Glycemic control and its determinants among patients with diabetes mellitus in the Teaching Hospital, Batticaloa, Sri Lanka

G Kisokanth¹, S Prathapan², J Indrakumar³, I M PS Ilankoon⁴, K Arulanandem⁵

Sri Lankan Family Physician, 2018, 34, 17-25

Abstract

This study aimed to identify the determinants of good glycemic control among patients with Diabetes Mellitus (DM) in Batticaloa District, Sri Lanka. A case control study was conducted among 339 patients with DM in medical clinics, Teaching Hospital, Batticaloa. Cases (n=113) were patients with DM who had fasting blood glucose equal or less than 110 mg/dl in and controls (n=226) were patients with DM who had fasting blood sugar more than 110 mg/dl in at least last 3 consecutive occasions during last 6 months. The validated and pre-tested interviewer administered questionnaire was used to collect data. Data collection was carried by the trained data collector in order to

avoid interviewer bias. DM duration less than 7 years (OR 0.30, 95% CI=0.14-0.64), rural residence (OR=2.08, 95% CI=1.04-4.15), regular exercise (OR 5.96, 95% CI=3.08-11.51), fixed time for consumption of medication (OR 4.22, 95% CI=1.59-11.24), regular clinic follow-up (OR 4.61, 95% CI=1.22-17.34) and normal body weight (BMI < 23 Kg/m²) (OR 0.15, 95% CI=0.07-0.31) were found to be the factors associated with good glycemic control in the multivariate logistic regression model. Patients with DM should be advised on regular exercise, maintain the ideal body weight, regular clinic follow-up and drug compliance for the better glycemic control.

Keywords: glycemic control, diabetes mellitus, determinants, regular exercise, Sri Lanka

1. Introduction

The prevalence of Diabetes Mellitus (DM) has become more widespread in the developing counties¹. In Sri Lanka, around 1.5 million adults suffer from DM and the numbers are expected to rise up to 2.1 million by the

year 2030². The standardized prevalence of DM for Sri Lankans was 10.3%, and the prevalence of DM in urban and rural population was 16.4% and 8.7% respectively³.

Adequate blood glucose control is associated with the reduction of microvascular and macrovascular complications of DM^{4.5}. Poor and inadequate glycemic control among patients with DM creates a major public health problem⁶, which is associated with high cost for the patients as well as the government⁷.

Glycemic control remains as major therapeutic aim for prevention of target organ damage and other complications arising from DM⁶. Recognizing the factors of good glycemic control contributes to a clearer understanding of modifiable factors, which would help to achieve improved glycemic control and improved patient function and outcomes⁸.

Although glycemic control is known to reduce complications of DM, it is a challenge for many patients to achieve it⁹. Both patient and health care provider factors may contribute to poor glycemic control¹⁰. Indeed, therapeutic control of DM generally involves rigorous and permanent lifestyle changes including dietary inter-ventions, physical activity along with strict medical régime^{11,12}.

A number of studies have addressed the determinants of glycemic control. A study found that glycemic control is significantly associated with age, ethnicity, duration of DM, type and number of medications taken, obesity,

Correspondence: G. Kisokanth, Senior Lecturer, Department of Supplementary Health Sciences, Faculty of Health-Care Sciences, Eastern University, Sri Lanka, No 50, New Road, Batticaloa, Sri Lanka.

Phone: +94772228330, Email: kiso.1983@yahoo.com

¹ Senior Lecturer, Department of Supplementary Health Sciences, Faculty of Health-Care Sciences, Eastern University, Sri Lanka.

² Professor in Community Medicine, Department of Community Medicine, Faculty of Medical Sciences, University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka.

³ Professor in Medicine, Department of Medicine, Faculty of Medical Sciences, University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka.

⁴ Lecturer, Department of Allied Health Sciences, Faculty of Medical Sciences, University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka.

⁵ Senior Lecturer, Department of Primary Health Care, Faculty of Health-Care Sciences, Eastern University, Sri Lanka.

psychological variables and family support¹³. Further, Body Mass Index (BMI), adhered to diabetic diet, self-monitoring of glucose, gender, access to nurse educator and ethnic background were found to be significant determinants of good glycemic control^{14,15}.

Fasting blood sugar (FBS) of 110 mg/dl or less is considered as target for better control of hyperglycaemia among patients with DM¹⁶. Further, American Association of Clinical Endocrinologists and American College of Endocrinology (AACE/ACE) Consensus Statement in 2017 recommended that FBS has to be maintained < 110 mg/dl as a target for the better outcome for the patients with DM¹⁷.

The recommended target glycemic control is very difficult to achieve among patients with DM in clinical practice unless the associated factors with good glycemic control are known. Therefore, the aim of this study was to identify the determinants for good glycemic control of DM among patients at Teaching Hospital, Batticaloa District, Sri Lanka.

2. Methodology

2.1 Study design

An unmatched (1:2) case control study was conducted among patients with DM at the medical clinics of Teaching Hospital in Batticaloa district, Sri Lanka. A case was defined as a patient with DM who had fasting blood sugar less than or equal to 110 mg/dl in at least last 3 consecutive occasions during last 6 months and control was defined as a patient with DM who had fasting blood sugar more than 110 mg/dl in at least last 3 consecutive occasions during last 6 months.

Fasting blood glucose of 110 mg/dl or less is indicated the better glycaemic control among patients with DM 16 . Further, American College of Endocrinology guideline emphasized that fasting blood glucose should be targeted $<110 \text{ mg/dl}^{17}$ and the levels >110 mg/dl are associated with substantial cardiovascular risk.

The sample size was calculated for unequal case control ratio using following equation¹⁸.

$$n = \frac{nCp_{_{1}}\text{'}q_{_{1}}\text{'}(Z\alpha + \!Z\beta)^{2}}{(P_{_{1}}\text{-}P_{_{0}})^{2}}$$

 P_0 = Expose rate among controls was considered as 50%, R = Odds Ratio = 2, Z_{α} = value of standard normal distribution corresponding to a significant level of alpha (1.96 at 0.05 level), Z_{β} = value of the standard normal distribution corresponding to the desired level of power (0.84 for power of 80%). The calculated sample size for case was 113 and control was 226.

2.2 Participants

The participants included in this study were patients with DM who have lived at least for 2 years in the Batticaloa district, diagnosed at least 2 years ago, with any treatment modality (oral hypoglycemic agents or insulin or both or diet alone) and age of above 30 years. Patients who were pregnant (GDM) and patients having any physical discomfort or pain due to surgery or ulcers when attending the medical clinic were excluded from the study.

2.3 Study instrument

The interviewer administered questionnaire (IAQ) was used to collect the data. First IAQ was prepared in English and then translated into Tamil language as Tamil language is mainly used by the Batticaloa population. Tamil translation was done by two independent language experts, retaining the original structure and content as much as possible. The translated questionnaire was compared by other two bilingual English – Tamil experts. The principal investigator (PI) discussed the variations with the two experts and consensual alterations were made. The agreed Tamil version of the IAQ was translated back to English by two bilingual English – Tamil experts. The translated version was rechecked with the original version by the PI for consistency and accuracy of the information. Corrections were done after discussing with the expert translators.

2.3.1 Validation of study instrument

Judgmental validity was achieved by the assessment of the questionnaire by two Consultant Physicians and a Nutritionist with experience of treating patients with DM. Suggested corrections on the wording of the questions were attended by the PI.

2.3.2 Pre-testing and piloting

Questionnaire was pre-tested among 10 DM patients in another hospital in Batticaloa district for acceptability, comprehension, clarity and suitability of the wordings used. Necessary modifications were done. Pilot testing was conducted in the same hospital to identify the potential problems in carrying out the study and to assess the time needed to carry out the study proper.

2.4 Data collection

IAQ was completed by trained data collector to avoid interviewer bias. Data collection was carried out by interviewing the patient and using medical records. The data collection was done on clinic day from Monday through Friday. Initially, the clinic's In-charge Nurse

recruited the case and control patients from the clinic according to the inclusion criteria and then these patients were sent to data collector for the interview. The data collector was unaware of the fact whether the patient is a case or control until the end of interview where fasting blood sugar level was assessed.

The nature of the study was explained by using information sheet and a written informed consent was obtained. None of the patients refused an interview. The information was obtained from the selected patients during their clinic waiting hours to enhance the compliance. Each interview lasted for about 30 minutes. Questions were asked in a neutral manner without any facial expressions or stressing on words.

Anthropometric measurements were also taken. Weight was measured with the participant wearing no shoes in kilogram (Kg) up to the nearest 100g19 using Seca beam scale. Height was recorded in centimeter (cm) to nearest 1cm, with participant standing barefoot, feet together, with head, shoulders, buttocks and heels touching the back of the stadiometer. Head kept looking straight parallel to the floor²⁰. BMI was calculated as BMI = weight in Kg/height in metres² (Kg/m²)¹⁹.

2.5 Statistical analysis

Data were analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 20. Odds ratio with 95% confidence interval was used to test the significance of the differences observed²¹. A probability of <0.05 was considered as statistically significant. Binary logistic regression analysis was used to control the independent and intervening variables upon another.

2.6 Ethical issues

The ethical approval was obtained from Ethic Review Committee, Faculty of Medical Sciences, University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka (ERC No: 627/12).

3. Results

A total of 339 DM patients were included (113 good glycemic control and 226 poor glycemic controls) in this study. Respondent rate was 100%. Participants were 98 (29.9%) men and 241 (71.1%) women, aged between 31 and 81 years, with mean age of 57.98 years (SD \pm 9.50) and median of 58.00 years (IQR = 13).

Among good glycemic controls, around 36% (n=41) of males had good glycemic control and they were nearly 2 times more likely to have good glycemic control than the female patients (OR 1.69, 95% CI=1.04 - 2.75). Among all good glycemic controls, about 25% (n=28) of them had physically active employment and they were nearly 2 times more likely to have good glycemic control than patients with unemployment or with physically inactive employment (95% CI=1.01 - 2.76). Patients living in rural areas were nearly 3 times more likely to have good glycemic control than those who living in an urban area (OR 2.76, 95% CI=1.73 - 4.39). The summary of the sociodemographic factors is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Glycemic control by sociodemographic factors

Socio-demographic Characteristics	Good glycemic control (n=113) n (%)	Poor glycemic control (n=226) n (%)	Unadjusted odds ratio (95% CI)	Adjusted odds ratio (95% CI)
Gender				
Male	41 (36.3)	57 (25.2)	1.69 (1.04-2.75)	1.50 (0.72-3.11)
Female	72 (63.7)	169 (74.8)		
*Age (years)				
< 60	60 (53.1)	126 (55.8)	0.89 (0.57-1.41)	-
≥60	53 (46.9)	100 (44.2)	-	
*Level of education #				
Primary	29 (25.7)	67 (29.6)	0.82 (0.49-1.36)	-
Others	84 (74.3)	159 (70.4)		
*Monthly income (Rs)				
Low (<10,000)	75 (66.4)	168 (74.3)	0.68 (0.42-1.11)	-
Middle & high (≥10,000)	38 (33.6)	58 (25.7)	, ,	
(=10,000)				Continued

Socio-demographic Characteristics	Good glycemic control (n=113) n (%)	Poor glycemic control (n=226) n (%)	Unadjusted odds ratio (95% CI)	Adjusted odds ratio (95% CI)
*Marital status\$				
Married	75 (66.4)	169 (74.8)	0.67 (0.41-1.09)	-
Other	38 (33.6)	57 (25.2)		
Employment				
Physically active	28 (24.8)	36 (15.9)	1.74 (1.00-3.03)	0.70 (0.32-1.50)
Physically inactive	85 (75.2)	190 (84.1)		
Place of residence				
Rural	68 (60.2)	80 (35.4)	2.76 (1.73-4.39)	2.08 (1.04-4.15)
Urban	45 (39.8)	146 (64.6)	•	•

^{# -} Educational level was self-reported. Primary education was defined as who had attended school up-to grade 5 or less. "Other" educational level included more than Grade 5.

3.2 Health status of the patients

The mean duration of DM was 6.46 years (SD \pm 5.45) with a median of 4.00 years (IQR = 7) among all patients. Mean duration of DM for good glycemic controls was 5.33 years (SD \pm 4.35) with a median of 4.00 years (IQR = 3.25) while poor glycemic controls had the duration of 7.03 years (SD \pm 5.86) with a median of 5.00 years (IQR =8). Among all good glycemic controls, about 81.0% (n=91) of patients had been having DM for 7 years or less and these patients were nearly 3 times more likely to have good glycemic control compared with participants who have DM for more than 7 years (95% CI=1.60-4.68).

The mean Body Mass Index (BMI) among all patients was $25.13~\text{Kg/m}^2$ (SD± 3.71) with a median of $24.84~\text{Kg/m}^2$ (IQR = 4.68) and range from 17.70 - $41.80~\text{Kg/m}^2$. The mean BMI among good glycemic controls was $22.84~\text{Kg/m}^2$ (SD±2.71) with a median of $22.49~\text{Kg/m}^2$ (IQR = 3.13) while $26.27~\text{Kg/m}^2$ (SD±3.61) with a median of $26.04~\text{Kg/m}^2$ (IQR = 4.18) was among poor glycemic controls. Majority of good glycemic control patients (85%, n=96) were within normal body weight (BMI is less than $23~\text{Kg/m}^2$) and they were 9.5~times more likely to have good glycemic control than those who were with overweight (95%~CI=5.33-17.08) (Table 2).

Table 2. Glycemic control by health status of patients

Factors	Good glycemic control (n=113) n (%)	Poor glycemic control (n=226) n (%)	Unadjusted odds ratio (95% CI)	Adjusted odds ratio (95% CI)
Duration of DM (years)				
≤7	91 (80.5)	136 (60.2)	2.74 (1.60-4.68)	0.30 (0.14-0.64)
>7	22 (19.5)	90 (39.8)		
Complication of DM				
Known	106 (93.8)	194 (85.8)	2.49 (1.07-5.85)	0.66 (0.21-2.10)
Unknown	7 (6.2)	32 (14.2)		
Body Mass Index (BMI)				
18.5 - 22.99 Kg/m ² (normal)	96 (85.0)	84 (37.2)	9.55 (5.33-17.08)	0.15 (0.07-0.31)
≥23 Kg/m² (overweight)	17 (15.0)	142 (62.8)	,	,

BMI was categorized based on WHO South East Asia BMI classification

^{§ –} Marital status of the patient was self-reported. "Other" marital status included unmarried (17 patients), Living together (1 patient), separated (6 patients), divorced (2 patients) and widowed (69 patients).

^{* -} Were not found to be the significant factors in univariate analysis. Therefore, not included in multivariate analysis

3.3 Self-management behaviors of patients

Among those who had good glycemic control, around 74% (n=83) of patients followed the dietary recommendations given by health care provider at clinic and they were nearly 4 times more likely to have good glycemic control than those who do not follow the dietary recommendations (95% CI=2.33 - 6.25).

Among good glycemic controls, majority of them (76%, n=86) were doing regular exercise and these patients were nearly 7 times more likely to have good glycemic control than those who were not doing regular exercise (OR 6.72, 95% CI=3.31-13.64) (Table 3).

3.4 Clinical details of the patients

Among good glycemic controls, almost all patients consumed prescribed medication regularly (97%, n=109). Those who had regular medication were 3.5 times more likely to have good glycemic control than those who do not consume medication regularly (95% CI=1.21-10.41).

The percentage of patients who had fixed time for the consumption of medication every day was higher among good glycemic controls than poor glycemic controls (92.7% vs. 68.6%). These patients were nearly 6 times more likely to have good glycemic control than those who do not have the fix time for drug consumption every day (95% CI=2.70-12.64).

Almost all patients (97%, n=109) had regular monthly clinic follow-up among good glycemic controls. These patients were nearly 7 times more likely to have good glycemic control than those who are not regular for the monthly clinics (95% CI=2.44-19.88) (Table 4).

3.5 Multivariate analysis of factors associated with good glycemic control

Binary logistic regression was applied to control for confounding factors and to predict the variables associated with good glycemic control. Each 1 year increase in duration of DM and each 1 unit (Kg/m²) increase in BMI was related to a 70% and 85% reduction in odds of achieving good glycemic control respectively.

Patients who live in rural area (OR=2.08, 95% CI=1.04 - 4.15), were doing regular exercise (OR= 6.72, 95% CI=3.31-13.64), having fixed time for consuming medication (OR=3.53, 95% CI=1.32-9.44) and following regular monthly follow-up (OR=5.04, 95% CI=1.28-19.89) were found to be significant factors for achieving good glycemic control in the logistic regression model.

Table 3. Glycemic control and self-management behaviors

Attitude related factors	Good glycemic control (n=113) n (%)	Poor glycemic control (n=226) n (%)	Unadjusted odds ratio (95% CI)	Adjusted odds ratio (95% CI)
Follow dietary recommendations				
of doctor/Nurse				
Yes	83 (73.5)	95 (42.0)	3.82 (2.33-6.25)	0.94 (0.47-1.90)
No	30 (26.5)	131 (58.0)		
Doing regular exercise				
Yes	86 (76.1)	57 (25.2)	9.44 (5.58-15.99)	6.72 (3.31-13.64)
No	27 (23.9)	169 (74.8)		
*Frequency of exercise/week				
among regular exercises				
≥ 3 days	84 (97.7)	43 (75.4)	13.67 (2.97-62.93)	-
< 3 days	2 (2.3)	14 (24.6)		
*Duration of exercise /day				
among regular exercises				
≥ 30 minutes	82 (95.3)	45 (78.9)	5.47 (1.66 - 17.94)	-
< 30 minutes	4 (4.7)	12(21.1)		

^{*}Were not found to be the significant factors in multivariate logistic regression model

Table 4. Glycemic control by medication and clinic follow-up related factor	Table 4.	4. Glycemic control b	ov medication and	l clinic follow-u	p related factors
---	----------	-----------------------	-------------------	-------------------	-------------------

Clinical related factors	Good glycemic control (n=113) n (%)	Poor glycemic control (n=226) n (%)	Unadjusted odds ratio (95% CI)	Adjusted odds ratio (95% CI)
Taking medication regularly				
Yes	109 (96.5)	200 (88.5)	3.54 (1.21-10.41)	7.38 (0.87-62.56)
No	4 (3.5)	26(11.5)		
Time of consumption of medica	tion			
There is a fixed time	102 (92.7)	155 (68.6)	5.84 (2.70-12.64)	3.53 (1.32-9.44)
There is no fixed time	8 (7.3)	71 (31.4)		
Regular clinic follow-up				
Every month	109 (96.5)	180 (79.6)	6.69 (2.44-19.88)	5.04 (1.28-19.89)
Not every month	4 (3.5)	46 (20.4)		
*FBS testing/monthly				
Yes	21 (18.6)	36 (15.9)	1.20 (0.67-2.18)	-
No	92 (81.4)	190 (84.1)	` ,	

^{*} Were not found to be the significant factors in univariate analysis. Therefore, were not included in multivariate

4. Discussion

This is a hospital-based study, reflecting the determinants of good glycemic control among patients with DM attending medical clinic in Sri Lankan context. In this study, it is imperative to ensure that the observed risk between the outcome and the exposure is not distorted by extraneous variables or confounders. The present study was an unmatched case control study and attempts were made in the analysis to assess the confounding factors by using binary logistic regression. Further, a form of selection bias occurs when the subject enrolled for the study differs from those who decline to participate. The selection of cases and controls from the clinic, the cooperation of medical officers and In-charge nursing officer as well as the assurance of confidentiality may have resulted in the high response rate in the present study.

Interviewer bias occurs in case control studies when the exposure status is ascertained by interviewer. In this study, many steps were incorporated in methodology to minimize the interviewer bias by training of an interviewer by the PI, recruitment of case and controls by In-charge nursing officer at clinic and the close supervision of all steps by the PI.

In the present study, male patients had good glycemic control nearly 2 times more than the female patients. Similar observations have been recorded in other countries as well^{21,22}. This could be explained that men usually take up

exercises or employments outside their homes compared to female patients. Further, the estrogen related protective mechanisms might have been affected by DM in women²³ resulting adversely on lipid profile than in men²⁴. Further, fat distribution might have greater role in distributing insulin action in women for their poor glycemic control²⁵. However, a study carried out in United States has reported that men adults with DM had significantly poorer glycemic control compared to women²⁶.

The present study has observed that good glycemic control is associated with shorter duration of DM. This finding is consistent with several studies 27, 28, 29. A recent study has stated that each one year increase in diabetes duration was related to 5% reduction in the odds of achieving good glycemic control³⁰. But in contrast, a study by Nichols et al. (2000) highlighted that shorter duration of diagnosing DM was a highly significant predictor of poor glycemic control. Achieving or maintaining good blood glucose level is difficult in patients with a longer duration of DM²⁶. Worsening of glycemic control over time could be explained by a reduction in pancreatic beta cell function and an increased fat mass, which would have led to greater insulin resistance during ageing process21. In addition, increased burden of comorbidities and drug resistance with longer duration of DM makes glycemic control more difficult. Therefore, it is essential to educate the patients on continuing to maintain good glycemic control.

The significant contribution of overweight to

glycemic control was also observed in this study population. Patients with normal body weight (BMI < 23 Kg/m²) were 9.5 times more likely to have good glycemic control than those with overweight and obesity. Similar findings were shown in other studies as well^{31,32}. Furthermore, it is found that obese patients were 2.4 times more likely to have poor glycemic control than overweight patients. Probably this could be explained by the fact that aggravation of insulin resistance as a result of increased fat mass and visceral adiposity, that affecting insulin sensitivity and causing insulin resistance³³. But, this finding was different from studies, which have reported no association between obesity/overweight and glycemic control^{34,35}.

Further, this study showed that compliance to diet and lifestyle modifications resulted in better glycemic control. In addition, it is found that primary care physician is a strongest predictor for achieving good diabetic control as a result of effective communication and encouragement³⁶. Therefore, it has been emphasized that intense education and ensuring appropriate changes in therapy would result in a significant short term and long term improvement of glycemic status enhancing diabetic care³⁷. This would help in individualizing target HbA1c levels according to patient's preference, age, social, psychological status and other risk factors²¹.

Physical activity intervention has been described as the paramount importance for blood glucose control and cardiovascular protection in patients with DM³⁸. Findings of this study, also supports this fact. Physical activity has also been emphasized as an effective cost-saving tool in the care of DM³⁹. Furthermore, a cohort prospective study had also highlighted that regular aerobic exercise predicted to lower long-term morbidity and mortality among patients with DM⁴⁰. Therefore, an emphasis should be made over the importance of reinforcing physical activity especially walking. The continuous health education has to be promoted among patients with DM.

This study has highlighted that good glycemic control is achieved with adherence to regular medication. Similarly, several previous studies have found that good compliance with medication was associated with good glycemic control^{41,42}. Health education needs to be provided to patients with poor drug compliance to improve compliance rather than changing medications or altering the dose to achieve targeted glycemic control.

Limitation: In this study, sample size of comparative study was calculated using 50% as the exposure rate among controls, in the Batticaloa district. Further, good glycemic control was determined by using FBS report rather than HbA1c level as HbA1c is not tested in the clinic, Teaching Hospital, Batticaloa.

5. Conclusions

Shorter duration of DM, living in a rural area, doing regular exercise, fixed time for consumption of medication, regular clinic follow-up and maintenance of normal body weight (BMI <23Kg/m²) were found to be the factors for good glycemic control among patients with DM. Studies on determinants for good glycemic control is lacking among the population in Sri Lanka and thus, these determinants can be used by health professionals to provide targeted interventions to achieve good glycemic control and in patients at greatest risk of diabetic complications.

6. Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank all patients who participated in this study. Also, we express our gratitude to the Nurse In-charge at the medical clinic, Teaching Hospital, Batticaloa.

Conflict of interests

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interests regarding the publication of this paper.

References

- 1. Alwan A. The WHO Eastern Mediterranean programme on diabetes prevention and control. *Bulletin of the Arab Group for Study of Diabetes* 1993; **2**: 8-40.
- Somasundaram NP et al. Diabetes Mellitus?: Glucose Control. Sri Lanka Journal of Diabetes, Endocrinology & Metabolism 2013; 3: 45-57.
- Katulanda P et al. Prevalence and projections of diabetes and pre-diabetes in adults in Sri Lanka – Sri Lanka Diabetes, Cardiovascular Study (SLDCS). *Diabetes Medicine* 2008; 25: 1062-9.
- Stettler C et al. Glycemic control and macrovascular disease in types 1 and 2 diabetes mellitus: Meta-analysis of randomized trails. Am Heart J 2006; 152(1): 27-38.
- 5. Diabetes Control and complications Trail (DCCT) Research group: the effect of intensive treatment of diabetes on the development and progression of long term complications in insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus. *N Engl J Med* 1993; **329**(14): 977-86.
- 6. Khattab M, Khader YS, Al-khawaldeh A, Ajlouni K. Factors associated with poor glycemic control among patients with type 2 diabetes. *Journal of Diabetes and ITS Complications* 2010; **24**(2): 84-89.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. National Diabetes Fact Sheet. Atlanta, GA: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services; 2007. Available at: https://scholar.google.com/scholar?q=Centers+for+Disease+ Control+and+Prevention.+National+Diabetes+Fact+

- Sheet,+2007&hl=en&as_sdt=0&as_vis=1&oi=scholart. (Accessed 20 January 2018).
- Al-Akour NA, Khader YS, Alaoui AM. Glycemic control and its determinants among patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus attending a teaching hospital. *J Diabetes Metab* 2011; 2: 4.
- Juarez DT et al. Factors associated with poor glycemic control or wide glycemic variability among diabetes patients in Hawaii, 2006-2009. Prev Chroinc Dis 2012; 9: 120065.
- Rhee JJ et al. Correlates of poor glycemic control among patients with diabetes initiating hemodialysis for end-stage renal disease. BMC Nephrol 2015; 16: 204.
- 11. Katulanda P, Rathnapala DAV, Sheriff R, Matthews DR. Province and ethnic specific prevalence of diabetes among Sri Lankan adults. *Sri Lanka Journal of Diabetes, Endocrinology and Metabolism* 2011; 1: 2-7.
- 12. Perera DP, De Silva REE, Perera WLSP. Knowledge of diabetes among type 2 diabetes patients attending a primary health care clinic in Sri Lanka. *Eastern Mediterranean Health Journal* 2013; **19**(7): 644-8.
- 13. Blaum CS, Velez L, Hiss RG, Halter JB. Characteristics related to poor glycemic control in NIDDM patients in community practice. *Diabetes Care* 1997; **20**(1): 7-11.
- 14. Ismail IS et al. Sociodemographic determinants of glycemic control in young diabetic patients in peninsular Malaysia. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* 2000; **47**(1): 57-69.
- 15. Eid M, Mafauzy M, Faridah AR. Non-achievement of clinical targets in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Med J Malaysia* 2004; **59**(2): 177-84.
- 16. Clinical practice guideline: Management of Diabetes Mellitus, Sri Lanka. Ministry of Health Care and Nutrition, 2007. Available at: http://www.slcog.lk/img/guidelines/ Other% 20national% 20Gidelines/Physicians/Book% 201/ Management% 20of% 20Diabetes% 20Mellitus.pdf (Accessed 22 August 2017).
- 17. AACE/ACE Consensus Statement, 2017. Consensus statement by the American Association of Clinical Endocrinologists and American College of Endocrinology on the comprehensive type 2 diabetes management algorithm 2017 executive summary. *Endocrine Practice* 2017; **23**(2): 207-38.
- Schlesselman JJ, Schneiderman MA. Case control studies

 design, conduct, analysis. *Journal of Occupational Medicine* 1982; 24: 879.
- 19. Weerasuriya N et al. Long-term complications in newly diagnosed Sri Lankan patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Quarterly Journal of Medicine* 1998; **91**(6): 439-43.
- Handbook for health educator staff. Nirogi Lanka Project, Sri Lanka Medical Association 2012.
- 21. Adham M, Froelicher ES, Batieha A, Ajlouni K. Glycaemic control and its associated factors in type 2 diabetic patients

- in Amman, Jordan. East Mediterr Health J 2010; **16**(7): 732-9.
- 22. de Pablos-Velasco P et al. Current level of glycaemic control and its associated factors in patients with type 2 diabetes across Europe: data from the PANORAMA study. *Clin Endocrinol* 2014; **80**(1): 47-56.
- Steinberg A, Kortelainen S, Cronin J, Crowde K. Type II diabetes abrogates sex differences in endothelial function in premenopausal women. *Circulation* 2000; 101: 2040-6.
- Juutilainen A et al. Differences in the impact of type 2 diabetes in coronary heart disease risk. *Diabetes Care* 2004; 27(12): 2898-2904.
- 25. Han TS et al. Prospective study of C-reactive protein in relation to the development of diabetes and metabolic syndrome in the Maxico city diabetes study. *Diabetes Care* 2002; **25**(11): 2016-21.
- Nichols GA, Javor K, Brown JB. Predictors of glycemic control in insulin-using adult with type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes Care* 2000; 23(3): 273-77.
- 27. United Kingdom Prospective Diabetes Study (UKPDS) Group. Intensive blood-glucose control with sulphonylureas or insulin compared with conventional treatment and risk of complications in patients with type 2 diabetes (UKPDS 33). *Lancet* 1998; **352**: 837-53.
- Chen Y et al. Glycemic Control in Chinese Patients with Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus Receiving Oral Antihyperglycemic Medication-Only or Insulin-Only Treatment: A Cross-Sectional Survey. *Diabetes Ther* 2015; 6(2): 197-211.
- 29. Valle T. Glycemic control in patients with diabetes in Finland. *Diabetes Care* 1999; **22**(4): 575-9.
- Ahmad NS, Islahudin F, Paraidathathu T. Factors associated with good glycemic control among patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus. *J Diabetes Invest* 2014; 5(5): 563-9.
- 31. Otiniano ME et al. Factors associated with poor glycemic control in older Mexican American Diabetics Aged 75 years and older. *J Diabetes Complications* 2012; **2**6(3): 181-6.
- 32. Bray GA. Obesity increases risk for diabetes. *Int J Obese Relat Metab Disord* 1992; **16**: S13-S17.
- 33. Kamuhabwa AR, Charles E. Predictors of poor glycemic control in type 2 diabetic patients attending public hospitals in Dar es Salaam. *Drug, Healthcare and Patient Safety* 2014; **6**: 155-65.
- 34. Suh DC, Kim CM, Choi IS, Plauschinat CA. Comorbid conditions and glycemic control in elderly patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus, 1988 to 1994 to 1999 to 2004. *J Am Geriatr Soc.* 2008; **56** (3): 484-92.
- Al-Nuaim AR et al. Pattern and factors associated with glycemic control of Saudi diabetic patients. *Annals of Saudi Medicine* 1998; 18(2): 109-12.
- 36. Shani M et al. Characteristics of diabetics with poor glycemic control who achieve good control. *J Am Board Fam Med.* 2008; **21**(6): 490-6.

Glycemic control and its determinants among patients with DM in the Teaching Hospital, Batticaloa

- 37. Petersen J. Effect of point-of-care on maintenance of glycemic control as measured by HbA1c. *Diabetes Care* 2007; **30**(3): 713-15.
- 38. American Diabetes Association. Standards of medical care in diabetes 2018. *Diabetes Care* 2018; **41**(1): S55-64.
- 39. Horton ES. Role and Management of Exercise in Diabetes Mellitus. *Diabetes Care* 1988; **11**(2): 201-21.
- 40. Umpierre D et al. Physical activity advice only or structured exercise training and association with HbA1c levels in type

- 2 diabetes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *JAMA* 2011; **305**(17): 1790-9.
- 41. Kassahun T, Eshetie T, Gesesew H. Factors associated with glycemic control among adult patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus: a cross-sectional survey in Ethiopia. *BMC Research Notes* 2016; **9**: 78.
- 42. Ramirez LDH et al. Factors Influencing Glycemic Control in Patients with Diabetes Type II in Mexican Patients. *J Fam Med* 2016; **3**(2): 1051.