# Identification of Potential Leverage Points for Self-Management Support Intervention in Thais with Type 2 Diabetes

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**Background:** Although social-ecological models and multi-level interventions have been recommended for implementing the holistic self-management support for patients with type 2 diabetes, they are complex, costly, and need long-term effort. A more realistic approach would be to identify and implement a single or limited leverage point(s) that is most effective and feasible to create change.

**Objective:** To assess the independent relationships of the social-environmental supports with self-management behaviors in Thai patients with type 2 diabetes.

*Material and Method:* A cross-sectional survey was conducted among 1,000 type 2 diabetic patients from 64 healthcare facilities throughout Bangkok. A set of structured questionnaires were used to collect data related to social-environmental supports, and self-management behaviors. The predictor-outcome relationships were presented by beta ( $\beta$ ) coefficients (95% confidence limits).

**Results:** Personal support was significantly associated with the overall self-management, dietary, physical activity, and medication taking behaviors. Neighborhood support was significantly associated with the overall self-management, physical activity, and medication taking behaviors. Personal support was found to interact negatively with neighborhood support on the overall self-management and medication taking behaviors.

**Conclusion:** Personal and neighborhood supports are two potential leverage points for self-management support interventions for Thai patients with type 2 diabetes. Patients with low and high personal supports may need different strategies for neighborhood support.

Keywords: Leverage point, Self-management, Social-ecological model, Social support, Type 2 diabetes

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Due to limited success of person-focus interventions in modifying individuals' health habits, social-ecological models were proposed as a better approach for health promotion<sup>(1)</sup>. This is also the case for self-management support for type 2 diabetics, where the individual-focus programs have impacts only in short-term<sup>(2)</sup>, and decline sharply after the interventions ended<sup>(3)</sup>. Since self-management also depends on the environmental contexts that surround an individual, it should be taken into account in type 2 diabetes self-management support interventions<sup>(4)</sup>.

Based on the social-ecological model<sup>(1)</sup>, Glasgow et al<sup>(7)</sup> proposed a multi-level "pyramid" model for social-environmental support related to chronic disease management. Support sources included in this model are a) proximal support sources such as personal actions, supports from family, friends as well as health care resources, and b) distal support sources including workplace, media, public policy, and other neighborhood and community factors. For assessing these supports and resources, an instrument called the Chronic Illness Resources Survey (CIRS) was also developed along with this model. This includes 64-item full instrument and 29-item Brief CIRS<sup>(5)</sup>. It was extensively validated<sup>(5-7)</sup>, and utilized in a number of studies relating to social support in type 2 diabetes self-management<sup>(8-11)</sup>.

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Although social-ecological models and multi-level interventions have been recommended to guide public health for more than 20 years, the models were largely underutilized in health promotion interventions<sup>(12,13)</sup>. The majority of interventions still target only one or two of these levels, particularly intrapersonal, and interpersonal<sup>(12)</sup>. To the best of our knowledge, there is only one published interventional study based on the social-environmental support frame-work for type 2 diabetes self-management support<sup>(6,11)</sup>. This is because the multilevel interventions are complex, costly, and need long-term effort<sup>(1,12,13)</sup>. A more realistic approach is to identify and implement a single or limited leverage point(s) that is most effective and feasible for creating change. However, data that can be specifically utilized in the context of type 2 diabetic self-management support is still inadequate<sup>(8-10)</sup>. Other pertinent data relied mainly on expert opinion<sup>(14,15)</sup>, or focused only at some aspects of the social-ecological model<sup>(16)</sup>. In addition, interaction among different sources of social support that might have practical importance has never been investigated<sup>(1,17-21)</sup>.

The purpose of our study was to provide relevant data about appropriate leverage point(s) and target population for the social ecologically based intervention to better support self-management of type 2 diabetic patients in Bangkok, Thailand. Specific aims of the present study were 1) to determine the independent association of each social support sources with self-management behaviors, and 2) to examine potential interaction among different social support sources.

# Material and Method *Study population*

The Ethics Committees of the School of Medicine of Chulalongkorn University and other participating organizations approved this crosssectional study. Subjects included Thai patients with type 2 diabetes aged 20 years or older seeking diabetes treatment at the target healthcare facilities (public and private hospitals, and public health centers) in Bangkok between January 2011 and January 2012. Patients with cognitive impairment were excluded.

Out of 163 healthcare facilities in Bangkok, 98 were contacted and 64 facilities (65.4%) agreed to participate. These included 14 public, 10 private hospitals, and 40 public health centers. The reason for their non-participation was lack of interest. All the surveyed facilities normally arrange "diabetic clinic day" once a week with an average of 30 patients per week. The exceptions were two university (public) hospitals, where 100 or more of patients attended every week.

Sample size was calculated by the formula with finite population correction and basing on the estimated number of type 2 diabetic patients in Bangkok of 377,200 in 2009, assuming the proportion of patients with adequate level of social environmental support was  $0.5^{(22,23)}$ . To facilitate stratified and multivariate analysis, the resultant sample size of 384 was then arbitrary multiplied by three. Some additional samples were included to compensate for possible drop-out, resulting in the final sample size of 1,280 (20 from each healthcare facility). Data were collected from each facility on the randomly selected diabetic clinic day, and the first 20 eligible subjects who sought care on that day were recruited. In the two university hospitals, however, 20 patients were randomly selected (one out of every five) who sought care on the data collection day. The overall response rate for participation was 78.1% (1,000 out of 1,280 eligible subjects). Informed consent was obtained from each subject prior to collecting data.

#### Data collecting instrument

Data were collected by questionnaires comprising of three parts a) personal demographics and health related data, b) social-environmental support, and c) self-management behaviors, emphasizing diet, physical activity, and medication behaviors. We used self-administered questionnaires for most of the participants except the ones with limited literacy or impaired visual function, and they were interviewed by trained data collectors.

#### Personal demographics

Personal demographics and health related data were collected using questionnaire of 20 items assessing personal demographics (age, gender, marital status, education, occupation, monthly income, type of health insurance, and family size), health behaviors (alcohol consumption and cigarette smoking), and personal type 2 diabetes related data (duration of illness, co-morbidity and complications, type of treatment received).

#### Social-environmental support

Social-environmental support was measured by brief CIRS. The English version of the CIRS<sup>(5)</sup> was translated, and cultural adapted into Thai version using a standard procedure involving forward and backward translations, each conducted by two researchers and

expert translators<sup>(24)</sup>. The final draft of the Thai CIRS included 60 items<sup>(25)</sup>. Brief CIRS was then derived according to the method by Glasgow et al<sup>(5)</sup>. It included 23 questions regarding social-environmental factors (3 items for each personal factors, family and friends, and healthcare team, 5 items for neighborhood, and 3 items each for worksite, community organization, and media and public policy) affecting type 2 diabetes self-management individual (see Appendix A). Personal factors or support in the case refers to intraindividual attributes that are favorable to health such as positive thinking and active or healthful coping styles. The questions were about the magnitude of support the individual received from these sources, and possible answers ranged from 1 (lowest support) to 5 (highest support). Aggregated mean scores for seven subscales and for the total instrument were calculated as described in previous reports(5). However, for patients who were self-employed and unemployed, the worksite subscale was omitted from the aggregated mean score calculation.

Content and face validities of the questionnaire were assessed, and internal consistency and test-retest reliability were evaluated. The internal consistency of the Brief CIRS was high, as indicated by the overall Cronbach alpha coefficients of 0.84. Its two-week temporal stability was also moderate to high with Pearson correlation coefficients 0.89 (p<0.005).

#### Self-management behaviors

Self-management behaviors were assessed by the Thai version of the Summary of Diabetes Self-care Activities (SDSCA)<sup>(26)</sup>, cultural adapted from the standard English version<sup>(27)</sup>. However, the modified 14-item questionnaire collected data only on three behaviors during the past seven days that were most influenced by social support (eight items for food consumption, three items each for physical activity and medication behaviors)<sup>(5)</sup> (see Appendix B). Possible scores, which represent the frequency of self-management activity for each item, ranged from 0 (none) to 7 (everyday). Higher scores indicated better self-management behavior. Each subscale was scored by averaging items completed within the domain. The overall SDSCA score was averaged across all 14 items. It had the internal consistency of 0.73 and one-month test-retest reliability of 0.65.

#### Statistical analysis

Participants' characteristics were summarized, and presented by frequency and percentage, means and

standard deviations (SD), or median and inter-quartile range (IQR), whichever appropriate. The CIRS and self-management scores were analyzed by mean and SD. Subgroup comparisons were conducted by ANOVA with Bonferroni's method to correct for multiple comparisons.

Association between social support levels and self-management outcomes (dietary, physical activity, and medication taking behaviors) was examined by linear regression, and  $\beta$  was used as the association index by treating the CIRS levels both as continuous and categorical (based on quartile) variables. Since age, monthly income (in quartiles) and type of healthcare facility was associated with the overall self-management outcome (at p < 0.1) in the final multivariate modeling, they were treated as potential confounders in later multivariate analyses. Workplace support subscale was omitted from all multivariate analyses since it was not significantly associated with any self-management outcomes among the currently employed participant subgroup.

The potential for multicollinearity among the CIRS subscales was first assessed by simultaneously forced entering all of them into the model that included all potential confounders, and then the variance inflation factor (VIF) was estimated<sup>(28)</sup>. The resultant VIFs were between 1.08 and 3.65, indicating unlikelihood of this problem. The independent effects of the CIRS subscales were then determined by multivariate modeling with backward stepwise selection, retaining only the subscale(s) with p<0.1 in the final model<sup>(29)</sup>. Potential interaction among subscales was also assessed when appropriate. Statistical significance was set at p<0.05. All statistical analyses were conducted using the Stata version 10 (Stata Corp. 2007. Stata Statistical Software: Release 10. College Station, TX: StataCorp LP).

#### Results

# Participant characteristics, CIRS, and self-management behaviors

Most of the participants were female aged more than 60 years with primary education level and average monthly income of 5,000 baht (~159 US dollars). They were mostly beneficiaries of the Thai Universal Coverage (UC) scheme. The average duration since type 2 diabetes diagnosed was seven years (Table 1). Sources of social support were the highest for healthcare team, followed by personal, media and policy, and lowest for community organization. Selfmanagement scores were highest for medication intake followed by dietary and physical activity.

#### Relationships of CIRS with self-management behaviors

Higher social support scores were generally associated with higher levels of self-management. This was the case especially for the overall, neighborhood, and media and policy supports where dose-response patterns were pronounced for all self-management behaviors (Table 2).

After adjusting for the confounding effects, the overall and personal support levels were significantly associated with overall and domain-specific self-

**Table 1.** Characteristics, social supports levels, and self-management behaviors of Thai patients with type 2 diabetes(n = 1,000)

Characteristics	Number (%)	CIRS and Self-management score	Mean (SD)
Gender		CIRS (full score = 5)	
Female	719 (71.9)	Personal	3.2 (0.8)
Male	281 (28.1)	Family	2.7 (1.0)
Age (years) <sup>†</sup>	62.1 (11.1)	Healthcare team	3.8 (0.8)
<50	130 (13.0)	Neighborhood	2.6 (0.9)
50 to 59	269 (26.9)	Community organizations	2.1 (1.1)
60 to 69	334 (33.4)	Media and policy	3.1 (0.9)
70+	· · · ·	Workplace only	3.0 (1.2)
701	267 (26.7)	Overall	2.9 (0.6)
Education		Self-management score (full score $= 7$ )	
Primary	652 (65.2)	Diet	5.1 (0.8)
Secondary	140 (14.0)	Physical activity	3.0 (2.0)
Higher	208 (20.8)	Medication	6.8 (0.9)
-	200 (20.0)	Overall	5.0 (0.9)
Marital status	100 (10 0)		
Single	100(10.0)	Glycemic control status	150 9 (17 5
Married	669 (66.9)	Fasting plasma glucose (mg/dl)	150.8 (47.5)
Widow/divorce/separate	231 (23.1)	Glycated hemoglobin (%)*	7.5 (2.0)
Family member (persons) <sup>†</sup>	3 (3)		
Income (Baht/month) <sup>‡</sup>	5,000 (9,500)		
Quartile 1 (≤500)	242 (24.2)		
Quartile 2 (501 to 5,000)	321 (32.1)		
Quartile 3 (5,001 to 10,000)	216 (21.6)		
Quartile 4 (10,001 to 20,000)	180 (18.0)		
Unknown	41 (4.1)		
Health insurance			
CSMBS	146 (14.6)		
SSS	59 (5.9)		
UCS	645 (64.5)		
Other	150 (15.0)		
Duration of diabetes (years) <sup>‡</sup>	7 (7.8)		
Comorbidity			
Hypertension	620 (68.4)		
Dyslipidemia	400 (44.1)		
Diabetes complication			
Microvascular	174 (17.4)		
Macrovascular	75 (7.5)		
Type of treatment			
Lifestyle only	10 (1.0)		
Drug	861 (86.1)		
Insulin	36 (3.6)		
Both drug & insulin	93 (9.3)		

CIRS = Chronic Illness Resource Survey; CSMBS = Civil Servant Medical Benefit Scheme; SSS = Social Security Scheme; UCS = Universal Coverage Scheme

<sup>†</sup> Mean (standard deviation or SD), <sup>‡</sup> Median (interquartile range or IQR)

\* Number of subjects = 216

management behaviors. Neighborhood support was also independently associated with overall, physical activity, and medication intake behaviors with pronounce dose-response pattern (Table 3). Results of other social support sources were less consistent or not significant. Interaction between personal and other supports was further examined by dichotomizing its scores into low and high support subgroups, keeping other support formats unchanged. There was negative interaction between personal and neighborhood

 Table 2. Self-management scores according to quartiles of social supports (total = 1,000)

Sources and level of social support	Number	Self-management score (maximum = 7.0)					
(maximum = 5.0)		Overall mean (SD)	Diet mean (SD)	Physical activity mean (SD)	Medication taking mean (SD)		
Healthcare							
Q1 (≤3.50)	286	4.84 (0.89)	4.89 (0.85)	2.91 (1.97)	6.69 (1.02)		
Q2 (3.60 to 4.00)	442	4.99 (0.83)	5.13 (0.78) <sup>a</sup>	3.09 (1.88)	6.75 (0.90)		
Q3 (4.01 to 4.65)	74	4.98 (0.83)	4.98 (0.79)	3.07 (2.13)	6.88 (0.45)		
Q4 (≥4.66)	198	5.06 (0.84) <sup>a</sup>	5.25 (0.87) <sup>a</sup>	3.13 (2.04)	6.79 (0.88)		
Family							
Q1 (≤2.32)	307	4.75 (0.98)	4.90 (0.97) <sup>a</sup>	2.77 (2.14)	6.57 (1.25)		
Q2 (2.33 to 3.32)	381	4.92 (0.80) <sup>a</sup>	5.10 (0.74)	2.91 (1.86)	6.75 (0.86)		
Q3 (3.33 to 3.65)	84	4.92 (0.71)	5.13 (0.78)	2.80 (1.53)	6.80 (0.63)		
Q4 (≥3.66)	228	5.32 (0.69) <sup>a,b,c</sup>	5.24 (0.74) <sup>a</sup>	3.73 (1.84) <sup>a,b,c</sup>	6.98 (0.14) <sup>a,b</sup>		
Personal							
Q1 (≤2.99)	267	4.66 (0.90)	4.80 (0.88)	2.59 (1.84)	6.57 (1.19)		
Q2 (3.00 to 3.65)	369	$4.98(0.82)^{a}$	5.09 (0.75) <sup>a</sup>	3.09 (1.94) <sup>a</sup>	6.76 (0.92)		
Q3 (3.66 to 3.99)	118	5.06 (0.70) <sup>a</sup>	5.28 (0.76) <sup>a</sup>	3.00 (1.79)	6.88 (0.40) <sup>a</sup>		
Q4 (≥4.00)	246	5.20 (0.82) <sup>a,b</sup>	5.24 (0.85) <sup>a</sup>	3.50 (2.07) <sup>a</sup>	6.87 (0.64) <sup>a</sup>		
Neighborhood							
Q1 (≤1.99)	261	4.57 (0.95)	4.95 (1.03)	2.23 (2.11)	6.55 (1.20)		
Q2 (2.00 to 2.79)	253	4.83 (0.83) <sup>a</sup>	5.03 (0.85)	2.77 (1.81) <sup>a</sup>	6.67 (1.09)		
Q3 (2.80 to 3.39)	251	5.11 (0.72) <sup>a,b</sup>	5.09 (0.68)	3.37 (1.70) <sup>a,b</sup>	6.85 (0.62) <sup>a</sup>		
Q4 (≥4.00)	235	5.37 (0.65) <sup>a,b,c</sup>	5.24 (0.64) <sup>a,b</sup>	3.90 (1.75) <sup>a,b,c</sup>	6.96 (0.36) <sup>a,b</sup>		
Media							
Q1 (≤2.99)	346	4.74 (0.86)	4.93 (0.82)	2.63 (1.85)	6.64 (1.07)		
Q2 (3.00 to 3.32)	192	4.95 (0.84) <sup>a</sup>	5.05 (0.75)	3.07 (1.93)	6.72 (0.98)		
Q3 (3.33 to 3.99)	217	5.04 (0.78) <sup>a</sup>	5.18 (0.85) <sup>a</sup>	3.16 (1.92) <sup>a</sup>	6.81 (0.82)		
Q4 (≥4.00)	245	5.21 (0.84) <sup>a,b</sup>	5.21 (0.84) <sup>a</sup>	3.51 (2.04) <sup>a</sup>	6.88 (0.60) <sup>a</sup>		
Community							
Q1 (≤1.32)	359	4.77 (0.95)	5.09 (0.96)	2.55 (2.08)	6.69 (1.07)		
Q2 (1.33 to 2.32)	196	4.81 (0.87)	4.91 (0.83)	2.90 (1.98)	6.61 (1.10)		
Q3 (2.33 to 3.32)	299	5.07 (0.70) <sup>a,b</sup>	5.07 (0.67)	3.29 (1.73) <sup>b</sup>	6.85 (0.61) <sup>b</sup>		
Q4 (≥3.33)	146	5.38 (0.66) <sup>a,b,c</sup>	5.26 (0.72) <sup>b</sup>	3.97 (1.62) <sup>a,b,c</sup>	6.91 (0.61) <sup>b</sup>		
Workplace <sup>†</sup>							
Q1 (≤2.65)	114	4.63 (0.86)	4.71 (0.92)	2.44 (2.04)	6.72 (0.82)		
Q2 (2.66 to 3.32)	128	4.88 (0.99)	4.89 (0.77)	3.10 (2.07)	6.64 (1.20)		
Q3 (3.33 to 3.99)	58	5.17 (0.84) <sup>a</sup>	5.03 (0.80)	3.66 (1.98) <sup>a</sup>	6.82 (0.66)		
Q4 (≥4.00)	66	5.31 (0.87) <sup>a,b</sup>	5.45 (0.82) <sup>a,b,c</sup>	3.77 (2.01) <sup>a</sup>	6.64 (1.30)		
Overall							
Q1 (<2.50)	250	4.56 (0.96)	4.79 (0.93)	2.39 (2.02)	6.47 (1.32)		
Q2 (2.51 to 2.94)	250	4.83 (0.82) <sup>a</sup>	5.05 (0.86) <sup>a</sup>	2.72 (1.88)	6.73 (0.91) <sup>a</sup>		
Q3 (2.95 to 3.38)	252	5.06 (0.73) <sup>a,b</sup>	5.15 (0.75) <sup>a</sup>	3.17 (1.88) <sup>a,b</sup>	6.84 (0.73) <sup>a</sup>		
Q4 (>3.39)	248	5.39 (0.65) <sup>a,b,c</sup>	5.31 (0.67) <sup>a,b</sup>	3.90 (1.71) <sup>a,b,c</sup>	6.96 (0.24) <sup>a,b</sup>		

Q = quartile; SD = standard deviation

<sup>†</sup> Include only those who are currently working

<sup>a</sup> Different from the first quartile with p < 0.05

 $^{\rm b}$  Different from the second quartile with  $p{<}0.05$ 

<sup>c</sup> Different from the third quartile with p < 0.05

supports on the overall self-management, dietary, and medication taking behaviors (Fig. 1). Magnitude of increase in the overall self-management and medication taking behavioral scores according to neighborhood support level was more pronounce among the low than in the high personal support subgroups.

Since personal and neighborhood supports seemed to have high influential on many selfmanagement behaviors, we further examined the demographic characteristics of those with low levels of these supports. Results showed that those with lower support levels also had lower socioeconomic status. Specifically, compared to individuals in the high support groups, significantly higher proportion of those in the low support groups were in the lower income and educational groups, holding the UC scheme, and seeking medical care at the health centers rather than at the hospitals (detail not shown).

### Discussion

Based on the social-environmental framework, our study revealed that personal (in other words, favorable, or healthful intra-individual attributes) and neighborhood supports were the most influential leverage points for self-management support among type 2 diabetic patients in the metropolitan area of

 Table 3. Relationship between social supports and self-management behaviors (total = 1,000)

Source of social support	Number		Self-management behaviors						
		Overall Beta (95% CI)	Dietary Beta (95% CI)	Physical activity Beta (95% CI)	Drug intake Beta (95% CI)				
Healthcare									
One unit increase		N/A	N/A	-0.16 (-0.32, 0.01)	N/A				
Q1 (≤3.50)	286			Ref.					
Q2 (3.60 to 4.00)	442			-0.22 (-0.51, 0.08)					
Q3 (4.01 to 4.65)	74			-0.11 (-0.59, 0.38)					
Q4 (≥4.66)	198			-0.20 (-0.57, 0.18)					
Family									
One unit increase		0.06 (-0.01, 0.12)	0.08 (0.03, 0.13)***	N/A	0.09 (0.02, 0.16)*				
Q1 (≤2.32)	307	Ref.	Ref.		Ref.				
Q2 (2.33 to 3.32)	381	-0.02 (-0.15, 0.12)	0.14 (0.02, 0.27)*		0.10 (-0.06, 0.26)				
Q3 (3.33 to 3.65)	84	-0.08 (-0.30, 0.12)	0.13 (-0.08, 0.33)		0.12 (-0.13, 0.37)				
Q4 (≥3.66)	228	0.16 (-0.01, 0.32)	0.19 (0.04, 0.33)*		0.22 (0.03, 0.41)*				
Personal									
One unit increase		0.16 (0.10, 0.22)****	0.18 (0.12, 0.25)****	0.27 (0.11, 0.44)***	0.08 (0.01, 0.15)*				
Q1 (≤2.99)	267	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.				
Q2 (3.00 to 3.65)	369	0.18 (0.05, 0.32)**	0.25 (0.12, 0.38)****	0.25 (-0.06, 0.57)	0.12 (-0.03, 0.27)				
O3 (3.66 to 3.99)	118	0.27 (0.09, 0.45)***	0.41 (0.22, 0.59)****	0.27 (-0.17, 0.71)	0.24 (0.03, 0.45)*				
Q4 (≥4.00)	246	0.31 (0.16, 0.47)****	0.38 (0.23, 0.52)****	0.49 (0.11, 0.87)*	0.21 (0.03, 0.38)*				
Neighborhood									
One unit increase		0.28 (0.21, 0.35)****	N/A	0.67 (0.54, 0.80)****	0.09 (0.01, 0.17)*				
Q1 (≤1.99)	261	Ref.		Ref.	Ref.				
Q2 (2.00 to 2.79)	253	0.25 (0.11, 0.39)***		0.53 (0.20, 0.86)***	0.08 (-0.09, 0.25)				
Q3 (2.80 to 3.39)	251	0.51 (0.36, 0.65)****		1.15 (0.82, 1.48)****	0.21 (0.03, 0.39)*				
Q4 (≥4.00)	235	0.64 (0.49, 0.79)****		1.49 (1.14, 1.85)****	0.23 (0.03, 0.42)*				
Media									
One unit increase		0.10 (-0.04, 0.25)	N/A	0.13 (-0.02, 0.28)	N/A				
Q1 (≤2.99)	346	Ref.		Ref.					
Q2 (3.00 to 3.32)	192	0.12 (-0.02, 0.27)		0.26 (-0.07, 0.60)					
Q3 (3.33 to 3.99)	217	0.22 (0.08, 0.37)***		0.15 (-0.19, 0.48)					
Q4 (≥4.00)	245	0.03 (0.01, 0.05)***		0.43 (0.09, 0.76)*					
Overall									
One unit increase		0.49 (0.41, 0.58)****	0.27 (0.18, 0.35)****	0.94 (0.74, 1.14)****	0.26 (0.16, 0.36)****				
Q1 (≤2.50)	250	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.	Ref.				
Q2 (2.51 to 2.94)	250	0.38 (0.11, 0.65)**	0.24 (0.10, 0.39)***	0.41 (0.07, 0.75)*	0.27 (0.10, 0.43)***				
Q3 (2.95 to 3.38)	252	0.78 (0.52, 1.03)****	0.35 (0.20, 0.49)****	0.81 (0.48, 1.15)****	0.39 (0.22, 0.55)****				
Q4 (≥3.39)	248	1.07 (0.80, 1.33)****	0.46 (0.31, 0.61)****	1.54 (1.20, 1.89)****	0.50 (0.33, 0.67)****				

N/A = not applicable since the variable was excluded from the final statistical model; Q = quartile; Ref. = reference group \* p<0.05, \*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.005, \*\*\*\* p<0.001



Fig. 1 Interaction between personal and neighborhood supports on type 2 diabetes self-management behaviors. Solid and dash lines represent "low" and "high" personal support sub-groups respectively (HPSS = high personal support subgroup, LPSS = low personal support subgroup, and CI = confidence interval). Symbol \* indicates statistical significance.

Thailand. We also found negative interaction between personal and neighborhood supports on the overall and medication intake behaviors. Specifically, magnitude of increase in the level of self-management behaviors with respect to neighborhood support level was higher among participants with lower personal support levels.

Our findings were well consistent with three published reports that had similar study aims to ours<sup>(8-10)</sup>. Almost all these studies consistently showed the supports from personal and neighborhood were strongly associated with overall and domain-specific self-management behaviors (namely dietary and physical activity behaviors)<sup>(8-10)</sup>. However, these reported associations were not independent from other support sources, and supports from neighborhood and community organizations were combined into community support in two studies<sup>(8,9)</sup>. Medication taking behavior had not been included in these studies. Their sample sizes (n = 58 to 208) were also small. Furthermore, potential interaction among social support sources on self-management behaviors had not been investigated in these studies.

Neighborhood support may affect physical activity and healthy eating behaviors via neighborhood cohesion, neighborhood walkability, and perceived neighborhood access<sup>(15,16)</sup>. Regarding medication taking behavior, a recent review concluded that practical support (support for medication reminders, household responsibility, or transportation) was the most consistently associated with greater medication adherence<sup>(30)</sup>.

Regarding the potential interaction between personal and external social factors on health behaviors, existing evidences showed mixed results<sup>(17-19,21)</sup>. While most studies support positive or synergistic interaction between individual and social factors<sup>(18,19,21)</sup>, some also support the opposite<sup>(17)</sup>. Warner et al reported the relation of received support with autonomy in elderly patients with multiple illnesses was moderated by self-efficacy<sup>(20)</sup>. Receiving social support bolstered autonomy in lower self-efficacious individuals, but threatened autonomy in highly self-efficacious individuals. These negative interactions were explained by two theories: the compensation and interference hypotheses<sup>(31)</sup>.

When personal support was equated to self-efficacy, we found negative interaction between personal and neighborhood supports on selfmanagement behaviors, which might also be explained by the compensation and interference hypotheses. Higher neighborhood support compensates low personal support with the resultant higher magnitude of improvement in self-management behaviors in the low personal support subgroup. In contrary, higher neighborhood support received by those with high personal support subgroup might interfere with their autonomy and resulting in less beneficial effect on their self-management behaviors compared to those in low personal support subgroup.

However, since the results were inconsistent among different health behaviors in our study as well as with those in previous studies, chance findings may also be an alternative explanation. In addition, since the interaction was shown only for the behavioral outcomes with high average scores (overall selfmanagement and medication taking behaviors), but not for that outcome with low average score (physical activity), spurious interaction as the result of "ceiling effect" was also another possible explanation<sup>(32)</sup>. Room for improvement in high average scores progressively decreases when they approach this maximum score, resulting in spurious negative interaction among the participants having high levels of both personal and neighborhood support sources. In contrary, physical activity score had more room for improvement because its overall score was much lower than the maximum score 7 (probably due to their older age and residing in highly urbanized and concentrated area)<sup>(33)</sup>, hence, no spurious interaction was produced. Further longitudinal studies in different populations and using different measurement methods for self-management behaviors are therefore needed to elucidate these issues.

Since self-management behaviors were better when the levels of both supports increase compared to when only one of the supports increase, the interventions targeting at enhancing both supports should be more beneficial than those that targeting at only one of these supports. This was particularly for those with low personal and neighborhood supports, as well as those with lower socioeconomic status (since these support levels were significantly correlated with socioeconomic status). Negative interaction between personal and neighborhood supports among high personal and neighborhood supports subgroup might not mean that neighborhood support has no use for those with high personal support, but it might imply that different strategies of neighborhood support should be applied for those with high and low personal support<sup>(17,20)</sup>.

Our finding that perceived support from healthcare team was the highest while that from community organizations was the lowest consistent with previous report<sup>(5)</sup>. This might be due to the fact that patients on general consider healthcare personnel as their main source of support for healthcare<sup>(34)</sup>. Community organizations, on the other hand, do not have major roles and responsibilities relating to healthcare.

The strengths of our study are we include large sample size with high heterogeneity of both patients and healthcare facilities. Although characteristics of non-participating patients were unknown, our relatively high participation rate should ensure some degree of population representativeness. Although patients from private hospitals were underrepresented in our study, reanalysis confining to this patient group showed similar findings about personal and neighborhood support sources and their interaction as the main analytical results (but the statistical power was markedly reduced). The results should therefore be well generalized. Data collection instruments were also developed using standard procedures. However, there are some limitations such as participant recruitment, which was not based completely on probability sampling, might have produced biased results. In addition, collecting the data in healthcare setting and

taking interview for some patients rather than selfadministering might further result in social desirability bias. However, the magnitudes and relative rank among the CIRS subscales reported in our study, as well as some detailed findings about their associations with self-management behavior, were quite consistent to those studies in different populations that use similar instrument but different procedures for data collection<sup>(5-7,9)</sup>. Our findings from metropolitan context might not be generalizable to rural context. Lastly, the cross-sectional nature of the present study might also limit our conclusions about the cause-effect relationship of social-environmental supports with type 2 diabetic self-management behaviors. These issues should be considered in future studies.

#### Conclusion

In conclusion, the present study identified personal and neighborhood supports as potential leverage points for the social ecologically based interventions to support self-management among type 2 diabetes patients. In addition, since the magnitude of association of neighborhood support level with selfmanagement behaviors varies according to personal support level, different neighborhood support strategies may be needed for those with low versus high personal support.

#### What is already known on this topic?

The individually-focus type 2 diabetes selfmanagement support programs have limited success only in short-term, but decline sharply thereafter.

As type 2 diabetes self-management behaviors are influenced by the environmental contexts of an individual, social-ecological models with multiple levels of interventions were proposed as a better approach for type 2 diabetes self-management support.

Multilevel interventions are, however, complex, costly, and need long-term effort. A more realistic approach is to identify and implement at a single or limited leverage point(s) that is most effective and feasible for creating change in type 2 diabetes self-management behaviors.

#### What this study adds?

Personal and neighborhood supports are two potential leverage points for the social ecologically based interventions to support self-management among type 2 diabetes patients.

Interventions targeting on enhancing both personal and neighborhood supports simultaneously

may be particularly benefited for type 2 diabetes patients with low personal support.

Furthermore, different neighborhood support strategies may be needed for type 2 diabetes patients with low versus high personal support.

# Authors' contributions

Jiamjarasrangsi W researched the data, contributed to discussion, and wrote the manuscript. Navicharern R, Attavorrarat S, and Manit A analyzed the data and contributed to discussion. Aekplakorn W and Keesukphan P contributed to discussion and reviewed the manuscript.

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### Potential conflicts of interest

None.

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ส่วนที่	2 ปัจจัยทางด้านสังคมและสิ่งแวดล้อมที่ส่งผลต่อการจัดการดูแลตนเองของผู้ป่วยเบาหวาน							
โปรดอ่านข้อคำถามแต่ละข้อ และขีดเครื่องหมายถูก 🗸 เพื่อประเมินว่าข้อความที่ระบุไว้ในแต่ละข้อตรงกับดัวท่าน ในช่วง 6 เดือน ที่ผ่านมามากน้อยเพียงใด								
	6 เดือนที่ผ่านมา ท่านได้รับสิ่งเหล่านี้มากน้อยเพียงใด	ไม่มี	น้อย	ปานกลาง	มาก	มากที่สุด		
บุคลาเ	ารผู้ให้บริการทางด้านการแพทย์							
C1	แพทย์เปิดโอกาสให้ท่านมีส่วนร่วมในการวางเป้าหมาย และวิธีการปฏิบัติ เพื่อให้บรรถุเป้าหมายการดูแลรักษาโรค เบาหวาน	$\Box_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	4	$\square_5$		
C2	แพทย์ หรือ ผู้ให้บริการด้านสุขภาพอื่น ๆ สนใจพังท่านอย่างตั้งใจเมื่อท่านบอกถึงอาการป่วยของท่าน	<b>D</b> 1	$\square_2$	<b></b> 3	<b>4</b>	<b>D</b> 5		
C3	แพทย์ที่รักษาท่าน หรือ ผู้ให้บริการด้านสุขภาพอื่น ๆ อธิบายผลการทดสอบให้ท่านทราบอย่างละเอียด (เช่น ระดับ	<b>D</b> 1	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\Box_4$	$\Box_5$		
	์ ไขมันในเลือด ความคันโลหิต หรือ ผลการทดสอบทางห้องปฏิบัติการอื่น ๆ)							
สมาชิก	ในครอบครัว และกลุ่มเพื่อน							
C4	คนในครอบครัว หรือ เพื่อนออกกำลังกายร่วมกับท่าน	$\Box_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\Box_4$	<b>D</b> 5		
C5	ท่านได้รับสูตรอาหาร ที่มีไขมันต่ำ หรือ มีแป้ง น้ำตาลน้อย หรือ มีผัก ผลไม้ จากคนในครอบครัว หรือ เพื่อน	$\Box_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	<b>4</b>	$\Box_5$		
C6	คนในครอบครัว หรือ เพื่อน ซื้ออาหาร หรือ เดรียมอาหารเพื่อสุขภาพที่เหมาะสมสำหรับผู้ป่วยเบาหวานให้ท่าน (อาทิเช่น อาหารที่มีไขมันด่ำ หรือ อาหารที่มีแป้ง น้ำดาลน้อย หรือ อาหารที่มีผัก ผลไม้)	$\Box_1$	$\square_2$	<b></b> 3	<b>4</b>	<b>D</b> 5		
ตัวบุค	คล (สิ่งมีประโยชน์ที่ท่านทำเพื่อดัวท่านเอง)							
C7	ในการจัดการดูแถดนเอง ท่านมีความมุ่งมั่นที่จะทำในสิ่งที่ท่านทำได้ดี แทนที่จะสนใจกับสิ่งที่ท่านทำได้ไม่ดี	$\Box_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	4	$\Box_5$		
C8	ท่านคิด หรือ ทบทวน ถึงวิธีการที่ท่านปฏิบัติเพื่อให้บรรลุเป้าหมายการดูแลรักษาโรคเบาหวาน	$\Box_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	<b>4</b>	$\Box_5$		
C9	ท่านจัดดารางเวลาของท่าน ให้ง่ายต่อการทำในสิ่งที่จำเป็นสำหรับการดูแลรักษาโรคเบาหวาน	$\Box_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	<b>4</b>	$\Box_5$		
เพื่อนเ	บ้าน และชุมชน							
C10	ท่านเดิน หรือ ออกกำลังกายกลางแจ้งในย่านที่อยู่อาศัยของท่าน	$\Box_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\Box_4$	$\Box_5$		
C11	ท่านเดิน หรือ ออกกำลังกายอย่างอื่น ร่วมกับเพื่อนบ้านของท่าน	$\Box_1$	$\square_2$	<b>3</b>	$\Box_4$	$\Box_5$		
C12	ท่านได้รับสูตรอาหารที่มีใขมันด่ำ หรือ มีแป้ง น้ำตาลน้อย หรือ มีผัก ผลใม้ จากเพื่อนบ้าน หรือ พูดคุยเกี่ยวกับ	$\Box_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	<b>4</b>	<b>D</b> 5		
	การกินอาหารเพื่อสุขภาพกับเพื่อนบ้านของท่าน							
C13	ท่านเคยกินอาหารเพื่อสุขภาพในร้านอาหารใกล้บ้าน หรือ ที่ทำงาน หรือ ในร้านมีอาหารหลากหลายชนิดให้เลือก ซื้อ	$\Box_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	4	$\Box_5$		
C14	ท่านไปสวนสาธารณะเพื่อเดินเล่น ปิกนิก หรือ ทำกิจกรรมอื่นนอกบ้าน	<b>D</b> 1	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	4	<b>D</b> 5		
สื่อ แส	าะนโยบายสาธารณะ							
C15	ท่านเคยอ่านบทความในหนังสือพิมพ์ หรือ นิตยสารเกี่ยวกับบุคคลที่ประสบความสำเร็จในการจัดการ ควบคุมโรค	<b>D</b> 1	$\square_2$	<b></b> 3	4	<b>D</b> 5		
	เบาหวาน							
C16	ท่านมีประกันสุขภาพที่ครอบคลุมค่าใช้จ่ายในการรักษาโรค	$\Box_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\Box_4$	$\Box_5$		
C17	ท่านเคยเห็นป้ายโฆษณา หรือ การโฆษณาอื่น ๆ ที่กระดุ้นการเลิกสูบบุหรี่ หรือ กระดุ้นให้กินอาหารไขมันด่ำ หรือ	$\Box_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	$\Box_4$	$\Box_5$		
	มีแป้ง น้ำตาลน้อย หรือ มีผัก ผลไม้ หรือ กระตุ้นให้ออกกำลังกายอย่างสม่ำเสมอ ว่ในชุมชน							
C18	งเนซุมชน ท่านเคยเข้าร่วมโครงการที่ไม่ต้องเสียค่าใช้จ่าย หรือ เสียค่าใช้จ่ายน้อย เพื่อสนับสนุนท่านในการจัดการดูแลรักษา							
C18	ท่านเสองขาววมเสวงกาวกันพองเถอกาเรขาอ หว่อ เถอกาเรขาอนออ เพอถนบถนุนท่านเนการจุดการพู่แถวกษา โรคเบาหวาน (เช่น การควบคุมน้ำหนัก โปรแกรมในโรงพยาบาถ)	$\Box_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	<b>4</b>	$\square_5$		
C19	เราะบทราน (เขน การกรษฐมนาคมการบริมารถิจในท้องถิ่น ท่านเคยเป็นอาสาสมัครเพื่อองค์กร หรือ ภารกิจในท้องถิ่น	$\square_1$	$\square_2$	<b></b> 3	4	<b>D</b> 5		
C20	ท่านเคยเข้าร่วมโปรแกรมส่งเสริมสุขภาพ หรือ โปรแกรมออกกำลังกาย		$\square_2$	$\square_3$				
	้ ที่ทำงาน (ถ้าท่านไม่ได้ทำงานข้ามไปส่วนที่ 3)		<b>L</b> 2	<b>L</b> 3	4	<b>U</b> 5		
C21	ท่านมีตารางการทำงานที่ขีดหยุ่นที่สามารถทำสิ่งอื่น ๆ ที่เอื้อต่อการดูแถรักษาโรคเบาหวาน							
			$\square_2$	$\square_3$	4	<b>D</b> 5		
C22	สถานที่ทำงานของท่านมีกฎ หรือ นโยบายที่ทำให้ท่านสามารถดูแลรักษาอาการป่วยของท่านให้ง่ายขึ้น (เช่น การ ห้ามสูบบุหรี่ การจัดเวลาสำหรับการออกกำลังกายหลังเลิกงาน)	$\Box_1$	$\square_2$	$\square_3$	4	$\square_5$		
C23	ท่านสามารถควบคุมงานของท่าน โดยสามารถตัดสินใจ หรือ จัดลำดับความสำคัญของงานได้ด้วยตนเอง	$\Box_1$	$\square_2$	<b>D</b> 3	$\Box_4$	<b>D</b> 5		

Appendix A. Thai version of the brief Chronic Illness Resources Survey (Thai Brief-CIRS)

71		มการดูแถตนเองเนพูเบน ในแต่ละมื้อพออิ่ม ไม่มาf	เบาหวาน ในช่วง 7 วันที มอิมไป และและเวลา						
31						-			
	0.	<u>1</u> .	<b>2</b> .	<b>3</b> .	4.	<b>5</b> .	<b>6</b> .	7.	
E2		จุบจิบระหว่างมื้อ กี่วัน	_	_	_	_	_	-	
	0.	<b>1</b> .	<b>2</b> .	3.	4.	5.	<b>6</b> .	7.	
E3		ที่มีน้ำตาถมาก (เช่น น้ำห 							
	0.	<b>1</b> .	□ 2. ×	3.	4.	<b>5</b> .	<b>G</b> .	<b>7</b> .	
34	ท่านกินอาหารไ	ใขมันสูง กี่วัน (เช่น หมูล	กามชั่น ขาหมู หนังเป็ด	หนังไก่ กะทิ อาหารทอด	เต่างๆ ไข่แดง หอยนาง	เรม ปลาหมึก)			
	0.	<b>1</b> .	<b>2</b> .	<b>3</b> .	4.	5.	<b>G</b> .	7.	
25	ท่านกินอาหารเ	ตรงเวลาครบ 3 มื้อ กี่วัน							
	0.	<b>1</b> .	<b>2</b> .	3.	4.	5.	<b>G</b> .	7.	
E6		รแลกเปลี่ยนอาหารในการ							
		เปลี่ยนอาหาร หมายถึง เ				มาณที่กำหนด เช่น กินจํ	ก่าวเหนียว 1 ปั้น เท่าไข่	ไก่ แทนการกินข้าว 1 ท่	
	กินปลา 1 ตัวเ	ล็ก แทนเนื้อหมูไม่ติดมัน		เล แทนกินเงาะ 6 ผล เ					
	0.	<b>1</b> .	<b>2</b> .	3.	4.	5.	<b>G</b> .	7.	
27	ท่านดื่มเครื่องดี	วิ่มที่มีแอลกอฮอล์กี่วัน (เ	ช่น เหล้ามากกว่า 2 เป็ก	า หรือ เบียร์มากกว่า 1	กระป๋อง หรือ ไวน์มากก	าว่าครึ่งแก้ว)			
	0.	<b>D</b> 1.	<b>2</b> .	<b>3</b> .	4.	<b>5</b> .	<b>G</b> .	<b>7</b> .	
E8	ท่านกินอาหารจำพวกผักใบเขียวสด หรือ ลวก หรือ ต้ม (เช่น ผักกาด กวางตุ้ง แดงกวา กะหล่ำปลี ผักคะน้ำ ผักบุ้ง) มากกว่าหรือเท่ากับวันถะ 2-3 ถ้วยดวง หรือ กินผลไม้ที่มีน้ำตาลนั้ (เช่น ส้ม ฝรั่ง มะม่วงดิบ มะละกอ สับปะรด) กี่วัน								
	<b>D</b> 0.	<b>1</b> .	<b>2</b> .	3.	4.	5.	<b>6</b> .	<b>7</b> .	
<u> </u>		 แรงทำกิจกรรมอย่างต่อเท่					• 0.	- /:	
	<b>D</b> 0.	<b>1</b> .	<b>2</b> .	3.	4.	<b>5</b> .	6.	7.	
E10		ออกกำลังกายที่เฉพาะเจ				<b>u</b> 5.	<b>U</b> 0.	<b>u</b> /.	
210						Π.	Π.	Π.	
	0.	<b>1</b> .	2.	<b>3</b> .	4.	5.	<b>6</b> .	7.	
E11		นเองในเรื่องการกินอาหาะ				-			
	0.	<u>1</u> .	<b>2</b> .	3.	<b>4</b> .	5.	<b>6</b> .	7.	
E12	ท่านสังเกตดนเ	เองว่ามีอาการน้ำตาลในเสื 							
	0.	<b>1</b> .	<b>2</b> .	<b>3</b> .	4.	<b>5</b> .	<b>G</b> .	7.	
E13	ท่านตรวจร่างก	ายตนเองตามซอกอับ เช่		เน็บ ว่ามีการติดเชื้อหรือไ	ม่ ก็วัน				
	0.	<b>D</b> 1.	<b>2</b> .	<b>3</b> .	4.	<b>5</b> .	<b>6</b> .	<b>7</b> .	
E14	ท่านตรวจเท้าทั่	้าวทั้งเท้าอย่างละเอียด (ห	เล้งเท้า ฝ่าเท้า ส้นเท้า เ	ลีบเท้า และซอกนิ้วเท้า)	ว่ามีแผลเกิดขึ้นหรือไม่	กี่วัน			
	<b>D</b> 0.	<b>□</b> 1.	<b>2</b> .	□ 3.	4.	5.	<b>G</b> .	7.	
E15	ก่อนใส่รองเท้า	ท่านตรวจดูที่รองเท้าว่ามี	เศษหิน ทราย หรือ ของ	มีคม อยู่ที่รองเท้า กี่วัน					
	<b>D</b> 0.	<b>1</b> .	<b>2</b> .	<b>3</b> .	4.	<b>5</b> .	<b>6</b> .	7.	
E16	ท่านทำความสะ	ะอาดเท้าอย่างทั่วถึง (หลั		มเท้า และซอกนิ้วเท้า) กี่					
	0.	<b>1</b> .	<b>2</b> .	3.	4.	5.	<b>6</b> .	<b>7</b> .	
E17		 ้วเท้าให้แห้งหลังทำความ			<u> </u>		•.	_ //	
	<b>D</b> 0.	<b>1</b> .	2.	3.	4.	5.	<b>6</b> .	7.	
E18		🖵 1. วามสะอาดผิวหนัง โดยเจ				<b>u</b> <i>s</i> .	<b>u</b> 0.	<b>4</b> /.	
210									
710	0.	1. าวานครบทุกมื้อ และตาม	2.	<b>3</b> .	4.	5.	<b>6</b> .	7.	
E19						-			
	0.	<u>1</u> .	<b>2</b> .	<b>3</b> .	4.	<b>5</b> .	<b>G</b> .	7.	
E20		าวานได้ตรงเวลาครบทุกมี่ 		_	_	_		_	
	<b>D</b> 0.	<b>D</b> 1.	<b>2</b> .	<b>3</b> .	4.	<b>5</b> .	<b>G</b> .	<b>—</b> 7.	

Appendix B. Thai version of the Summary of Diabetes Self-care Activities (Thai-SDSCA)

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การค้นหาจุดคานงัดที่มีศักยภาพสำหรับมาตรการการสนับสนุนการจัดการตนเองสำหรับผู้ป่วยโรคเบาหวานชนิดที่ 2 ชาวไทย

วิโรจน์ เจียมจรัสรังษี, รุ้งระวี นาวีเจริญ, สุวพิชชา อรรถวรรัตน์, อนัญญา มานิตย์, วิชัย เอกพลากร, ประสิทธิ์ ก็สุขพันธ์

ภูมิหลัง: แม้ว่าจะมีคำแนะนำให้ใช้โมเดลทางสังคม-นิเวศวิทยาและมาตรการแทรกแซงหลายระดับสำหรับการสนับสนุนการจัดการ ตนเองแบบองค์รวมสำหรับผู้ป่วยโรคเบาหวาน แต่การดำเนินการแบบนี้มีความซับซ้อน ใช้งบประมาณมาก และต้องอาศัยการทุ่มเท เป็นเวลานาน วิธีการที่เป็นไปได้จริงมากกว่า คือ การค้นหาจุดคานงัดที่มีประสิทธิภาพและเป็นไปได้มากที่สุดที่จะทำให้เกิดการ เปลี่ยนแปลงเพียงจุดเดียวหรือน้อยจุดแล้วมุ่งดำเนินการไปที่จุดคานงัดนั้นๆ

วัตถุประสงค์: เพื่อประเมินความสัมพันธ์อิสระของการสนับสนุนจากสังคม-สิ่งแวดล้อมกับพฤติกรรมการจัดการตนเองในผู้ป่วย โรคเบาหวานชนิดที่ 2 ชาวไทย

วัสดุและวิธีการ: ดำเนินการสำรวจภาคตัดขวางในผู้ป่วยโรคเบาหวานชนิดที่ 2 จำนวน 1,000 ราย จากสถานบริการสุขภาพ 64 แห่ง ทั่วกรุงเทพมหานคร เก็บข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับการสนับสนุนจากสังคม-สิ่งแวดล้อมและพฤติกรรมการจัดการตนเอง โดยแบบสอบถาม แบบมีโครงสร้างชุดหนึ่ง นำเสนอความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างปัจจัยทำนายและผลลัพธ์โดยใช้สัมประสิทธิ์บีตา (ช่วงความเชื่อมั่นที่ร้อยละ 95) ผลการศึกษา: การสนับสนุนส่วนบุคคล (การมองแง่บวกและจัดการปัญหาแบบเชิงรุก) มีความสัมพันธ์อย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติ กับพฤติกรรมการจัดการตนเองโดยรวม พฤติกรรมการบริโภคอาหาร การเคลื่อนไหวออกแรง และการใช้ยา ส่วนการสนับสนุนจาก เพื่อนบ้านมีความสัมพันธ์อย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติกับพฤติกรรมการจัดการตนเองโดยรวม พฤติกรรมการเลื่อนไหวออกแรง และ การใช้ยา พบว่าการสนับสนุนส่วนบุคคลมีปฏิสัมพันธ์เชิงปฏิเสธกับการสนับสนุนจากเพื่อนบ้านในพฤติกรรมการจัดการตนเองโดยรวม และพฤติกรรมการใช้ยา

สรุป: การสนับสนุนส่วนบุคคลและการสนับสนุนจากเพื่อนบ้านเป็นจุดคานงัดที่มีศักยภาพ 2 จุด สำหรับมาตรการการสนับสนุนการ จัดการตนเองของผู้ป่วยโรคเบาหวานชนิดที่ 2 ชาวไทย อย่างไรก็ตามผู้ป่วยที่มีระดับการสนับสนุนส่วนบุคคลสูงและต่ำอาจต้องการ กลยุทธ์การสนับสนุนจากเพื่อนบ้านที่แตกต่างกัน