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8 **Cultural Influences on Making Nutritional Adjustment in Type 2 Diabetes in Pakistan: The**  
9 **Perspectives of People Living with Diabetes and Their Family Members**

10

#### **Abstract**

11 In Pakistan, type 2 diabetes is widespread, and although dietary recommendations from  
12 healthcare professionals are critical to its treatment, cultural norms can have a great  
13 influence on the dietary habits of people living with diabetes (PLWD). Therefore,  
14 understanding the social aspects of the lives of PLWD is crucial when examining the  
15 effectiveness of nutritional adjustments. Consequently, this study investigated (1) the  
16 enablers and barriers faced by PLWD living with their families in adhering to healthcare  
17 professionals' nutritional recommendations within the Pakistani culture, and (2) family  
18 involvement regarding PLWD's engagement in nutritional adjustments. Semi-structured  
19 interviews were conducted with 30 PLWD and 17 family members and the data were  
20 analysed thematically. Three themes emerged. First, 'Influence of family system, gender,  
21 and age on meals prepared at home': family hierarchy and opinions based on gender and  
22 age can enable or hinder nutritional adjustment in meals prepared at home. Second,

23 'Temptations of 'unhealthy' foods, festivals, cultural interactions, and social etiquette':  
24 family/social interactions can affect PLwD's ability to resist temptations to eat foods  
25 prohibited by healthcare professionals at home, gatherings, or festivities. Third, 'Folk  
26 knowledge, folk remedy, and the balance between culture and Western medicine': PLwD  
27 and their family members in Pakistan hold strong beliefs concerning the medicinal  
28 properties of foods. Understanding power dynamics within families is crucial for making  
29 effective nutritional recommendations. Our findings imply a need for medical guidelines to  
30 acknowledge individuals' personal agency and consider family and cultural beliefs when  
31 recommending nutritional adjustments.

32 **Keywords:** South Asia, food, meals, type 2 diabetes, culture, family

### 33 **Introduction**

34 In recent years, type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) has become a growing concern. In  
35 2021, China (141 million), India (74 million), and Pakistan (33 million adults; a 70% increase  
36 since 2019) showed the largest numbers of adults with diabetes worldwide (both type 1  
37 diabetes mellitus and T2DM; aged 20–79 years); furthermore, the prevalence rate of  
38 diabetes in Pakistan is expected to increase from 30.8% in 2021 to 33.6% by 2045  
39 (International Diabetes Federation, 2021).

40 In Pakistan, a low-middle-income country that faces various forms of financial  
41 constraint, there is a need to look at cost-effective methods to tackle diabetes. The World  
42 Health Organization has recommended lifestyle changes as a cost-effective measure for  
43 managing diabetes and described that people living with diabetes (PLwD) who make lifestyle  
44 adjustments could live longer/healthier lives with diabetes (World Health Organization,  
45 2022). One of the self-care behaviours recommended for PLwD is nutritional adjustments

46 (Khan et al., 2020). This can help them achieve glycaemic control and reduce the risk of  
47 diabetes-related complications (Bukhsh et al., 2018; Farooq et al., 2018).

48         Similar to the dietary guidelines provided by institutions in Western countries, those  
49 provided by the Pakistan Endocrine Society focus on a balanced diet, including complex  
50 carbohydrates and high-fibre foods. PLwD are also encouraged to consume more lean  
51 protein, oily fish, and vegetables (Khan et al., 2020). Nonetheless, people in South Asian  
52 countries often eat meals with high amounts of saturated fats, refined carbohydrates, and a  
53 high glycaemic index. These practices are major environmental factors increasing the risk of  
54 uncontrolled T2DM and are common barriers to T2DM management. Traditional Pakistani  
55 cuisine meals (e.g., curry, rich in fats and carbohydrates), like those of other South Asian  
56 countries, are discouraged in these dietary guidelines (Khan et al., 2020). Still, while the  
57 guidelines advise PLwD to change their usual meals, they do not describe how nutritional  
58 adjustments are to be made in everyday life.

59         Adherence to nutritional recommendations among PLwD in South Asian  
60 communities can be difficult. A systematic review reported that they include established  
61 food habits, a lack of social support, inadequate knowledge, low socioeconomic status,  
62 food-sharing at weddings, and pressure to eat foods at social gatherings and festivals that  
63 conflict with recommended nutritional adjustments (Sohail et al., 2015). It can be  
64 challenging to maintain a recommended diet in social settings and at weddings because of  
65 temptations and pressure to indulge in specific foods (Bukhsh et al., 2020; Farooq et al.,  
66 2018; Mohamed Nor et al., 2019; Sohal et al., 2015). Perceptions of the strength-promoting  
67 properties and traditional medical qualities of foods can also influence PLwD's decisions  
68 about nutritional adjustments (Sohail et al., 2015).

69           The way people live their lives can affect their health outcomes, particularly for  
70 PLwD. Social determinants, which include the environments in which people grow up, live,  
71 work, and age, can influence lifestyle changes (Hill et al., 2013). Exploring factors that can  
72 serve as enablers and barriers for PLwD to change their lifestyles is essential for a better  
73 understanding of the topic (Sami et al., 2017). Research indicates that families are crucial in  
74 caring for individuals with PLwD. In South Asian countries, although family support is not  
75 directly related to glycaemic control, strong family ties can provide an environment where  
76 patients can receive management with optimal levels of satisfaction and happiness (Ahmed  
77 & Yeasmeen, 2016; Shawon et al., 2016).

78           The meaning of family diverges by culture. In this study, we used the following  
79 definition proposed by Giddens and Sutton (2013, p. 1057): ‘a group of individuals related to  
80 one another by blood ties, marriage or adoption that form a unit, the adult members of  
81 which are responsible for the upbringing of children’. Families are a part of society that  
82 influences lifestyle choices by exerting control over role definitions and accepted patterns of  
83 living, such as expected gender behaviours regarding nutritional adjustments.  
84 Understanding agency within the context of people's lives and their level of control when  
85 making decisions about lifestyle changes is crucial, especially when making  
86 recommendations that require significant shifts, such as nutritional adjustments. (Barolia et  
87 al., 2013). Considering contextual factors, such as family influence, is important when  
88 investigating self-care adjustments of PLwD in the family setting because these factors  
89 involve activities and interactions with family members that PLwD perceive to be related to  
90 family life (Giddens & Sutton, 2013).

91           These descriptions suggest the relevance of examining the influence of family on  
92 nutritional adjustments. Indeed, local and international studies related to South Asia show

93 that families can provide crucial support. For example, family members can offer emotional  
94 and moral support and assist PLwD in understanding nutritional adjustments (Ahmed &  
95 Yeasmeen, 2016; Rafique & Shaikh, 2006). Some people find their families helpful in  
96 managing type 2 diabetes, but some feel they are too strict about nutrition. Some nag and  
97 argue, while others offer praise and assistance with meal planning (Kandel & Wichaidit,  
98 2020; Ravi et al., 2018). Although evidence exists, researchers suggest that further  
99 investigation is necessary to understand how PLwD adjust their self-care to the relevant  
100 recommendations while living with their families (Bukhsh et al., 2020).

101       The family systems in Pakistan can be categorized into nuclear and joint families. The  
102 former comprises parents and unmarried children, whereas the latter involves three or  
103 more generations living together, like grandparents and nephews/nieces (Lodhi et al., 2021).  
104 Pakistani culture emphasizes family interdependence and is patriarchal, with well-defined  
105 gender roles. As a result, family members rely on each other, and decision-making is  
106 influenced by age and family roles. Men are considered decision-makers, while women take  
107 on the roles of homemakers and family caregivers (Ahmad & Koncsol, 2022). However, the  
108 impact of Pakistani families and those in other South Asian countries on lifestyle changes for  
109 PLwD is yet to be explored in more detail. It is important to have a comprehensive  
110 understanding of the support required for managing TD2M, as family support plays a  
111 significant role. Unfortunately, we lack a comprehensive understanding of what this support  
112 entails (Farooq et al., 2018).

113       The society-community-family model (Imran et al., 2015), formulated on South  
114 Asians LwD, provides a conceptualisation of how personal, social and community networks  
115 may influence lifestyle change in PLwD. Imran et al. (2015) were interested in understanding  
116 the familial and cultural influences on the management of T2DM in South Asians attending

117 the University Heritage Institute clinic, a university-based free clinic in the USA. These PLwD  
118 were uninsured and had lower incomes. The majority of the participants spoke English,  
119 Hindi or Urdu. A total of six focus groups were conducted (n = 32, age = 30–74, men = 17  
120 and women = 15, the majority were married = 28). Similar to in other studies, PLwD  
121 described the symbolic importance of food served by the host, and refusal to eat food as a  
122 sign of disrespect. Participants did understand the importance of diet and exercise, but only  
123 a few of them were able to carry it out. The authors also suggest that there is a traditional  
124 gender role, as one male participant described how ‘our women take pride in caring for  
125 their families. This is a good thing. However, to the point that they ignore themselves’ (p. 4).  
126 Women felt that their inability to look after their diet was due to their family duties, which  
127 require their utmost attention. The study reflects that the traditional role in the family for  
128 women LwD is a barrier compared to men LwD, as women’s role is to ensure they look after  
129 others. The WHO discusses social determinants, and this is one aspect that needs to be  
130 addressed more in future studies. PLwD have been described as struggling with the social  
131 pressure to eat, which also needs to be explored in terms of how a family can be involved  
132 without disrespecting the host. These concerns cannot be overcome by culturally-tailored  
133 educational programmes; efforts are needed to address the multiple interactions within a  
134 family and a community.

135         This framework helps people understand their social networks and how they affect  
136 those with diabetes. Cultural influences impact how people manage their illnesses, and  
137 families play a significant role. The society-community-family model offers insights into  
138 lifestyle changes for South Asian communities.

139         The concept of familism can also understand social interaction at a family level.  
140 Familism is a social organization that emphasizes the importance of the family unit over

141 individual members. It is based on affection and concern for family and is driven by a set of  
142 role expectations, behaviors, and perceptions. Familism places great importance on the  
143 success and failure of the family and is regarded as a critical criterion for value judgments.  
144 (Hee Park, 2004). Moreover, the family relationship within the family in Pakistan can be  
145 better explained within patriarchy within the family relationship.

146

147

148           Given Pakistan's low-income status, one may question whether families can afford  
149 the recommended meals for PLwD or whether PLwD can provide financial support for their  
150 families to follow these meal recommendations (Ansari et al., 2019). As abovementioned,  
151 like the nutritional guidelines in Britain and America, Pakistan's guidelines for PLwD  
152 emphasise the importance of understanding nutritional adjustments and meal preparation  
153 to manage blood glucose. However, these guidelines do not address the practical aspects of  
154 making these nutritional adjustments in a home setting. This highlights the importance of  
155 exploring the experiences of PLwD and their families with nutritional adjustments in daily  
156 life. By examining the perspectives of PLwD and their families on nutritional adjustments,  
157 we can gain new insights into the contextual factors that influence adjustments among  
158 Pakistani PLwD. This information can then assist stakeholders in setting treatment goals and  
159 creating personalised interventions for PLwD in Pakistan.

160           The studies cited thus far demonstrate that the enablers and barriers to nutritional  
161 adjustments among PLwD relate to the educational understanding of TD2M and individual,  
162 social, and community factors. Particularly, the mentioned literature shows that traditional  
163 cultural health beliefs influence the nutritional adjustments of PLwD in South Asian  
164 communities at the individual level; PLwD and their family members influence each other's

165 behaviours at the social level; and communities influence how people act (e.g., through  
166 community norms that influence individual decision-making) at the community level.

167 Accordingly, this study aimed to understand the experiences of PLwD and their  
168 family members in Pakistan regarding PLwD's nutritional adjustments for managing T2DM.

169 To this end, the following research questions were posed:

- 170 • How do PLwD living in Pakistani families adjust their nutrition to the  
171 recommendations of healthcare professionals to manage T2DM?
- 172 • What do PLwD living in Pakistan and their family members perceive as  
173 enablers and barriers to the necessary nutritional adjustments for managing  
174 T2DM?
- 175 • What strategies do PLwD living in Pakistan and their family members employ  
176 to enable the necessary nutritional adjustments?

## 177 **Methods**

### 178 **Study design**

179 The methodology was influenced by a focused ethnographic approach. In social  
180 research, focused ethnography is a method that zooms in on a specific issue within a  
181 particular setting. This approach involves studying a subset of people who share similarities  
182 with the researcher's culture, rather than those who are vastly different. The researcher  
183 analyzes the common actions and experiences of the participants, assuming that they share  
184 a similar cultural perspective, despite not being familiar with each other (Wall, 2015). It  
185 uses an interpretivist paradigm that looks at the meaning behind people's responses within  
186 their social and cultural settings (Chowdhury, 2014; Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006; Ritchie et al.,  
187 2013). This qualitative study employed semi-structured interviews for data collection. This



188 method was chosen because it adds depth to the examinations on the targeted study topic  
189 (Cohen et al., 2011; Denscombe, 2007; Gill et al., 2008). Appendix A provides details of the  
190 study methods.

### 191 **Interview guides**

192 Interview guides (one for PLwD; one for family members), developed based on the  
193 research by Keogh et al. (2011), Sullivan-Bolyai et al. (2014), and the researchers' reading of  
194 the relevant literature, were created. The initial interview guide was pilot-tested and  
195 modified as needed (e.g., some questions needed elaboration and others were changed  
196 regarding word choice).

197 The interview guide for PLwD focused on their understanding of own condition,  
198 details of the nutritional practices they performed, and how such practices influenced their  
199 T2DM management. Regarding nutritional practices, they were asked about what did and  
200 did not work for them and their views on their family's involvement in their meals.

201 The interview guide for family members of PLwD focused on their understanding of  
202 the condition of PLwD in the family. Regarding nutritional practices, they were asked what  
203 had and had not worked for PLwD in the family and their views on family involvement with  
204 nutritional practices.

### 205 **Data collection**

206 The participants in this study were selected using purposive and snowball sampling  
207 methods. The study was conducted in three diabetes centres, which are not named for  
208 confidentiality reasons. During their regular appointments, doctors asked PLwD and their  
209 family members whether they were interested in participating in the study. If they were  
210 interested, they were provided with an invitation letter and information sheet that

211 explained the study in more detail. Interviews were then scheduled with the researcher (i.e.  
 212 either on the same day of their regular appointment or at a later time based on the  
 213 participants' preferences) and took about an hour to complete. All participant were  
 214 residents of Lahore speak either Urdu and/or Punjabi. Lahore is a metropolitan city located  
 215 in Punjab, Pakistan.

216 The inclusion criteria for PLwD were as follows: having T2DM for at least 1 year, as  
 217 we deemed that this would allow them to be familiarised with and speak knowledgeably  
 218 about their experiences with TD2M; living with at least one adult family member, because  
 219 those living on their own would have different environmental factors influencing them than  
 220 someone living with family members; and being aged 30 years and above. The inclusion  
 221 criteria for family members were being 18 years or older and living in the same household as  
 222 the PLwD. It did not matter if the family member had a medical condition if it did not hinder  
 223 one's ability to support the PLwD.

## 224 **Ethics statement**

225 This study was approved by the responsible Ethics Committee [anonymised as  
 226 required by journal guidance]. The recruitment sites granted permission for study  
 227 conduction, and all participants provided verbal and written informed consent before data  
 228 collection.

## 229 **Participants' characteristics**

230 Tables 1 and 2 show the demographic details of PLwD and family members of PLwD.

231 **Table 1.** Participants' detailed characteristics

Characteristics of persons living with diabetes	Male persons living with diabetes	Female persons living with diabetes
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	(n = 13)	(n = 17)
Age group (in years)		
30–54	6	10
55+	7	7
Education		
No formal education	2	9
Reception to grade 6	5	2
Grade 7–11	1	5
Grade 12–13/further education	--	1
University/higher education	5	--
Marital status		
Single	--	--
Married	12	14
Widow/widower	1	3
Use of medication		
Oral medication	11	10
Insulin	2	6
Both (oral medication + insulin)	--	1
Family system		
Joint	6	12
Nuclear	7	5
Occupational status		
Homemaker	--	11
Middle-income job	5	1
Low-income job	7	4
Retired	1	1
Years since diagnosis		
1–5 years	8	5
6–10 years	1	1
11–15 years	2	4
16–20 years	2	7

232

233

234 **Table 2.** Detailed characteristics of the family members of people living with diabetes

Characteristics of family members of persons living with diabetes	Family members of male persons living with diabetes (n = 7)	Family members of female persons living with diabetes (n = 10)
Age group (in years)		

30–54	1	7
55+	6	3
Gender		
Men	1	4
Women	6	6
Education		
No formal education	2	--
Reception to grade 6	--	2
Grade 7–11	2	2
Grade 12–13/further education	---	4
University/higher education	3	2
Marital status		
Single	1	4
Married	6	6
Family system		
Joint	2	6
Nuclear	5	4
Employment		
Student	---	2
Middle-income job	2	1
Low-income job	1	5
Homemaker	4	2

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235

236 **Data analysis**

237 The interviews were audio recorded, transcribed in Urdu, and then translated into  
238 English by the first author, who is bilingual. Thematic analysis techniques were used to  
239 analyse the transcripts, following the approach by Braun and Clarke (2006). The first step  
240 was to become familiar with the data by rereading the transcripts. Using a deductive  
241 approach, the initial thematic categories were drawn from various theoretical backgrounds  
242 and literature, but they proved to be unhelpful as they did not fully reflect the ideas from  
243 the interviews. Therefore, the authors reviewed the first 16 transcripts, re-evaluated the  
244 codes, and adopted a data-driven approach that could better answer the research questions  
245 and provide more informative insights about the participants' experiences. During the

246 research, similar codes were analysed and grouped to determine how they related to the  
247 subthemes. The themes and subthemes were not fixed and were refined as the Results  
248 section was written. To better answer the research questions and provide clarity on what  
249 participants said, the subthemes required additional refinement. Saturation was achieved  
250 when no new codes emerged, indicating that all themes had been identified. To ensure  
251 accuracy, the researchers continuously discussed the themes and subthemes, refining the  
252 codes and themes. This involved researcher triangulation, and the researchers agreed on  
253 the presentation of quotes that reflected the themes (Appendix A provides more details).

254

## Results

255 The message provided by healthcare professionals that ‘a change in nutrition was  
256 necessary’ was understood by most respondents, and some participants (13 PLwD, nine  
257 men and four women) actively made nutritional changes to manage their diabetes at home.  
258 The findings indicate that differences in the perspectives of male and female PLwD  
259 regarding nutritional adjustments were influenced by the culturally defined roles/positions  
260 held by PLwD in the family and the cultural and family health beliefs. Extracts are shown in  
261 Appendix B Table and elaborate on the ideas discussed within each theme below.

### 262 **Theme 1: Influence of family system, gender, and age on meals prepared at home**

263 Family support can affect how PLwD follow nutritional recommendations at home,  
264 and there are differences by age, gender, and willingness to adapt. It can also have positive  
265 and negative effects depending on the type of support offered and the willingness to accept  
266 it.

267 Meal preparation for PLwD is seen as a joint effort instead of a single person's  
268 responsibility. During family meals, everyone eats together, and accommodations or

269 separate meals may be provided based on factors such as the family's budget and cultural  
270 expectations surrounding age and gender (see extract 1-2,4). In households with multiple  
271 generations living together, adult males are often willing to assist their mothers with  
272 diabetes by modifying family meals (see extract 3). If older women are involved in meal  
273 preparation and can make recipe modifications that suit their husbands' tastes, they can  
274 easily make nutritional adjustments to family meals (see extracts 4). For male PLwD, if they  
275 were willing to make nutritional adjustments, either the whole meal was adjusted by family  
276 members or a separate meal was provided according to the PLwD's request (see extracts 5–  
277 10).

278 Middle-aged and older female PLwD in both joint and nuclear families stated that  
279 they could better manage their nutritional intake if their adult children could prepare and  
280 serve recommended meals on time (see extract 11, 14). Adult women were typically  
281 responsible for meal preparation, while adult men often provided information on nutritional  
282 requirements through verbal communication or pamphlets (see extract 12). Having adult  
283 children around reportedly facilitated nutritional adjustments. However, family members  
284 must be mindful not to pressure older female PLwD to change, as forceful efforts were  
285 reported to sometimes cause family conflicts (see extract 13).

286 In traditional joint family contexts, daughters-in-law were often described to assist  
287 older family members (see extracts 14-15), and cultural practices were shown to be both  
288 barriers and enablers of nutritional adjustments among older female PLwD. Some older  
289 female PLwD mentioned that the daughter-in-law could not prepare the recommended  
290 meals owing to having young children to care for, which served as a barrier for older female  
291 PLwD's nutritional adjustments (see extract 16).

292 In the nuclear family context, the situation is similar, as the unmarried daughters'  
293 failure to serve meals on time could lead older female PLwD to eat unhealthy foods at home  
294 (see extract 17). These descriptions highlight the expectations placed on younger women in  
295 the family. However, older female PLwD could overcome this barrier by planning and  
296 making nutritional adjustments if they were actively involved in meal preparations (see  
297 extract 18).

298 Meanwhile, older and younger male PLwD (vs. older female PLwD) preferred a less  
299 intrusive approach from family members. They described informing their family members of  
300 their meal needs, allowing the latter to prepare the meals accordingly (see extracts 19-20).  
301 However, male PLwD needed to communicate their nutritional needs to their wife with  
302 effectiveness, as this assisted the wife understand the nutritional expectations, leading to a  
303 cooperative effort towards a healthier lifestyle (see extracts 21-22). Failure to communicate  
304 these expectations was described to potentially lead to improper meals. Additionally, male  
305 PLwD who had lost their wives could face difficulties with their meals if they were not  
306 capable of communicating their needs to someone other than their daughter or wife. This  
307 was as a potential barrier for male PLwD who could not cook or live without their daughters  
308 (see extract 23).

309 In contrast to older female and male PLwD, younger female PLwD could not make  
310 nutritional adjustments for themselves or were not offered help. The importance of family  
311 roles is highlighted here, with younger mothers describing being fully absorbed with their  
312 children. The interviews also showed that the cultural expectations of women to make sure  
313 that the family's needs are met could clash with the nutritional recommendations, as female  
314 PLwD sometimes preferred to value the family's nutrition over food affordability (see

315 extracts 24-25). These results show that both PLwD and their family members can act as  
316 barriers and facilitators to nutritional adjustments in Pakistan.

317 **Theme 2: Temptations of ‘unhealthy’ foods, festivals, cultural interactions, and social**  
318 **etiquette**

319 The way families are structured can affect how they deal with ‘unhealthy’ foods  
320 during festivities, special occasions, and social gatherings. During festive seasons or  
321 gatherings in Pakistan, it is common for people to indulge in traditional and unhealthy sweet  
322 dishes, disrupting normal cooking routines. This can be particularly challenging for PLwD, as  
323 they may be tempted to eat these foods they are not supposed to (see extract 26-27). Some  
324 families either directly stop PLwD or prepare separate meals for PLwD, but maintaining  
325 control over their own nutrition is ultimately up to the PLwD (see extract 28–30). Thus,  
326 festive occasions in Pakistan can be barriers to nutritional adjustments.

327 During social gatherings, social etiquette can also serve as a barrier to nutritional  
328 adjustments for many PLwD, as they often feel pressured to consume sugary or oily foods  
329 that are harmful to their health. Unfortunately, sharing information about own condition  
330 may not always be helpful, as some individuals may still force them to eat unhealthy foods  
331 (see extract 31–32). This lack of sensitivity towards the seriousness of the situation can  
332 make social situations difficult for PLwD. To combat these pressures, some older female  
333 PLwD, or their family members, reported having developed strategies to take control of  
334 their diet and navigate social situations with the help of adult family members (i.e. children  
335 or daughter-in-law, see extract 33–35). Older female PLwD were offered more practical  
336 help in social situations. A daughter-in-law reported that she gave support by providing  
337 suggestions or actively refusing the unhealthy meals proposed by the hosts of the house  
338 that the PLwD were visiting (see extracts 36–37). Thus, the role of counteracting social



339 pressure seemed to be assigned to younger female family members accompanying the  
340 PLwD in social gatherings. Nonetheless, such family support was possible in these situations  
341 because the particular older female PLwD were willing to receive such help. Other family  
342 members described being able to offer help in social settings only if the older female PLwD  
343 were willing to receive it (see extracts 37–38). When persuading reluctant older female  
344 PLwD, some younger children described using a respectful approach by discussing the value  
345 of the PLwD's presence in their lives (see extract 39).

346 Furthermore, it was crucial to be mindful of the expected normative behaviours  
347 when interacting with women of different hierarchical statuses within both the joint family  
348 (for daughters-in-law) and nuclear family contexts (for adult children showing respect  
349 towards older parents). This was deemed more important than forcing people to resist  
350 temptation (see extracts 40–41).

351 Sometimes, older female PLwD felt obligated to consume unhealthy foods because  
352 of formal social situations or their husband's disapproval, and they willingly took  
353 responsibility for their choices (see extracts 42–43).

354 Moreover, although men offered help to older female PLwD, they also expected  
355 younger female PLwD (e.g. their wives) to take responsibility for their actions, and did not  
356 think that they had to stop a host from offering unhealthy foods to younger female PLwD.  
357 Younger female PLwD were expected to learn methods similar to those used by men to  
358 counteract social pressures related to eating unhealthy foods (see extracts 44–45).

359 Meanwhile, male PLwD described taking personal responsibility for their health  
360 choices (see extracts 46–48) as it may not be culturally acceptable for family members to  
361 offer them assistance publicly, especially women (see extract 49). Older male PLwD may be  
362 more receptive to help from their sons in social situations (see extract 50). Notwithstanding,

363 they cannot always refuse unhealthy foods in social interactions. When male PLwD are not  
364 in a position of power, it can sometimes be challenging for them to make healthy choices,  
365 such as when they receive a request from their boss or mother to eat sweet foods (see  
366 extracts 51–53). Despite these social pressures, male PLwD can still make healthier choices  
367 when allowed to make their own decisions.

368 **Theme 3: Folk knowledge, folk remedy, and the balance between culture and Western**  
369 **medicine**

370 Many Pakistani PLwD and their family members strongly believe in certain foods'  
371 health-boosting and symptom-alleviating nutritional properties. Participants' remarks  
372 regarding T2DM management knowledge/practices confirmed that personal beliefs about  
373 food properties significantly influenced their nutritional adjustments (see extracts 54–55).  
374 These beliefs were mainly based on traditional cultural beliefs on the nutritional properties  
375 of foods. For example, foods that were culturally perceived as 'healthy' were described by  
376 PLwD and family members as having nutritional properties that helped PLwD overcome the  
377 'weaknesses' they experienced or control blood sugar level (see extract 56–57)

378 Sometimes, healthcare professionals' nutritional recommendations for blood  
379 glucose management did not align with these cultural beliefs about what makes a 'meal  
380 strong'. For instance, a male person living with diabetes (see extract 58) did not consider  
381 chicken nutritious and good for his health because he believed it lacked body strength.  
382 Other participants considered food with religious significance safe to consume, even if their  
383 doctors advised against it (see extracts 59). Thus, recommendations that contradicted  
384 cultural beliefs or religious practices regarding foods and their health benefits were less  
385 likely to be followed, serving as barriers to nutritional adjustments.

386 Many Pakistani PLwD and their family members described having considered using  
387 homemade cultural remedies for TD2M management. These remedies have been passed  
388 down through generations and are often learned from acquaintances, the Internet, or  
389 newspapers (see extract 60-61). While researching these remedies, people may also  
390 discover how to make better nutritional choices. As aforementioned, some PLwD chose  
391 specific foods—such as mixtures with vegetables—based on cultural beliefs about their  
392 impact on blood sugar management (see extracts 60, 62–64). However, some participants  
393 realised that these ‘totkas’ could be unhealthy (see extract 65).

394 Accordingly, both Pakistani PLwD and their family members had a strong interest in  
395 the medicinal properties of foods, making cultural beliefs regarding food an important  
396 enabler and barrier of nutritional adjustments for Pakistani PLwD.

## 397 **Discussion**

398 In countries like Pakistan, social behaviour is shaped by various factors, including  
399 age, gender, and family status in a joint or nuclear family system. Our findings emphasise  
400 that these factors are important when providing personalised nutritional recommendations.  
401 While prior studies have focused on gender-based power dynamics (Barolia et al. 2013  
402 Bukhsh et al., 2020; Farooq et al., 2018; Mohamed Nor et al., 2019), this study brings to light  
403 how cultural norms surrounding not only gender but also age work in a complex manner to  
404 impact nutritional choices. The findings show that family dynamics can be both enablers and  
405 barriers to nutritional adjustments for T2DM management depending on position and  
406 authority within the family. Cultural family roles, health beliefs, and the appeal of festive  
407 and religious foods were found to pose challenges for PLwD in making nutritional  
408 adjustments as per healthcare professionals' recommendations. Accordingly, the social

409 environment in which Pakistani PLwD live can significantly influence their nutritional  
410 adjustments; future studies and intervention programmes could focus on this aspect to  
411 address the challenges these individuals and their families face.

412         Our findings show that it is common for Pakistani women to be responsible for meal  
413 preparation, and men to rely on them for their meals. This corroborates the findings of  
414 previous research on South Asian communities living abroad (Bukhsh et al., 2020; Farooq et  
415 al., 2018; Mohamed Nor et al., 2019; Sohal et al., 2015). However, our evidence also  
416 demonstrates that family nutritional practices go beyond meal preparation, as family  
417 members share related decision-making and responsibilities. Furthermore, the results  
418 demonstrate the amount of agency involved in meal decision-making. For example, men  
419 decide whether PLwD need separate meals or must share family meals. This traditional role  
420 of men is seemingly associated with traditional concepts of respect within cultural  
421 structures (Ahmad & Koncsol, 2022), and ensures that Pakistani male PLwD receive the  
422 necessary support (i.e. increases their agency) for T2DM management because their wives  
423 make the necessary nutritional adjustments. Healthcare professionals could thus endeavour  
424 to understand these inviolable role expectations, as making inadequate requests could  
425 cause family conflicts and/or affect the men's self-image. Despite the significant impact of  
426 cultural practices and daily environment on nutritional adjustments, researchers and  
427 authorities in nutrition in Pakistan have not given sufficient attention to these aspects of  
428 such adjustments thus far. By providing more valuable insights into the specific social  
429 contexts of Pakistani PLwD, this study extends our understanding of the situation of their  
430 nutritional adjustments in Pakistan and further emphasises that stakeholders should focus  
431 on the topic in the future.

432 Younger female Pakistani PLWD in our sample were at a disadvantage regarding  
433 family meal decision-making. Although women were typically the ones with cooking skills,  
434 this did not mean that they could make nutritional adjustments to ensure that the family's  
435 diet concurred with medical recommendations for PLWD. Barolia et al. (2013) showed  
436 similar findings regarding gender differences in the ability to make changes in family meals.  
437 Nonetheless, the current study adds that age differences, specifically being an older female  
438 PLWD, can influence control over family meals. Pakistani older female PLWD (e.g. a mother-  
439 in-law) had advantages over younger female PLWD (e.g. a daughter-in-law) because older  
440 women had more control and power over the family, including over nutritional practices.  
441 Older female PLWD (in our sample, mothers-in-law) were also more aware of the tastes of  
442 family members higher in the hierarchy and could decide on nutritional adjustments if they  
443 satisfied their husbands' tastes. Thus, stakeholders should not exert direct control over  
444 older female PLWD but rather learn from them about their different taste preferences or  
445 those of male family members.

446 PLWD in our sample struggled with temptations during festivities and religious  
447 events, and this was similar to the situation in other countries, including other South Asian  
448 communities (Gallant et al., 2007; Gupta et al., 2017). Studies on both Western and South  
449 Asian communities show that the consumption of sweet foods is an issue (Lawton et al.,  
450 2007; Singh et al., 2012). Despite these similarities, if male PLWD in our sample wanted to  
451 cope with the temptations, they reportedly could ask for additional meals to be prepared  
452 for them. The findings explored so far show that the current study has identified small  
453 details about the social behaviours of Pakistani PLWD, a topic that has been overlooked by  
454 researchers (Ahmed & Yeasmeen, 2016). Thus, while family support is a crucial factor in  
455 nutritional adjustment, this research provides more specific details on its potential to act as

456 a barrier or enabler in this process—and on the intricacies of family support in relation to  
457 nutritional adjustment. Contrastingly, past scholars have only broadly described family  
458 support as either supportive or non-supportive.

459         Similar to the findings of the study by Sohail et al. (2015), our results suggest that  
460 PLwD face social pressure to make unhealthy food choices when they attend social  
461 gatherings/events (e.g. weddings). Still, the current study extends the evidence by  
462 demonstrating that the agency of PLwD is limited depending on the formality of the social  
463 setting, which in turn is informed by the hierarchy of the host and its control over the PLwD.  
464 For example, male PLwD were reportedly unable to refuse the pressure from a boss to eat  
465 sweets because this could be interpreted as a disrespect towards an authority, which may  
466 have consequences. Hence, in such a formal social setting, the hierarchical interactions can  
467 make Pakistani PLwD feel obliged to comply with the demands of the host based on the  
468 cultural understanding of the relevant norms of interaction. These structural influences are  
469 an essential part of communities with clearly established hierarchal interactions and levels  
470 and may be shared by other communities (e.g. other South Asian communities).

471         In informal social settings (e.g. a visit to a relative), some older female PLwD were  
472 able to ask their children or daughters-in-law for help to ensure that they would receive the  
473 recommended foods. However, they did not ask for such help in formal social settings (e.g.  
474 going to discuss a wedding proposal). Moreover, older female PLwD were less able to  
475 control nutritional adjustments in settings where they had lower levels of power and where  
476 their disagreement could result in some form of disrespect towards—or even bother for or  
477 burden on—the host. Accordingly, formal settings seem to limit the agency of Pakistani  
478 PLwD regarding taking responsibility for own nutritional adjustments, as they may feel less  
479 in control of the social interaction.

480 Exploring ways to modify Pakistani cuisine to help PLwD resist food temptations is  
481 important. Based on our qualitative data, Pakistani customs significantly influence gender  
482 roles, as well as festive expectations and the accompanying meals. Given these cultural  
483 norms, it is important to consider introducing healthier recipes that adhere to the relevant  
484 nutritional guidelines while still appealing to the entire family during festive celebrations.  
485 Creating campaigns to promote these options could be beneficial.

486 In South Asian communities, the society-community-family model tackles some  
487 structural issues affecting those with diabetes. It recognizes that family members often  
488 provide support to the PLwD, traditional diets, and a patriarchal society can impact cultural  
489 norms. However, this model has limitations as it does not fully explain the process of  
490 socialization within families and the structural influences highlighted by this study. The  
491 model may not fully account for the intricate socialization involved in lifestyle behavior  
492 within a particular community. However, these models do not consider the varying levels of  
493 control and social support that different individuals receive during lifestyle changes.

494 According to the findings, PLwD interacts differently with family members based on  
495 power dynamics. This can make it difficult for them to make lifestyle changes, as they may  
496 not be able to refuse certain family members. This lack of control can be problematic. The  
497 study reflects on Cockerham's theory that public health education is important to promote  
498 individual responsibility for health. However, it also suggests that social factors can play a  
499 role in behavior change. According to Cockerham's health lifestyle theory (2014, p. 1036),  
500 health lifestyles refer to collective patterns of health-related behavior that are based on the  
501 choices available to individuals depending on their life circumstances. Structural factors such  
502 as gender also play a role in determining these choices (Cockerham, 2018). This theory helps  
503 to explain the patterns identified in the study. For instance, the results indicate that the

504 gender of PLWD is not just a demographic characteristic, but it also shapes expectations and  
505 cultural norms that restrict women more than men.

506 Women are expected to follow their husbands' demands as a sign of respect, which  
507 is also a religious obligation. Thus, they may not be willing to disagree or refuse to make  
508 lifestyle changes. The findings suggest that women are reluctant to disrupt the power  
509 dynamics within their families. The study highlights that lifestyle behaviors are influenced by  
510 cultural norms of interaction, which is consistent with previous research (Cockerham, 2018;  
511 Cockerham et al., 2017) that indicates people conform to group expectations to be part of a  
512 community. It is crucial to address the power dynamics within families when developing  
513 interventions for lifestyle change within South Asian communities.

514 In recent years, public health has given more attention to the intersectionality  
515 between demographic characteristics, such as gender and social class, within a person's  
516 identity (Bowleg, 2012; Richman, and Zucker, 2019). Even within the same gender, people  
517 are treated differently, and the combination of demographic factors influences cultural  
518 influences on acceptable behavior within South Asian communities. According to Bowleg  
519 (2012, p. 1268), intersectionality is essential because "multiple social identities at the micro-  
520 level intersect with macro-level structural factors to illustrate or produce disparate health  
521 outcomes." The intersectionality theory was created by feminist legal scholar Kimberlé  
522 Crenshaw, who discussed the differences in the experiences of white women from black  
523 women, and gender differences within the black community. Even within a marginalized  
524 group, the intersection of gender and ethnicity informs people's different experiences  
525 (Bowleg, 2012). Similarly, the findings of this study show that age and gender combinations  
526 can differently affect nutritional practices and need to be taken into consideration by  
527 doctors and policymakers when updating the current guidelines.



## 528 **Implications**

529           To improve nutrition in families with PLwD in Pakistan, health professionals,  
530 policymakers, and researchers should target men and older women as the main decision-  
531 makers. They can educate these decision-makers directly or when accompanying their  
532 family members to the doctor. An effective strategy is to engage influential people outside  
533 the home, such as religious scholars, in the encouragement of nutritional adjustments. The  
534 national action plan suggests involving influential people at the domestic level to increase  
535 the likelihood of PLwD and family members listening to them. By using this approach, men  
536 can be encouraged to make nutritional adjustments and become more likely to support  
537 women in preparing these meals, and women can be provided with healthy and accessible  
538 recipes.

539           Educating Pakistani women on recipes that comply with current recommendations  
540 can help with T2DM management. This education could be provided at the doctor's office,  
541 through cookbooks, or during cooking shows. Additionally, community-based lifestyle  
542 interventions, similar to those used in India (Balagopal et al., 2008), could prove effective, as  
543 Pakistani female PLwD are seemingly more motivated by their contextual influences than  
544 individual efforts. These interventions could also involve PLwD, their families, and  
545 community members.

546           Regarding future research, scholars could explore the traditional Pakistani meals  
547 served during festivities and collaborate with chefs to create healthier options that can be  
548 enjoyed by all generations and genders. Regarding healthy lifestyle promotion,  
549 interventions could be focused on the community as a whole, with a particular emphasis on  
550 men, who often are family decision-makers on nutrition. Research by Gupta et al. (2017) has  
551 shown that modifications to celebratory meals during Navratri fasts for Hindus can be



575 The sample reflected people from lower or middle socioeconomic backgrounds,  
576 limiting the generalisability of the findings to these demographics. Still, this limitation was  
577 partially overcome as the targeted socioeconomic backgrounds represent the major  
578 demographic in the target society, which is a positive aspect of this study.

## 579 **Conclusion**

580 The study highlights a discrepancy between the scientific evidence supporting the  
581 importance of culture in nutritional recommendations and the actual actions taken by  
582 relevant authorities in Pakistan. One important finding of this study is that nutritional  
583 recommendations should not be prescribed uniformly. Instead, they should consider the  
584 specific needs and preferences of those belonging to different age groups, genders, and  
585 family positions within a community. The medical teams and Ministry of Health in Pakistan  
586 need to recognise the cultural barriers faced by Pakistani PLWD, which can hinder their  
587 choice of healthy nutritional habits. To address this issue and promote healthier behaviours,  
588 stakeholders should work within the cultural norms of Pakistani society.

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