



# Geographic and Socioeconomic Disparities in Nutritional Status of Women in Pakistan: Secondary Analysis from Pakistan National Nutrition Survey

Kamran Sadiq<sup>1</sup>; Bushra Mahmood<sup>2</sup>; Sumra Kureishy<sup>1</sup>; Shabina Ariff<sup>1</sup>; Ghulam Mustafa<sup>2</sup>; Gul Nawaz Khan<sup>1</sup>; Rhman Khan<sup>2</sup>; Muhammad Umer<sup>1</sup>; Zahid Memon<sup>1</sup>; Naveed Janjua<sup>3</sup>; Sajid Soofi<sup>1\*</sup>; Zulfiqar A Bhutta<sup>4,5</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Paediatrics & Child Health, Aga Khan University, Karachi, Pakistan.

<sup>2</sup>Trust for Vaccines & Immunization, Karachi, Pakistan.

<sup>3</sup>School of Population and Public Health, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC, Canada.

<sup>4</sup>Center of Excellence in Women and Child Health, Aga Khan University, Pakistan.

<sup>5</sup>Center for Global Child Health, Hospital for Sick Children, Toronto, Canada.

## \*Corresponding Author(s): Sajid Bashir Soofi

Associate Professor, Department of Pediatrics & Child Health, Aga Khan University, Stadium road, Karachi-74800, Pakistan.

Tel: +92-3002769398; Mail: sajid.soofi@aku.edu

## Abstract

**Background:** Pakistan is experiencing a rapid nutrition transition with a shift from underweight to overweight and obesity. This paper will examine the role of household socioeconomic position (SEP), community SEP and urbanicity on the nutritional status (underweight, overweight and obesity) of Pakistani women.

**Methods:** We analysed data on 34,391 women aged  $\geq 20$  years enrolled in 2011 National Nutritional Survey of Pakistan (NNS). The NNS is a nationally representative survey employing a multistage stratified cluster sampling design. We assessed household SEP through a wealth index constructed using items from household possessions, utilities and housing conditions. We assessed the relationship of urbanicity, household and community SEP with categories of body mass index (BMI) using multinomial logistic regression where normal BMI (18.6-22.5 kg/m<sup>2</sup>) was the reference category.

**Results:** Overall, 15% of women were underweight (BMI < 18.5 kg/m<sup>2</sup>), 14% were pre-overweight (BMI 23.00-24.9 kg/m<sup>2</sup>), 22% were overweight (BMI 25.0-29.99 kg/m<sup>2</sup>) and 12% were obese (BMI  $\geq 30.0$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>). Households with higher SEP were associated with increased levels of overweight-1 (aOR: 2.91; 95%CI: 2.41-3.50), overweight-2 (aOR: 4.15; 95%CI: 3.31-5.19) and obesity (aOR: 6.20; 95%CI: 4.92-7.81) among women. Women were more likely to be obese in major urban (aOR: 2.34; 95%CI: 2.02-2.71) and urban (aOR: 1.84; 95%CI: 1.62-2.09) areas compared to rural areas. At the community level, communities in rural areas were more likely to have higher levels of underweight,

Received: Aug 31, 2020

Accepted: Oct 01, 2020

Published Online: Oct 05, 2020

Journal: Annals of Pediatrics

Publisher: MedDocs Publishers LLC

Online edition: <http://meddocsonline.org/>

Copyright: © Soofi SB (2020). This Article is distributed under the terms of Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License

**Keywords:** Socioeconomic position; Neighbourhood; Urbanicity; Obesity; underweight; Overweight; Nutrition transition.

**Abbreviations:** AKU: Aga Khan University; BMI: Body Mass Index; HWQ: Household Wealth Quintiles; NNS: National Nutrition Survey; PDHS: Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey; RAF; Research and Advocacy Fund; SEP: Socioeconomic Position.

**Cite this article:** Sadiq K, Mahmood B, Kureishy S, Ariff S, Soofi SB, et al. Geographic and Socioeconomic Disparities in Nutritional Status of Women in Pakistan: Secondary Analysis from Pakistan National Nutrition Survey. Ann Pediatr. 2020; 3(1): 1033.



while communities in urban areas were more likely to have higher levels of obesity. Furthermore, the likelihood of underweight and overweight women coexisting within the same community was low in major urban ( $r=0.67$ ), urban ( $r=0.55$ ) and rural ( $r=0.54$ ) areas.

**Conclusions:** In Pakistan, overweight and obesity among women is associated with urbanicity and household and community SEP. Women living in urban areas with high household and community SEP were associated with higher levels of overweight and obesity. Our findings suggest the importance of interventions targeting undernutrition in rural areas and overnutrition in urban areas.

## Background

Maternal and child undernutrition is a major public health problem in developing countries, such as India, Pakistan and Bangladesh [1,2]. However, emerging evidence suggests the presence of a nutrition transition in developing countries; where the nutritional status of the population is shifting from underweight to overweight. At the regional and country level, the nutritional transition trends differ according to economic and dietary conditions [3,4]. Although undernutrition still contributes to poor health outcomes in the developing world, there is sufficient evidence that the rise in overweight and obesity is resulting in an increased burden of non-communicable diseases, such as diabetes and cardiovascular diseases [5].

In Pakistan, the overall proportion of underweight women has decreased from 25% to 13% over the past two decades; however simultaneously there has been a rise in the proportion of overweight women (22.5% to 34%). The 2011 National Nutrition Survey (NNS) also identified a major shift in the nutritional status of women, with 16% being underweight and 34% being overweight and obese [6]. Similar trends have been reported in the 2013 Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey (PDHS) [7]. However, there is limited data on the reasons for this nutrition transition among Pakistani women at the national level. Other studies have postulated the overall economic development (improved employment opportunities and higher incomes) as the factor leading to changes in lifestyle and dietary habits [8].

Regardless of the economic growth in Pakistan, there has been an increase in economic disparity at the population level [9-11]. The economic opportunities among lower socioeconomic segments of the population remain inequitable. This inequity in economic opportunities along with inflation limits the population's ability to access quality food in adequate quantity. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), 60% of Pakistanis live below the poverty line (< \$2 per day), while another 21% lives on less than \$1.25 per day [12].

Over the past decades, the population size of urban Pakistan has grown substantially [13]. The rise is linked to urbanization, which can have an impact on population health. Research has linked urbanization with improvements in access to healthcare, clean water, sanitation, education, social services and economic opportunities. These improvements have also led to an altering of the dietary and physical activity patterns with the population becoming more sedentary and experiencing a higher emergence of noncommunicable diseases and obesity [14-17].

We were not able to assess urbanicity on a continuum scale [14,16]. However, we used population size and the Federal Bureau of Statistics definition to classify urbanicity into major ur-

ban, urban and rural areas. We also did not have access to community level variables to characterize communities. For future studies, we recommend collecting community level variables to enable the assessment of community level factors affecting health and nutrition. However, the impact of urbanization on population health in Pakistan remains largely theoretical due to the limited evidence available. Therefore, we conducted a secondary analysis of the 2011 NNS to examine the association of household Socioeconomic Position (SEP), community SEP, and urbanization with the nutritional status of Pakistani women.

## Methods

### Data source, study setting and population

Our study used the data subset of the 2011 NNS [12]. The NNS is a large cross-sectional survey that collected data on the nutritional status and health indicators of women, children and older adults ( $\geq 50$  years old) across Pakistan. The survey was administered by trained lady health workers (LHWs) through face-to-face interviews. A structured questionnaire, semi-structured interviews and focus groups were used to capture a wide range of data on household characteristics, food security, maternal and child health and nutrition status. Stratified two-stage cluster sampling was used to select a representative sample size. This resulted in 27,963 households completing the survey. However, for our study, the study population was restricted to women ( $\geq 20$  years old), which gave a final sample size of 34,391 women.

### Main exposures and covariates

The main exposures of interest were household SEP and community SEP. Research suggests that questionnaires on income do not provide a good indication of the socioeconomic status in developing countries. However, the use of household assets and material possessions as indicators of the wealth index is widely used; it is validated in India [19,20]. The household wealth index is an indicator based on household possessions, utilities and construction [21]. Such scales have shown good validity and reliability in classifying households by their wealth in developing countries and provide a measure of income inequality in health status [19,20,22]. We performed a Principle Component Analysis (PCA) based on household possessions, utilities (water source, cooking fuel, electricity, gas) and housing conditions (roof, wall and floor construction materials). The household wealth index score was generated by combining the score for each asset with weight for each asset derived from the PCA. The wealth index does not have a direct interpretation, since it is a constructed composite measure. Therefore, the population was divided into quintiles of the wealth index, with the 1<sup>st</sup> quintile representing the lowest SEP (poorest households) and the 5<sup>th</sup> quintile representing the highest SEP (richest households).

The community wealth index was calculated by combining household wealth index scores. The communities were also divided into quintiles, with the 1<sup>st</sup> quintile representing the lowest SEP (poorest communities) and the 5<sup>th</sup> quintile representing the highest SEP (richest communities). Covariates included in the analysis were age, ethnicity, individual education, household education, occupation, urbanicity (major urban, urban and rural), and province of residence.

### Outcome

The nutritional status of women was assessed through Body Mass Index (BMI). The World Health Organization (WHO) clas-

sification for Asian populations was used to categorize BMI into the following groups: <18.5 kg/m<sup>2</sup> (underweight), 18.5-22.9 kg/m<sup>2</sup> (normal weight), 23.0-24.9 kg/m<sup>2</sup> (pre-overweight), 25.0-27.5 kg/m<sup>2</sup> (overweight-1), 27.6-29.9 kg/m<sup>2</sup> (overweight-2) and ≥30 kg/m<sup>2</sup> (obese) [23].

### Statistical analysis

We computed the proportion of underweight, normal weight, pre-overweight, overweight and obese women and applied sampling weights to account for unequal sampling probabilities and clustering during data analysis.

Multinomial logistic regression was used to assess the relationship between SEP and BMI, where the normal BMI was used as the reference. The association of BMI categories were further assessed across household wealth quintiles, community wealth quintiles, age, education, urbanicity, and occupation. Using the multinomial logistic regression, we calculated the adjusted odds ratios (aOR) with 95% confidence intervals. The interaction was assessed between household wealth, community wealth and urbanicity.

For BMI categories, multilevel multinomial logistic regression was used to assess the variance in nutritional status between communities, with a community level random effect. The random effects used were specific to underweight and overweight, allowing for different community level factors to affect each outcome category. If correlated, the random effects for underweight and overweight would demonstrate the extent to which underweight and overweight women coexist in communities. The normal BMI was used as the reference. All analyses were performed using SAS statistical software (version 9.3).

## Results

### Participant profile

From the 2011 NNS, a total of 34,391 adult women aged 20 years or older were included in the secondary data analysis.

Majority of the women were housewives (90%) aged between 20-39 years (67%), from rural areas (67%), with no formal education (62%) (Table 1; Figure 1). Most of the women were from the province of Punjab (55%). Among the employed women, 3% were identified as unskilled labourers or farm workers. Only 1% of the women were highly educated with post-secondary education and worked in the services sector. Overall, 36% of women were normal weight, 15% were underweight, 14% were pre-overweight, 22% were overweight and 12% were obese.

### Household SEP and underweight

A gradual decrease was observed in the proportion of underweight women across household wealth quintiles (HWQ) with 27% in the 1<sup>st</sup> HWQ (lowest SEP; poorest household) to 4% in the 5<sup>th</sup> quintile (highest SEP; richest household). After adjusting for covariates, women in the 1<sup>st</sup> HWQ were more likely to be underweight than those in the 3<sup>rd</sup> quintile (aOR: 0.73; 95%CI: 0.64-0.83) and the 5<sup>th</sup> quintile (aOR: 0.57; 95%CI: 0.48-0.68) (Table 2).

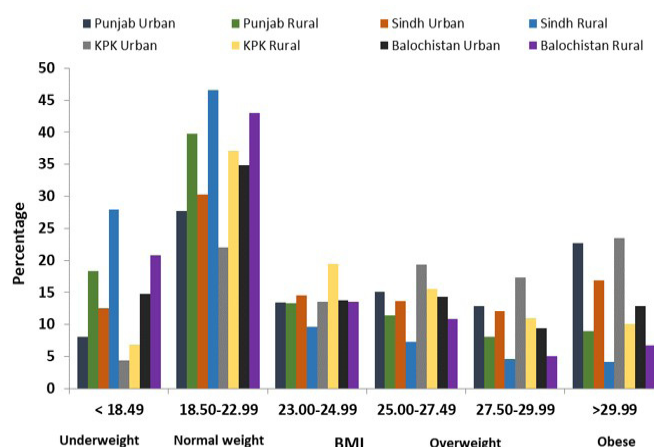


Figure 1: Distribution of BMI categories by province, urban and rural areas among Pakistani women.

Table 1: Distribution of BMI by participants' characteristics, National Nutritional Survey of Pakistan 2011.

	N	Overall N (%; 95%CI)	Underweight	Normal	Pre-overweight	Overweight		Obesity
			<18.5	18.5-22.9	23.0-24.9	25.0-27.5	27.5-29.9	≥30
			% (95%CI)	% (95%CI)	% (95%CI)	% (95%CI)	% (95%CI)	% (95%CI)
<b>Total Sample</b>	34391	-	15 (15-16)	36 (36-37)	14 (14-15)	13 (12-13)	10 (9-10)	12 (12-13)
<b>Urbanicity</b>								
Major Urban	7028	20 (19-20)	9 (8-10)	27 (25-28)	14 (13-15)	15 (14-16)	14 (13-15)	22 (21-24)
Urban	7507	13 (12-13)	11 (10-12)	32 (30-33)	14 (13-15)	15 (14-16)	11 (11-12)	17 (16-18)
Rural	19856	67 (67-68)	18 (17-18)	40 (39-41)	14 (13-15)	12 (11-12)	8 (8-8)	8 (8-9)
<b>Province</b>								
Punjab	16665	55 (54-55)	15 (14-16)	36 (35-37)	13 (13-14)	13 (12-13)	10 (9-10)	13 (13-14)
Sindh	7480	22 (22-23)	20 (19-21)	38 (37-40)	12 (11-13)	11 (10-11)	8 (8-9)	11 (10-12)
KPK	4150	13 (13-14)	6 (5-8)	35 (32-37)	19 (16-21)	16 (15-18)	12 (11-13)	12 (11-14)
Balochistan	2483	4 (4-5)	19 (17-21)	41 (38-43)	14 (12-15)	12 (11-13)	6 (5-8)	8 (7-10)
FATA	758	2 (2-2)	2 (0-5)	26 (20-31)	21 (17-26)	25 (21-30)	15 (11-19)	11 (7-14)
AJK	1801	3 (2-3)	19 (16-22)	39 (37-42)	16 (13-18)	11 (10-13)	8 (6-9)	7 (5-9)
Gilgit	1054	1 (1-1)	16 (12-20)	48 (45-52)	16 (12-19)	10 (8-12)	6 (4-8)	3 (2-5)

Age (years)								
20- 29	12733	37 (36 -37)	19 (18 -19)	44 (43 -45)	14 (13 -15)	10 (10 -11)	7 (6 -7)	6 (6 -7)
30-39	10438	30 (29 -31)	13 (12 -13)	35 (34 -36)	14 (14 -15)	14 (13 -15)	10 (10 -11)	13 (13 -14)
40-49	4718	14 (13 -14)	11 (10 -12)	29 (27 -30)	13 (12 -14)	15 (14 -16)	13 (12 -14)	19 (18 -21)
50-59	3399	10 (10 -10)	11 (9 -12)	28 (27 -30)	13 (11 -14)	15 (14 -17)	13 (12 -14)	20 (18 -22)
60-69	2101	6 (6 -7)	16 (14 -18)	31 (28 -33)	15 (13 -16)	13 (11 -15)	11 (10 -13)	14 (12 -16)
70-79	719	2 (2 -2)	25 (21 -28)	32 (28 -35)	13 (10 -16)	12 (9 -14)	8 (5 -10)	11 (9 -14)
≥80	283	1 (1 -1)	33 (27 -39)	37 (30 -43)	12 (7 -18)	8 (4 -11)	6 (2 -9)	4 (2 -7)
Occupation								
Business/shop/landlord	82	0 (0 -0)	15(5 -24)	34 (21 -47)	12 (5 -19)	16 (7 -24)	10 (3 -18)	13 (5 -21)
Services (higher education) <sup>1</sup>	382	1 (1 -1)	9 (6 -13)	32 (26 -37)	15 (11 -20)	17 (13 -22)	13 (9 -18)	14 (10 -18)
Services (lower education) <sup>2</sup>	429	1 (1 -1)	16 (12 -20)	34 (29 -39)	16 (12 -20)	12 (9 -15)	9 (6 -13)	12 (9 -16)
Skilled manual workers	17	0 (0 -0)	19 (0 -39)	17 (0 -38)	34 (7 -60)	5 (0 -15)	16 (0 -33)	9 (0 -27)
Unskilled/Farm workers	832	3 (2 -3)	23 (20 -26)	48 (44 -52)	9 (7 -11)	8 (6 -10)	5 (4 -7)	6 (4 -8)
Housewife	30976	90 (90 -91)	14 (14 -15)	36 (35 -37)	14 (14 -15)	13 (13 -13)	10 (9 -10)	13 (12 -13)
Student/unemployed/retired	1283	4 (3 -4)	26 (23 -29)	38 (35 -42)	13 (11 -15)	10 (8 -11)	6 (4 -8)	6 (5 -8)
Non-manual	893	2 (2 -2)	13 (11 -16)	33 (29 -37)	15 (13 -18)	14 (12 -17)	11 (9 -13)	13 (10 -16)
Manual work	849	3 (2 -3)	23 (20 -26)	47 (44 -51)	10 (7 -12)	8 (6 -10)	5 (4 -7)	6 (4 -8)
Education (years)								
No formal schooling	20856	62 (61 -63)	17 (16 -17)	39 (38 -39)	13 (13 -14)	12 (12 -13)	9 (8 -9)	10 (10 -11)
Primary (1-5 years)	3723	11 (11 -12)	14 (12 -15)	36 (35 -38)	13 (12 -15)	12 (11 -14)	11 (10 -12)	13 (12 -15)
Secondary (6-10 years)	6180	18(17 -18)	12 (11 -13)	32 (30 -33)	16 (14 -17)	14 (13 -15)	10 (9 -11)	16 (15 -18)
College (11-12 years)	1735	5 (4 -5)	13 (11 -15)	31 (28 -34)	15 (13 -18)	13 (12 -15)	12 (10 -14)	16 (13 -18)
University (>12 years)	1897	5 (4 -5)	10 (8 -12)	32 (29 -34)	16 (14 -18)	15 (13 -17)	12 (10 -14)	15 (14 -17)
Household education (years)								
No formal schooling	7984	24 (23 -25)	21 (20 -22)	42 (40 -43)	13 (12 -14)	11 (10 -12)	7 (7 -8)	7 (6 -8)
Primary (1-5 years)	12091	36 (35 -37)	16 (15 -17)	40 (39 -41)	14 (13 -14)	12 (12 -13)	8 (8 -9)	10 (9 -11)
Secondary (6-10 years)	10682	30 (29 -31)	11 (10 -12)	32 (31 -33)	15 (14 -16)	14 (14 -15)	11 (11 -12)	16 (15 -17)
College (11-12 years)	2151	6 (5 -6)	9 (7 -10)	28 (26 -31)	14 (13 -16)	14 (13 -16)	13 (12 -15)	21 (18 -23)
University (>12 years)	1483	4 (3 -4)	6 (5 -8)	22 (19 -24)	16 (14 -19)	15 (12 -17)	16 (13 -18)	25 (23 -28)
Household wealth quintiles								
1 <sup>st</sup> quintile (Poorest)	5910	18 (17 -19)	27 (26 -29)	47 (46 -48)	11 (10 -12)	7 (6 -8)	4 (3 -5)	4 (3 -4)
2 <sup>nd</sup> quintile	6312	19 (19 -20)	17 (16 -18)	42 (40 -43)	16 (15 -18)	12 (11 -13)	7 (7 -8)	6 (5 -7)
3 <sup>rd</sup> quintile	6745	20 (19 -21)	14 (13 -15)	39 (38 -40)	14 (13 -15)	14 (13 -15)	9 (8 -10)	10 (9 -11)
4 <sup>th</sup> quintile	7238	21 (20 -21)	11 (11 -12)	31 (30 -33)	15 (14 -16)	15 (14 -16)	12 (11 -12)	16 (15 -17)
5 <sup>th</sup> quintile (Richest)	8186	22 (21 -23)	7 (7 -8)	25 (24 -27)	15 (14 -16)	15 (14 -16)	15 (14 -16)	23 (21 -24)

1 ≥14 years of education, 2 < 14 years of education

**Table 2:** Multivariable model for association of household socioeconomic position and other participants' characteristics with categories of BMI among women, National Nutritional Survey of Pakistan 2011.

Covariates	Adjusted ORs(95% confidence interval)				
	BMI <18.5	BMI 23 -24.99	BMI 25.0 - 27.49	BMI 27.5 -29.9	BMI ≥ 30
<b>Wealth quintile</b>					
1 <sup>st</sup> quintile (Poorest)	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
2 <sup>nd</sup> quintile	0.76 (0.68 -0.85)	1.4 (1.21 -1.62)	1.51 (1.29 -1.77)	1.51 (1.24 -1.84)	1.64 (1.33 -2.03)
3 <sup>rd</sup> quintile	0.73 (0.64 -0.83)	1.32 (1.14 -1.53)	1.93 (1.63 -2.28)	1.99 (1.65 -2.41)	2.62 (2.12 -3.24)
4 <sup>th</sup> quintile	0.72 (0.62 -0.83)	1.62 (1.37 -1.92)	2.49 (2.09 -2.97)	2.99 (2.44 -3.68)	4.23 (3.38 -5.29)
5 <sup>th</sup> quintile (Richest)	0.57 (0.48 -0.68)	1.84 (1.53 -2.2)	2.91(2.41 -3.5)	4.15 (3.31 -5.19)	6.2 (4.92 -7.81)
<b>Urbanicity</b>					
Major urban	0.84 (0.73 -0.97)	1.18 (1.03 -1.36)	1.47 (1.27 -1.69)	1.56 (1.33 -1.83)	2.34 (2.02 -2.71)
Urban	0.85 (0.75 -0.96)	1.13 (1.02 -1.26)	1.37 (1.23 -1.53)	1.4 (1.23 -1.59)	1.84 (1.62 -2.09)
Rural	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
<b>Household education (years)</b>					
No formal schooling	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Primary (1-5 years)	0.87 (0.78 -0.96)	1.08 (0.97 -1.2)	1.05 (0.93 -1.19)	1 (0.87 -1.14)	1.11 (0.96 -1.28)
Secondary (6-10 years)	0.83 (0.74 -0.94)	1.34 (1.18 -1.53)	1.24 (1.09 -1.4)	1.27 (1.1 -1.48)	1.49 (1.28 -1.74)
College (11-12 years)	0.77 (0.62 -0.97)	1.36 (1.12 -1.65)	1.25 (1.01 -1.55)	1.38 (1.1 -1.73)	1.72 (1.35 -2.19)
University (>12 years)	0.75 (0.56 -1.01)	1.91 (1.51 -2.41)	1.47 (1.14 -1.89)	1.76 (1.37 -2.26)	2.33 (1.81 -2.99)
<b>Province</b>					
AJK	1.34 (1.09 -1.65)	1.09 (0.84 -1.41)	0.89 (0.69 -1.16)	0.84 (0.62 -1.15)	0.7 (0.5 -0.99)
Balochistan	1.09 (0.89 -1.34)	0.98 (0.77 -1.24)	1.06 (0.85 -1.32)	0.77 (0.56 -1.07)	0.9 (0.68 -1.2)
FATA	0.27 (0.11 -0.67)	2.25 (1.49 -3.4)	3.83(2.51 -5.85)	3.47 (2.07 -5.83)	2.79 (1.59 -4.87)
Gilgit	1.14 (0.77 -1.68)	0.93 (0.62 -1.38)	0.67 (0.45 -1.01)	0.6 (0.39 -0.93)	0.28 (0.16 -0.48)
KPK	0.56 (0.42 -0.73)	1.26 (1 -1.58)	1.26 (0.98 -1.6)	1.26 (0.99 -1.62)	1.01 (0.78 -1.31)
Sindh	1.27 (1.09 -1.47)	0.93 (0.79 -1.09)	0.79 (0.67 -0.93)	0.8 (0.68 -0.95)	0.72 (0.59 -0.88)
Punjab	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
<b>Occupation</b>					
Non-manual	1.32 (0.93 -1.86)	1.27 (0.89 -1.82)	1.28 (0.89 -1.85)	1.22 (0.79 -1.88)	0.96 (0.61 -1.5)
Manual work	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Housewife	1.06 (0.87 -1.3)	1.42 (1.09 -1.84)	1.38 (1.04 -1.82)	1.48 (1.07 -2.05)	1.41 (1 -2.01)
Student/Retired/Unemployed	1.9 (1.45 -2.49)	1.08 (0.76 -1.53)	0.94 (0.65 -1.36)	0.82 (0.52 -1.29)	0.72 (0.45 -1.14)
Underage/Not reported	1.28 (0.87 -1.89)	0.86 (0.5 -1.49)	1.11 (0.71 -1.73)	0.85 (0.5 -1.42)	0.88 (0.48 -1.59)

(N= 34391); Reference: BMI= 18.5-22.9, N=12380

**Household SEP, overweight and obesity**

An increase in overweight and obese women was observed with rising HWQ, with the largest proportion of overweight (30%) and obese (23%) women found in the 5<sup>th</sup> quintile (highest SEP; richest household) (Table 1). Furthermore, the multivariable model demonstrated an increasing gradient in adjusted odds ratios (aOR) for overweight and obesity across wealth quintiles with aORs ranging from 1.51 (2<sup>nd</sup> quintile) to 2.91 (5<sup>th</sup> quintile) for overweight-1, 1.51 (2<sup>nd</sup> quintile) to 4.15 (5<sup>th</sup> quintile) for overweight-2 and 1.64 (2<sup>nd</sup> quintile) to 6.20 (5<sup>th</sup> quintile) for obesity (Table 2).

**Community SEP, urbanicity, underweight and overweight**

Overall, women living in rural areas were more likely to be underweight than those living in major urban (aOR: 0.84; 96%CI: 0.73-0.97) and urban areas (aOR: 0.85; 95%CI: 0.75-0.96). The proportion of overweight and obesity was significantly different across urbanicity, with the largest amount of obese women living in major urban areas (aOR: 2.34; 95%CI: 2.02-2.71) (Table 2, Figure 1).



**Table 3:** Multivariable models for the interaction between household socioeconomic position and urbanicity, and the interaction of household socioeconomic position for association with categories of BMI among women, National Nutritional Survey of Pakistan 2011.

Covariates	Adjusted ORs(95% confidence interval)			
	BMI <18.5	BMI 23 -24.99	BMI 25.0 -29.9	BMI ≥ 30
<b>Household wealth quintile (HWQ) and urbanicity</b>				
<b>Major Urban</b>				
1 <sup>st</sup> quintile (Poorest)	1.19 (0.56 -2.5)	0.84 (0.37 -1.91)	0.61 (0.15 -2.54)	0.61 (0.15 -2.54)
2 <sup>nd</sup> quintile	0.73 (0.44 -1.22)	1.73 (1.05 -2.84)	2.01 (1.21 -3.33)	2.69 (1.39 -5.23)
3 <sup>rd</sup> quintile	0.48 (0.36 -0.63)	1.13 (0.83 -1.54)	1.95 (1.5 -2.53)	2.86 (2.01 -4.07)
4 <sup>th</sup> quintile	0.61 (0.47 -0.8)	1.82 (1.39 -2.39)	3.21 (2.51 -4.11)	5.6 (4.08 -7.69)
5 <sup>th</sup> quintile (Richest)	0.5 (0.37 -0.68)	1.84 (1.41 -2.39)	3.38 (2.65 -4.29)	<b>6.87 (5.09 -9.29)</b>
<b>Urban</b>				
1 <sup>st</sup> quintile (Poorest)	0.88 (0.62 -1.26)	1.27 (0.87 -1.86)	1.37 (1 -1.88)	2.18 (1.25 -3.8)
2 <sup>nd</sup> quintile	0.7 (0.54 -0.91)	1.34 (1.03 -1.73)	2.08 (1.61 -2.68)	2.54 (1.79 -3.6)
3 <sup>rd</sup> quintile	0.65 (0.51 -0.83)	1.49 (1.18 -1.9)	2.09 (1.68 -2.6)	3.85 (2.81 -5.28)
4 <sup>th</sup> quintile	0.52 (0.41 -0.66)	1.58 (1.24 -2)	2.64 (2.11 -3.32)	4.34 (3.27 -5.75)
5 <sup>th</sup> quintile (Richest)	0.49 (0.36 -0.65)	1.7 (1.33 -2.18)	3.16 (2.5 -3.99)	<b>5.27 (3.92 -7.08)</b>
<b>Rural</b>				
1 <sup>st</sup> quintile (Poorest)	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
2 <sup>nd</sup> quintile	0.75 (0.67 -0.85)	1.36 (1.18 -1.58)	1.35 (1.16 -1.57)	1.44 (1.15 -1.82)
3 <sup>rd</sup> quintile	0.73 (0.63 -0.85)	1.27 (1.08 -1.49)	1.69 (1.44 -1.98)	2.07 (1.62 -2.63)
4 <sup>th</sup> quintile	0.72 (0.6 -0.87)	1.47 (1.21 -1.79)	2.13 (1.76 -2.58)	3.06 (2.35 -4)
5 <sup>th</sup> quintile (Richest)	0.52 (0.41 -0.67)	1.76 (1.41 -2.21)	2.95 (2.37 -3.67)	<b>4.63 (3.48 -6.17)</b>
<b>Community wealth quintile</b>				
1 <sup>st</sup> quintile (Poorest)	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
2 <sup>nd</sup> quintile	1 (0.87 -1.14)	1.16 (0.98 -1.36)	1.33 (1.14 -1.56)	1.46 (1.14 -1.87)
3 <sup>rd</sup> quintile	1.07 (0.92 -1.23)	1.11 (0.94 -1.32)	1.45 (1.22 -1.71)	1.64 (1.28 -2.11)
4 <sup>th</sup> quintile	1.04 (0.85 -1.27)	1.25 (1.02 -1.52)	1.56 (1.28 -1.9)	2.19 (1.67 -2.88)
5 <sup>th</sup> quintile (Richest)	1.03 (0.81 -1.31)	1.27 (1 -1.61)	1.76 (1.41 -2.18)	2.87 (2.15 -3.84)

(N= 34391); Reference: BMI= 18.5-22.9, N=12380

The multivariable model for HWQ and urbanicity demonstrated a gradual increase in overweight and obesity with increasing wealth quintiles in rural and urban areas. The interaction of HWQ and urbanicity for obesity was most evident in the 5<sup>th</sup> quintile, with women living in major urban areas (aOR: 6.87; 95%CI 5.09-9.29) being more likely to be obese than those in urban areas (aOR: 5.27; 95%CI 3.92-7.08) and rural areas (aOR: 4.63; 95%CI 3.48-6.17) (Table 3).

When assessing the interaction between community wealth quintiles and nutritional status, there was an increase of the effect estimates (aORs) for obesity across community wealth (Table 3). The difference in underweight across community wealth quintiles was not statistically significant.

A trend was observed among household education levels and obesity. Households with higher levels of education were more likely to have overweight and obese women. Moreover, the likelihood of overweight and obesity among women increased con-

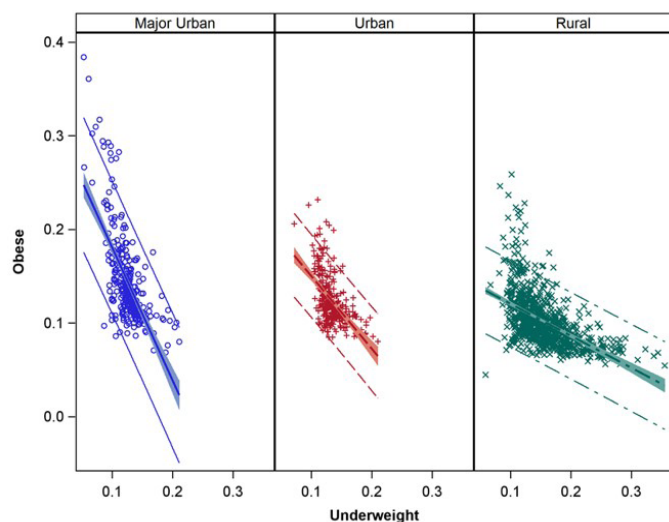
sistently with the attainment of higher education; overweight-1 (aOR: 1.47; 95%CI 1.14-1.89), overweight-2 (aOR: 1.76; 95%CI 1.37-2.26) and obesity (aOR: 2.33; 95%CI 1.81-2.99) (Table 2).

#### Province of residence, underweight and overweight

Among the provinces of Pakistan, the largest proportions of underweight women were in rural Sindh (20%) and rural Balochistan (19%) (Figure 1). Alternatively, women living in urban KPK (23%) and urban Punjab (23%) were found to be the most overweight and obese women. In comparison to Punjab, women living in AJK (aOR: 1.34; 95%CI: 1.09-1.65) and Sindh (aOR: 1.27; 95%CI 1.09- 1.47) were more likely to be underweight (Table 2). Additionally, women in FATA (aOR: 0.27; 95%CI: 0.11-0.67) were less likely to be underweight compared to those in Punjab. As for women in Gilgit, there were less likely to be overweight (aOR: 0.60; 95%CI: 0.39-0.93) and obese (aOR: 0.28; 95%CI: 0.16-0.48) compared to women in Punjab.

## Co-existence of underweight and obesity at community level

We evaluated the correlation of underweight and overweight parameters to assess whether underweight and overweight women coexist at the community level. The moderate negative association in major urban ( $r=0.67$ ), urban ( $r=0.55$ ) and rural ( $r=0.54$ ) communities suggest that the likelihood of underweight and overweight women coexisting within the same community is low. (Figure 2).



**Figure 2:** Scatterplot of the community specific residuals for underweight and obesity in major urban<sup>1</sup>, urban<sup>2</sup> and rural<sup>3</sup> areas of Pakistan.

1. Correlation of underweight and overweight parameters in major urban areas:  $r = 0.67$
2. Correlation of underweight and overweight parameters in urban areas:  $r = 0.55$
3. Correlation of underweight and overweight parameters in rural areas:  $r = 0.54$

## Discussion

According to the 2011 NNS, the prevalence of underweight (15%) is lower than overweight and obesity combined (35%) among Pakistani women. Our findings suggest a noticeable difference in the level of underweight, overweight and obesity with household and community SEP and urbanicity. Underweight women were mainly found in poor rural areas, while overweight and obese women were mainly in rich urban areas. Furthermore, the likelihood of being overweight or obese increased drastically for women living in wealthier communities located in urban areas. We also found that underweight, overweight, and obesity did not co-exist within the same community. Overall, underweight women were more likely to be among the poorest, rural dwelling with the fewest years of formal schooling. This emphasizes that despite a decrease in the prevalence of underweight women, targeted nutrition interventions are still essential. Alternatively, an increasing trend in overweight and obesity was associated with an increase in SEP, urbanization and education. Further analyses on community characteristics would be important in developing and delivering interventions that are relevant to local needs.

Similar to our findings, research conducted in other South Asian countries has found a comparable distribution of underweight, overweight and obesity across SEP. However, the overall prevalence of overweight and obesity in Bangladesh (2007: 10%,1.7%; 2011: 17%,2.9%), India (2006: 9.8%,2.9%) and Nepal (2011: 11.2%,2.2%) is lower than Pakistan (2011: 22%, 12%). [25-27]. In India, there has been an increase in overweight and obesity among communities with higher SEP. However, about 50% of Indian women are still underweight, with the majority living in communities with lower SEP [28]. Similar findings have been reported from Bangladesh [29,30]. This suggests that Pakistan is at a relatively similar stage of nutrition transition as compared to its neighbouring countries [11,31,32].

Women with higher education were associated with increased risk of overweight and obesity. In most developing countries, such as Pakistan, India and Bangladesh, a positive association between education and BMI has been reported [28,30,32]. However, in contrast to our findings, a local study from the Khairpur district showed that education was associated with lower levels of obesity [11]. The situation observed in Khairpur is identical to the advanced stage of nutrition transition seen in Brazil, where higher levels of education are associated with lower levels of obesity [33,34]. However, further research is needed to assess if higher levels of education and higher SEP have an association with obesity in Pakistan. Additional factors that may have increased the proportion of overweight women are sedentary jobs, availability of household help and the perception that a plump body size is associated with higher SEP [35]. Households with higher SEP are associated with higher consumption of meats, fats and fast foods, especially in urban areas [36,37]. At later stages of nutrition transition, commonly seen in developed countries, BMI is inversely proportional to educational achievement since more research is needed.

The risk of overweight and obesity increased with urbanicity even after controlling for SEP and education. These findings are consistent with other research conducted in developing countries, including India and Bangladesh [28,38-40]. Literature has also identified cities as promoting overweight and obesity through their obesogenic environment with increased availability of fast food and other restaurants and increasing norms of eating out, mechanized transportation, sedentary jobs and low physical activity [41-43]. Lack of parks, air pollution, actual and perceived safety, violence and political instability and cultural and religious norms may also constraint physical activity in an overall sedentary environment [44,45]. Data on the influence of neighbourhood environments, including food and physical activity, is needed from Pakistan and other developing countries to understand role of urban environment on overweight and obesity. Such data may provide useful evidence for urban planning and shaping urban environment to tackle the obesity problem.

## Conclusions

Our results show that the overweight and obesity are significant public health problem in Pakistan, especially in urban areas. Underweight still persists among the rural poor, especially in the province of Sindh. These findings emphasize the importance of interventions targeting undernutrition in rural areas and overnutrition in urban areas. Furthermore, our study has showed that underweight and overweight do not exist in the same communities, thus providing avenues for targeted interventions according to local needs at the community level. The high levels of overweight and obesity in major urban areas

highlights the need for urgent action to lower the increasing burden of chronic diseases, such as diabetes and cardiovascular disease. Also, further analyses on geospatial distribution of underweight, overweight and communities' characteristics are required to improve the development and delivery of nutritional interventions relevant to the local need.

## References

- Ahmed T, Hossain M, Sanin KI. Global burden of maternal and child undernutrition and micronutrient deficiencies. *Annals of Nutrition and Metabolism*. 2012; 61 Suppl 1: 8-17.
- Black RE, Victora CG, Walker SP, Bhutta ZA, Christian P, et al. Maternal and child undernutrition and overweight in low-income and middle-income countries. *Lancet*. 2013; 382: 427-451.
- Popkin BM. The nutrition transition and obesity in the developing world. *J Nutr*. 2001; 131: 871S-873S.
- Popkin BM, Adair LS, Ng SW. Global nutrition transition and the pandemic of obesity in developing countries. *Nutr Rev*. 2012; 70: 3-21.
- Gersh BJ, Sliwa K, Mayosi BM, Yusuf S. Novel therapeutic concepts: the epidemic of cardiovascular disease in the developing world: global implications. *European Heart Journal*. 2010; 31: 642-648.
- Pappas G, Akhtar T, Gergen PJ, Hadden WC, Khan AQ. Health status of the Pakistani population: a health profile and comparison with the United States. *Am J Public Health*. 2001; 91: 93-98.
- Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey 2012-13. In. Islamabad: National Institute of Population Studies (NIPS) and Macro International Inc, 2013: 1-366.
- Popkin BM. Global nutrition dynamics: the world is shifting rapidly toward a diet linked with noncommunicable diseases. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2006; 84: 289-298.
- Du S, Mroz TA, Zhai F, Popkin BM. Rapid income growth adversely affects diet quality in China--particularly for the poor. *Soc Sci Med*. 2004; 59: 1505-1515.
- Hawkes C. Uneven dietary development: linking the policies and processes of globalization with the nutrition transition, obesity and diet-related chronic diseases. *Globalization and Health*. 2006; 2: 4.
- Janjua NZ, Iqbal R, Mahmood B. Association of socioeconomic position with under- and overnutrition in Pakistan. *Annals of Epidemiology*. 2011; 21: 884-891.
- 2008 World Development Indicators: Gross domestic product 2007. In. Washington DC: World Bank. 2008.
- Feeney G, Alam I. New estimates and projections of population growth in Pakistan. *Population and Development Review*. 2003; 29: 483-492.
- Allender S, Foster C, Hutchinson L, Arambepola C. Quantification of urbanization in relation to chronic diseases in developing countries: a systematic review. *Journal of Urban Health, Bulletin of the New York Academy of Medicine*. 2008; 85: 938-951.
- Arambepola C, Allender S, Ekanayake R, Fernando D. Urban living and obesity: is it independent of its population and lifestyle characteristics? *Trop Med Int Health*. 2008; 13: 448-457.
- Dahly DL, Adair LS. Quantifying the urban environment: a scale measure of urbanicity outperforms the urban-rural dichotomy. *Soc Sci Med*. 2007; 64: 1407-1419.
- Van de Poel E, O'Donnell O, Van Doorslaer E. Urbanization and the spread of diseases of affluence in China. *Economics and Human Biology*. 2009; 7: 200-216.
- National Nutrition Survey of Pakistan 2011 In. Islamabad: Ministry of Health, Government of Pakistan. 2011.
- Gwatkin DR, Rustein S, Johnson K, Pande RP, Wagstaff A. Socio-economic differences in health, nutrition, and population in India. In., vol. Washington (D. C.): World Bank. Washington (D. C.): World Bank; 2000.
- Subramanian SV, Davey Smith G, Subramanyam M: Indigenous health and socioeconomic status in India. *PLoS Med*. 2006; 3: e421.
- Filmer D, Pritchett LH. Estimating wealth effects without expenditure data--or tears: an application to educational enrollments in states of India. *Demography*. 2001; 38: 115-132.
- Durkin MS, Islam S, Hasan ZM, Zaman SS. Measures of socioeconomic status for child health research: comparative results from Bangladesh and Pakistan. *Soc Sci Med*. 1994; 38: 1289-1297.
- WHO Expert Consultation. Appropriate body-mass index for Asian populations and its implications for policy and intervention strategies. *Lancet*. 2004; 363: 157-163.
- National Nutrition Survey of Pakistan 2001-02 In. Islamabad: Ministry of Health, Government of Pakistan. 2002.
- National Family Health Survey (NFHS-3) 2005-06 India In. Mumbai: International Institute of Population Sciences, Mumbai and Macro International Inc; 2007: 1-379.
- Bangladesh Demographic and Health Survey 2007. In. Dhaka: National Institute of Population Research and Training Dhaka, Bangladesh and MEASURE DHS, ICF International, Calverton, Maryland, U.S.A; 2009: 1-430.
- Bangladesh Demographic and Health Survey 2011. In. Dhaka: National Institute of Population Research and Training Dhaka, Bangladesh and MEASURE DHS, ICF International, Calverton, Maryland, U.S.A.; 2013: 1-430.
- Subramanian SV, Smith GD: Patterns, distribution, and determinants of under- and overnutrition: a population-based study of women in India. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2006; 84: 633-640.
- Khan MM, Kraemer A. Factors associated with being underweight, overweight and obese among ever-married non-pregnant urban women in Bangladesh. *Singapore Med J*. 2009; 50: 804-813.
- Shafique S, Akhter N, Stallkamp G, de Pee S, Panagides D, et al. Trends of under- and overweight among rural and urban poor women indicate the double burden of malnutrition in Bangladesh. *Int J Epidemiol*. 2007; 36: 449-457.
- Balarajan Y, Villamor E. Nationally representative surveys show recent increases in the prevalence of overweight and obesity among women of reproductive age in Bangladesh, Nepal, and India. *J Nutr*. 2009; 139: 2139-2144.
- Griffiths PL, Bentley ME. The nutrition transition is underway in India. *J Nutr*. 2001; 131: 2692-2700.
- Monteiro CA, Conde WL, Popkin BM. The burden of disease from undernutrition and overnutrition in countries undergoing rapid nutrition transition: a view from Brazil. *Am J Public Health*. 2004; 94: 433-434.
- Monteiro CA, Conde WL, Popkin BM. Income-specific trends in obesity in Brazil: 1975-2003. *Am J Public Health*. 2007; 97: 1808-1812.



- 
35. Song YM. Commentary. varying relation of socioeconomic status with obesity between countries at different stages of development. *Int J Epidemiol.* 2006; 35: 112-113.
36. Zhai F, Wang H, Du S, He Y, Wang Z, et al. Lifespan nutrition and changing socio-economic conditions in China. *Asia Pac J Clin Nutr.* 2007; 16 Suppl 1: 374-382.
37. Thang NM, Popkin BM. Patterns of food consumption in Vietnam: effects on socioeconomic groups during an era of economic growth. *Eur J Clin Nutr.* 2004; 58: 145-153.
38. Corsi DJ, Kyu HH, Subramanian SV. Socioeconomic and geographic patterning of under- and overnutrition among women in Bangladesh. *J Nutr.* 2011; 141: 631-638.
39. Neuman M, Kawachi I, Gortmaker S, Subramanian SV. Urban-rural differences in BMI in low- and middle-income countries: the role of socioeconomic status. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 2013; 97: 428-436.
40. Subramanian SV, Kawachi I, Smith GD. Income inequality and the double burden of under- and overnutrition in India. *J Epidemiol Community Health.* 2007; 61: 802-809.
41. Hilmers A, Hilmers DC, Dave J. Neighborhood disparities in access to healthy foods and their effects on environmental justice. *Am J Public Health.* 2012; 102: 1644-1654.
42. Holsten JE. Obesity and the community food environment: a systematic review. *Public Health Nutr.* 2009; 12: 397-405.
43. Larson NI, Story MT, Nelson MC. Neighborhood environments: disparities in access to healthy foods in the U.S. *Am J Prev Med.* 2009; 36: 74-81.
44. Babakus WS, Thompson JL. Physical activity among South Asian women: a systematic, mixed-methods review. *The International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity.* 2012; 9: 150.
45. Benjamin K, Donnelly TT. Barriers and facilitators influencing the physical activity of Arabic adults: A literature review. *Avicenna.* 2013; 8.