Greater than 50% of feeds breastfeeding at 9 months				
Characteristic	Total	>50% feeds breastfeeding	≤50% feeds breastfeeding	p-value
	N=141	n=49	n=92	
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	
Maternal age (in years)	29.3 (5.4)	29.0±4.9	29.3±5.7	0.723
Maternal BMI (in kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	22.9 (4.3)	22.9±5.5	22.8±3.5	0.909
Infant's birthweight (in grams)	3251 (413) <sup>a</sup>	3270 ± 381	3241 ± 430 <sup>a</sup>	0.696

213 M – Mean

214 SD – standard deviation

215

216 **Table 3. A Comparison of Maternal Background Characteristics at Discharge, 6 Weeks, 6**  
217 **Months and 9 Months According to Breastfeeding Status.**

Characteristic	Exclusively breastfed at discharge		Not exclusively breastfed n (%)	p-value
Parity	N	Exclusively breastfed n (%)		
Para 1	45	40 (88.9)	5 (11.1)	
Para 2	60	47 (78.3)	13 (21.7)	
Para 3	53	46 (86.8)	7 (13.2)	0.839
Education				0.002
None / elementary	14	7 (50.0)	7 (50.0)	
High school	113	100 (88.5)	13 (11.5)	
College / university	31	26 (83.9)	5 (16.1)	
Employment status				0.869
Not employed	118	99 (83.9)	19 (16.1)	
Employed	40	34 (85.0)	6 (15.0)	
Smoking status				0.001
Smoker	41	41 (100)	0 (0)	
Non-smoker	117	92 (78.6)	25 (21.4)	
Mode of birth				0.899
Vaginal	114	95 (83.3)	19 (16.7)	
Caesarean	38	32 (84.2)	6 (15.8)	
Exclusively breastfed at 6 weeks				
Characteristic	Exclusively breastfed n (%)		Not exclusively breastfed n (%)	p-value
Parity				
Para 1	45	42 (93.3)	3 (6.7)	
Para 2	60	57 (95.0)	3 (5.0)	
Para 3	53	49 (92.5)	4 (7.5)	0.919
Education				0.755
None / elementary	14	13 (92.9)	1 (7.1)	
High school	113	105 (92.9)	8 (7.1)	
College / university	31	30 (96.8)	1 (3.2)	
Employment status				0.124 <sup>a</sup>
Not employed	118	113 (95.8)	5 (4.2)	
Employed	40	35 (87.5)	5 (12.5)	
Smoking status				0.286 <sup>a</sup>
Smoker	41	37 (90.2)	4 (9.8)	
Non-smoker	117	111 (94.9)	6 (5.1)	
Mode of birth				0.269 <sup>a</sup>
Vaginal	114	108 (94.7)	6 (5.3)	
Caesarean	38	34 (89.5)	4 (10.5)	
Exclusively breastfed at 6 months				
Characteristic	Exclusively breastfed n (%)		Not exclusively breastfed n (%)	p-value
Parity				0.573

	Para 1	40	25 (62.5)	15 (37.5)	
	Para 2	57	36 (63.2)	21 (36.8)	
	Para 3	53	36 (67.9)	17 (32.1)	
Education					0.241
	None / elementary	14	7 (50.0)	7 (50.0)	
	High school	106	69 (65.1)	37 (34.9)	
	College / university	30	21 (70.0)	9 (30.0)	
Employment status					0.312
	Not employed	112	75 (67.0)	37 (33.0)	
	Employed	38	22 (57.9)	16 (42.1)	
Smoking status					0.312
	Smoker	38	22 (57.9)	16 (42.1)	
	Non-smoker	112	75 (67.0)	37 (33.0)	
Mode of birth					0.492
	Vaginal	109	71 (65.1)	38 (34.9)	
	Caesarean	35	25 (71.4)	10 (28.6)	
Greater than 50% of feeds breastfeeding at 9 months					
Characteristic			>50% feeds at breast n (%)	≤50% feeds at breast n (%)	p-value
Parity					0.976
	Para 1	37	13 (35.1)	24 (64.9)	
	Para 2	53	18 (34.0)	35 (66.0)	
	Para 3	51	18 (35.3)	33 (64.7)	
Education					0.296
	None / elementary	14	7 (50.0)	7 (50.0)	
	High school	98	33 (33.7)	65 (66.3)	
	College / university	29	9 (31.0)	20 (69.0)	
Employment status					0.115
	Not employed	107	41 (38.3)	66 (61.7)	
	Employed	34	8 (23.5)	26 (76.5)	
Smoking status					<0.001
	Smoker	34	0 (0)	34 (100)	
	Non-smoker	107	49 (45.8)	58 (54.2)	
Mode of birth					0.107
	Vaginal	100	41 (41.0)	59 (59.0)	
	Caesarean	35	9 (25.7)	26 (74.3)	

218 <sup>a</sup> Fisher exact used when assumptions for Chi square violated

219

220

## 221 **Qualitative results**

222 Three overarching themes were generated from the mothers' interviews, "Mothers' attitude";  
223 "Cultural perspectives"; and "Family and social support".

224

### 225 **Mothers' attitude**

226 There was a very positive attitude and general acceptance of breastfeeding as the best infant feeding  
227 method among these mothers. This theme encompassed two subthemes, "Belief in the value of  
228 breastmilk" and "Baby led complementary feeding".

229

230 Belief in the value of breastmilk

231 Mothers in this study seemed to have a good level of knowledge and a genuine belief in the benefits  
232 of breastmilk from both immunity and nutritional perspectives. The value and importance of exclusive  
233 breastfeeding in the first six months of life appeared very strongly from the data.

234 *“I only gave breastmilk until the age of 6 months because this breastfeeding has benefits such  
235 as for immunity, children don’t get sick easily.”* **Participant 1**

236 *“Just breastfeed, because XXXX [baby’s name] growth has increased, it means that  
237 breastmilk is enough.”* **Participant 18**

238 The majority of women also reported continuing to breastfeed beyond 6 months alongside the  
239 introduction of complementary feeding:

240 *“I can breastfeed more than 8 times a day, my target is to breastfeed until the age of 2 years  
241 because there is a lot of nutrition from breastmilk.”* **Participant 8**

242 *“In my opinion, my baby still needs breastmilk and additional food (rice porridge) at the age  
243 of 15 months.”* **Participant 13**

244 *“I still breastfeed even until now. It’s the baby’s staple food.”* **Participant 12**

245

246 Baby-led complementary feeding

247 There was a consensus that complementary feeding should begin around 6 months of age, with  
248 women showing good awareness that the digestive system may not be adequately developed before  
249 this:

250 *“Because breastfeeding alone is not sufficient for children’s nutritional needs. If I have been  
251 given food before 6 months, I am afraid that the child’s intestines will not digest properly.  
252 That’s why I fed him after he was 6 months old.”* **Participant 5**

253 Most commonly mothers reported offering rice porridge as a first food and gradually progressing to  
254 eating family foods by 1 year of age, however among our participants this appeared to be very much  
255 led by the child and their reaction to different types of food:

256 *“For me, if the baby doesn’t want to eat rice, then replace it with rice porridge. The  
257 important thing is the baby eats. For my friends and relatives, if their baby won’t eat, they just  
258 let it go so that the baby loses weight. But if he doesn’t want to eat, I change the menu so he  
259 wants to eat, so that his stomach is full.”* **Participant 6**

260 *“At 7 months I gave him solid food, my son was tired of rice porridge and I introduced him to  
261 family food.”* **Participant 8**

262 Where food other than breastmilk was introduced prior to 6 months of age, women also reported  
263 being led by their babies in terms of waiting a while longer:

264           *“I tried to feed him at the age of 4 months, but my son didn't want to, he always vomited.”*

265           **Participant 16**

266

267           **Cultural perspectives**

268           The majority of participating women expressed no perceived disadvantages with breastfeeding and  
269           considered it the normal and natural way to feed their child. The wide cultural acceptance of the  
270           superiority of breastfeeding was reinforced by substantial knowledge and information. Women  
271           demonstrated very good knowledge of the numerous advantages of breastfeeding, not only for  
272           nutrition but also to enhance immune response. They also raised the importance of breastfeeding  
273           being of low cost, as well as emotionally advantageous for promoting bonding between mothers and  
274           babies:

275           *“The advantage is that the immune system is stronger, fever is rare, cheap and simple, no  
276           need to pay.” Participant 19*

277           *“The benefits of breastfeeding are clear, the reward is also in practicing my religion [due to  
278           Islamic law affirming breastfeeding]. If the children are happy we are also happy. If it is for  
279           the child, the child will be stronger, healthier. If we look at children who are given formula  
280           [supplementary milk], some are allergic.” Participant 4*

281           *“There are many advantages, the child is full, the child's nutritional intake is fulfilled. There  
282           is a bond between the child and the mother.” Participant 3*

283           Women's responses suggested that breastfeeding was a cultural norm within their communities and  
284           considered the default choice for infant feeding.

285           *“I think my family members, neighbours or friends feed their babies the same way I do.  
286           Exclusive breastfeeding remains the same for up to 6 months, after 6 months other foods are  
287           introduced.” Participant 11*

288

289           **Family and social support**

290           The final overarching theme emerging from the data was the importance of family and social support,  
291           creating a culture which nurtures mothers and babies. Women saw this support as a catalyst and  
292           mediator for a successful breastfeeding experience. Many of the women reported that their husbands  
293           and wider family supported and encouraged them to breastfeed:

294           *“So, to facilitate breastfeeding, drink honey and date palm extracts, of course there is support  
295           from your husband. My husband even suggested that I should breastfeed until my child is 3  
296           years old.” Participant 6*

297           *“Everyone supports me to breastfeed, especially my husband, parents and the social  
298           environment.” Participant 19*

299

300 **Discussion**

301 The exclusive breastfeeding rate of 64.7% and any breastfeeding rate of 96.0% at 6 months in West  
302 Sumatra is noteworthy, given it is higher than in many countries (World Population Review, 2025),  
303 and in particular high-income countries (Theurich et al., 2019). Within the qualitative interviews  
304 women demonstrated a good level of knowledge about the benefits of breastfeeding and were  
305 supported by their families and within their communities to breastfeed.

306 A high prevalence of any breastfeeding has similarly been reported in various previous Indonesian  
307 cohorts, with a very high proportion of infants ever being breastfed consistently noted over time in  
308 Indonesia. Within the 2007 Indonesian Family Life Survey, 96.6% of infants were ever breastfed  
309 (Rachmi et al., 2016) and 95.0% of infants born within the last two years were ever breastfed in the  
310 Indonesia Demographic Health Survey in 2017 (BKKBN, BPS, Kemenkes and ICF, 2018). When  
311 specifically considering the area of West Sumatra within Indonesia, 97.6% of infants have previously  
312 been reported to have ever breastfed (BKKBN, BPS, Kemenkes and ICF, 2018).

313 Similar rates of exclusive breastfeeding to those found in this research have also been noted  
314 previously. The Indonesian National Household Health Survey in 2007 found the rate of exclusive  
315 breastfeeding across Indonesia to be 46.3% at 6 months or at the time of survey completion if the  
316 infant was less than 6 months (Ananta et al., 2016). The later Indonesia Demographic Health Survey  
317 in 2017, found a slightly higher rate of 52.3% of infants aged 0-6 months were exclusively breastfed  
318 (Gayatri, 2021) and that 77% of infants were still receiving some breastmilk at 1 year of age  
319 (BKKBN, BPS, Kemenkes and ICF, 2018). This suggests that Indonesia is well on course regarding  
320 the global nutrition target of increasing exclusive breastfeeding for the first 6 months to at least 50%  
321 of infants by 2025 (Development Initiatives, 2020). Rates of exclusive breastfeeding at 6 months  
322 however varies by region in Indonesia, with only 10.5% of infants in East Java exclusively breastfed  
323 at 6 months compared to 66.9% of infants in Jambi (Ananta et al., 2016). Previous estimates in West  
324 Sumatra suggested that 56.1% of infants were breastfed exclusively at 6 months of age (Ananta et al.,  
325 2016), which was slightly lower than the 64.7% of infants exclusively breastfed at 6 months within  
326 this current cohort. It is of particular interest that many infants were exclusively breastfed at 6 months  
327 despite the prevalence of early initiation of breastfeeding, defined as within one hour of birth, being  
328 only 60.9% across Indonesia (Kurniawan et al., 2021), that 43.9% of Indonesian infants are given a  
329 feed other than breastmilk in the first 3 days of life (BKKBN, BPS, Kemenkes and ICF, 2018) and  
330 that the proportion of women exclusively breastfeeding on discharge from the birthing unit was only  
331 84.2% within this cohort.

332 Although not significant within this research, women who were employed consistently had lower  
333 rates of exclusively breastfeeding at 6 weeks and 6 months, or offering more than 50% of feeds at the  
334 breast at 9 months. Employment status has similarly been seen to influence breastfeeding rates in

335 previous Indonesian research, with lower rates of exclusive breastfeeding in mothers who returned to  
336 work in Jakarta (Afiyanti and Juliastuti, 2012), urban Central Java (Paramashanti et al., 2022) and  
337 across Indonesia (Ananta et al., 2016; Laksono et al., 2021). The 2017 Indonesian Demographic  
338 Health survey also found reduced exclusive breastfeeding from 0-5 months among woman who  
339 worked compared to those who did not work (Gayatri, 2021), particularly in those employed in a non-  
340 agricultural setting (Nurokhmah et al., 2022). Other research in West Java has also demonstrated  
341 maternal employment outside of the home to be associated with increased supplementation with  
342 breastmilk substitutes (Green et al., 2021). Additionally, within this current study, despite that all  
343 women who smoked initiated breastfeeding and 57.9% still exclusively breastfed at 6 months, this  
344 proportion was lower than for women who did not smoke (67.0%). By 9 months there was a  
345 significant difference in breastfeeding according to smoking status with none of the women who  
346 smoked still providing more than 50% of feeds at the breast compared to 45.8% of women who did  
347 not smoke. The Indonesian Demographic Health Survey has also previously noted that exclusive  
348 breastfeeding from 0-5 months is reduced among women who smoked (Nurokhmah et al., 2022), with  
349 a systematic review of international studies also noting that smokers have reduced production of  
350 breastmilk and are likely to discontinue breastfeeding earlier (Napierala et al., 2016). It is suggested  
351 that some of these differences may be due to nicotine reducing maternal prolactin levels (Napierala et  
352 al., 2016). Smoking is also reported to adversely affect breastmilk composition with reduced fat  
353 content of breastmilk (Napierala et al., 2016; Macchi et al., 2021), increased toxic metal levels  
354 (Napierala et al., 2016; Favara et al., 2025), reduced antioxidant properties (Macchi et al., 2021) and  
355 altered immune molecule content (Macchi et al., 2021; Favara et al., 2025). As a result, infant growth,  
356 nervous system development and immunity are impacted in women who smoke, with infants of  
357 mothers who smoke more likely to suffer from infections such as respiratory tract and otitis media  
358 (Napierala et al., 2016; Favara et al., 2025). To support infant wellbeing and to improve duration of  
359 breastfeeding among women who smoke in West Sumatra, it is therefore essential to develop and  
360 deliver effective smoking cessation programmes during pregnancy and after birth.

361 Women with a high school or graduate education were significantly more likely to exclusively  
362 breastfeed at discharge within this study. A higher proportion of those with college or university  
363 education also exclusively breastfed at 6 weeks and 6 months, although this was no longer significant.  
364 Previous research in Indonesia regarding breastfeeding and education level has given conflicting  
365 results. Several surveys distributed to women across Indonesia suggested that women with no formal  
366 education were less likely to exclusively breastfeed (Laksono et al., 2021) and that women with  
367 postgraduate education were significantly more likely to exclusively breastfeed (Ananta et al., 2016).  
368 However, another survey in West Java suggested that women with higher education levels were more  
369 likely to provide their infant with breastmilk substitutes (Green et al., 2021). The reasons for this  
370 discrepancy within different cohorts is unclear.

371 Within our qualitative interviews, women appeared to be fairly knowledgeable about the benefits of  
372 breastfeeding. Other Indonesian studies have however found mixed results. One study found that  
373 women had been told by health professionals or community workers to breastfeed for 6 months, but  
374 that they had not been given reasons as to why (Hadi et al., 2021). A separate study found that not all  
375 rural mothers understood what exclusive breastfeeding was when asked to define it (Paramashanti et  
376 al., 2022). Additionally, they found that while women were aware of the health benefits of breastmilk  
377 for their infant, none mentioned the health benefits for themselves or the benefits for maternal infant  
378 bonding (Paramashanti et al., 2022). Women within our study were however aware of the benefits of  
379 breastfeeding for mother-infant bonding. They were also aware that breastfeeding is cheap, which is  
380 in line with other studies that also noted that women reported breastfeeding as an inexpensive way to  
381 feed their infant (Paramashanti et al., 2022). Women have also previously described being aware of  
382 the cost implication of weaning their infant off breastmilk due to the resultant need to buy food or  
383 breastmilk substitutes for their infants (Afiyanti and Juliastuti, 2012). Previous research in other areas  
384 within Indonesia have looked into women's reasons behind using breastmilk substitutes, not achieving  
385 exclusive breastfeeding despite planning to do so or early weaning. A common perception among  
386 women was of insufficient breastmilk supply to feed their infant (Afiyanti and Juliastuti, 2012;  
387 Paramashanti et al., 2022) especially among urban women (Paramashanti et al., 2022), and a  
388 perception that bigger babies required more than just breastmilk (Afiyanti and Juliastuti, 2012).  
389 Additional factors cited as reasons for providing nutrition other than breastmilk included infant illness  
390 and breast problems (Paramashanti et al., 2022).

391 Despite it being banned by the Indonesia government, advertising of breastmilk substitutes is still  
392 common in Indonesia, with 93.3% of women in one survey in West Java reporting seeing such  
393 advertisements on television, social media or in newspapers (Green et al., 2021). It has been suggested  
394 that advertisement of breastmilk substitutes influences women's timing of weaning (Afiyanti and  
395 Juliastuti, 2012). Of particular concern was that women from West Java commonly reported the use of  
396 breastmilk substitutes as they perceived they were beneficial for growth, intelligence and immunity  
397 (Green et al., 2021). Additionally, some women reported being hesitant to exclusively breastfeed their  
398 infants because a healthcare provider had given their baby breastmilk substitutes when they were in  
399 hospital (Afiyanti and Juliastuti, 2012). Healthcare providers recommending the use of breastmilk  
400 substitutes at some point since the birth of their child has also been reported by 22.7% of women  
401 (Green et al., 2021), with 23.3% of women recounting healthcare providers to have given breastmilk  
402 substitutes to their infant without the mother's permission (Ananta et al., 2016). This is of particular  
403 concern given that women have previously described being reliant on their midwives and healthcare  
404 professionals for receiving the majority of their breastfeeding information (Paramashanti et al., 2022).

405 The qualitative interviews also highlighted the wide cultural acceptance of the superiority of  
406 breastfeeding within West Sumatra and the family and other social support women received to

407 achieve successful breastfeeding. Both of these aspects have previously been shown to be key factors.  
408 Normalisation of breastfeeding within a culture has previously been identified as a supportive factor  
409 for breastfeeding practice, with high rates noted in societies that value breastfeeding (Prentice, 2022).  
410 Additionally, seeing other women breastfeeding in public or seeing positive images of breastfeeding  
411 in mainstream or social media have also previously been identified as supporting successful  
412 breastfeeding (Snyder et al., 2021). In contrast women's discomfort at breastfeeding in social  
413 situations, for example in front of relatives or friends has been associated with lower rates of  
414 breastfeeding (Alyousefi, 2021; Gutierrez-de-Terán-Moreno et al., 2022). There are also known links  
415 between breastfeeding self-efficacy and social support within other countries, such as Iran and Turkey  
416 (Maleki-Saghooni et al., 2020; Mercan and Tari Selcuk, 2021). For example, having a female relative  
417 with a positive experience of breastfeeding has been associated with enhanced successful  
418 breastfeeding (Prentice, 2022). Conversely, a lack of familial support has been identified previously  
419 as a barrier to breastfeeding (Snyder et al., 2021), with the opinions of family and friends known to  
420 influence timing of weaning (Afifyanti and Juliastuti, 2012).

421 Although there are high rates of breastfeeding in Indonesia, the economic burden from treating  
422 gastrointestinal and respiratory infection in children under 2 years of age due to infants not being  
423 exclusively breastfed up to six months is still estimated to be US\$118.6 million annually, which  
424 equated to 10.6% of the total annual health budget in Indonesia in 2012 (Siregar et al., 2018).  
425 Additionally, higher rates of stunting have been shown in children who have not been breastfed  
426 (Ananta et al., 2016), although the economic impact of this has not been calculated.

427 While breastfeeding knowledge has been shown to be high in some Indonesian studies, this is not  
428 universal which suggests that further improvements could be achieved. Our study highlights that  
429 interventions focussed on those with lower levels of education may potentially enhance breastfeeding  
430 rates in Indonesia. Several previous educational interventions have shown to be promising within  
431 Indonesia. One intervention that included six 2 hour long nutritional education sessions for pregnant  
432 women was beneficial towards knowledge, attitude and practices of child nutrition (Permatasari et al.,  
433 2021). A separate educational intervention undertaken in Java Indonesia that provided 30 postnatal  
434 women with a booklet within 10 days of giving birth showed increase breastfeeding self-efficacy  
435 (Prastyoningsih et al., 2021). However, no control group was included in this study and as  
436 breastfeeding self-efficacy would be expected to improve with increasing time postnatally, the impact  
437 of the intervention therefore remained unclear. While education can clearly highlight the positive  
438 health benefits of breastfeeding, building on existing positive social support and cultural norms about  
439 breastfeeding within Indonesia is also recommended to enhance breastfeeding rates. Additionally,  
440 interventions targeting smoking cessation during pregnancy and after birth could support enhanced  
441 breastfeeding duration within West Sumatra.

442

443 **Limitations**

444 A strength of this study was the prospective data collection. However, several limitations have to be  
445 noted. Firstly, all women within this cohort had received a nutritional supplement during pregnancy,  
446 with different forms of supplementation given in the intervention and control groups. It is unknown  
447 whether these women were therefore in a better nutritional state by the end of pregnancy, which may  
448 have influenced the slightly higher rates of exclusive breastfeeding in this sample compared to  
449 previous rates noted in West Sumatra. It should be emphasised that no additional information about  
450 the benefits of breastfeeding was provided for the study participants and breastfeeding data was  
451 analysed opportunistically. Breastfeeding data was self-reported by the woman, which may have led  
452 to social desirability bias. Finally, the limited number of women who did not provide any breastfeeds  
453 at each time point prevented analysis of these women according to maternal or birth characteristics.  
454

455 **Conclusions**

456 Within West Sumatra there were exceptionally high rates of any breastfeeding with positive  
457 acceptance of breastfeeding by the mothers and their families. The exclusive breastfeeding rate of  
458 64.7% and any breastfeeding of 96.0% at 6 months, is higher than in many other countries but still fell  
459 below World Health Organization recommendations. Interventions that support those with the lowest  
460 levels of education, as well as promoting smoking cessation during pregnancy and after the birth  
461 should be explored to build upon the existing positive social support and cultural norms about  
462 breastfeeding seen within West Sumatra. Lessons could also be learnt around socio-cultural and  
463 family support influences which may have impacted such high rates of breastfeeding in this  
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465

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470

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472 Ethical approval was obtained from Andalas University (707/KEP/FK/2019) in January 2019.  
473 Informed consent was gained from participants separately for the feasibility study and the qualitative  
474 interview component.

475

476 **Conflicts of interest**

477 The authors have no competing interests to declare that are relevant to the content of this article.

478

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484

485 **Availability of data and material**

486 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author on  
487 reasonable request.

488

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