

An evaluation of community pharmacy-based services for type 2 diabetes in an Indonesian setting: patient survey

Yosi Wibowo, Richard Parsons, Jeffery Hughes, Bruce Sunderland

Background: Diabetes is an emerging chronic disease in developing countries. Its management in developing countries is mainly hospital/clinic based. The increasing diabetes burden in developing countries provides opportunities for community pharmacists to deliver a range of services. Since the management of diabetes requires the patient's own involvement, it is important to gain their views in order to develop pharmacy-based diabetes services. Studies on diabetes patients' views have been limited to developed countries. **Objectives:** To investigate, within a developing country setting (Indonesia), current use of pharmacy services by type 2 diabetes patients; and to evaluate their views regarding community pharmacists' roles, and the characteristics that influence their views. **Methods:** A questionnaire survey was conducted within 10 purposefully selected community pharmacies in Surabaya, Indonesia. Each pharmacy recruited approximately 20 patients seeking antidiabetic medications. Usage of pharmacy services was identified using binary responses ('yes'/'no') and views on pharmacists' roles were rated using Likert scales; an open-ended question was used to identify priority roles. Logistic regression models were used to determine characteristics associated with patients' views. Results: A total of 196 pharmacy patients with type 2 diabetes responded. Most patients used community pharmacies for dispensing (100%) and education on how to use medications (79.6%). There were mixed views towards pharmacists providing services beyond dispensing. The highest priorities identified were from the 'patient education' domain: education on medications [i.e. directions for use (64.5%), storage (26.6%), common/important adverse effects (25.5%)]; and the 'monitoring' domain: monitoring medication compliance (37.3%). Patients with higher incomes or who were working were less supportive of these expanded services; whereas patients who previously used a service, those with risk factors for complications or having poor/unknown glycaemic control were more supportive. **Conclusions:** Community pharmacies in Surabaya, Indonesia in this study were mainly utilised for dispensing. However, many type 2 diabetes patients using these pharmacies report limited monitoring of blood glucose levels and poor glycaemic control, which indicates an opportunity for greater pharmacist involvement. Yet for this to occur, patients' limited expectations of pharmacists roles will need to be

broadened. Characteristics influencing these views should inform the development of pharmacy-based diabetes services in the environment of the burgeoning burden of diabetes.

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6 Abstract

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39

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57

58

59 **Introduction**

60 Indonesia is a major developing country with a population of 237.6 million [1], and is among the

61 top 10 countries in the world according to number of people with diabetes [2]. In 2013, it was

62 estimated that 8.5 million people in Indonesia were living with diabetes, and this number is

63 expected to increase to 14.1 million by 2035 [2]. Diabetes in Indonesia is currently managed in

64 hospital outpatient or clinic settings [3,4]. An increased number of people with diabetes will

65 require more community-based care, providing an opportunity for community pharmacists to

66 deliver a range of diabetes services.

67

68 Based on the 2012 Indonesia Health Profile, there is a total of 17,613 pharmacies [5], mainly
69 community-based. Community pharmacies in Indonesia are privately owned and currently have
70 limited roles within Government insurance plans [6]. The inclusion of pharmaceutical care in the
71 Indonesian Government standards in 2006 has emphasised the need for community pharmacists
72 to be involved in the care of patients with chronic diseases, including diabetes [7]. A previous
73 study involved a survey of community pharmacists in Surabaya, Indonesia reported community
74 pharmacists' willingness to take up a broader role in diabetes care [8]. Since diabetes is a chronic
75 disease that requires daily care in the hands of patients [9], it is important to explore the
76 perspectives of diabetes patients on pharmacy-based services that would assist with their care.

77

78 International studies have been conducted to investigate patient views regarding aspects of
79 community pharmacists' roles, and some of these studies have included diabetic patients.
80 However, it should be emphasised that studies involving diabetes patients have thus far been
81 limited to developed countries, such as the UK and the USA [10-14]. This study aims to assess
82 the views of patients with diabetes to inform the development of pharmacy-based diabetes
83 services in a developing country setting (Indonesia). Two previous small studies conducted in
84 community pharmacies in Indonesia have found that the majority of general patients had positive
85 perceptions of pharmacy services, providing a basis for pharmacists to develop their professional
86 roles [15, 16]. This study aims to investigate the current use of community pharmacy services by
87 patients with type 2 diabetes within an Indonesian setting; and to evaluate their views on the
88 roles of community pharmacists, and the characteristics that influence their views.

89

90

91 **Methods**

92 This study was approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee of Curtin University (PH-
93 09-11) and *Ikatan Apoteker Indonesia* – IAI (Indonesian Pharmacists Association)
94 (001/SK/BPD-IAI/SURABAYA/2010).

95

96 **Setting and sample recruitment**

97 The aims of the study included the estimation of the prevalence of service usage and patient
98 views. A total sample size of 200 was selected as this would lead to estimates which were
99 moderately precise. Assuming that the sample is broadly representative of the population of
100 pharmacy patients with type 2 diabetes in Surabaya, the 95% confidence intervals for the true
101 prevalence estimates would be within 7% of the figures obtained from the sample (based on a
102 prevalence estimate of 50%). For the analysis of factors associated with their views, a sample of
103 200 would be expected to be adequate to identify any independent variables exhibiting a
104 moderate to small effect size (with power=80%, $\alpha=0.05$) [17].

105

106 Community pharmacies were used as sampling points to obtain access to pharmacy patients with
107 type 2 diabetes in Surabaya, Indonesia. Ten community pharmacies were purposefully selected
108 from community pharmacies involved in a recent pharmacist survey [8], to include different
109 geographical areas and socio-economic levels in Surabaya. Surabaya consists of 31 sub-districts
110 which can be categorised into five geographical areas, namely: centre, west, east, north and
111 south; and four socio-economic levels, from high (labelled '1') to low (labelled '4') [18]. Each

112 pharmacy was responsible for recruiting approximately 20 patients. Patients eligible for the
113 survey were those aged over 18 years, with a diagnosis of type 2 diabetes for which they were
114 receiving oral antidiabetic medications. Patients were recruited as they were seeking oral
115 antidiabetic medications at these pharmacies, and their written consent was obtained.

116

117 **Data Collection**

118 **Questionnaire development.** The survey questionnaire consisted of four sections: (A) patient
119 demographics, (B) services for type 2 diabetes patients – use of services and views on
120 pharmacists' roles, (C) diabetes profile, and (D) monitoring profile. The questionnaire cover
121 page contained information about the study and a consent form. Section B of the questionnaire
122 contained a list of services for type 2 diabetes patients that was drafted based on a generic model
123 generated from the literature [9, 19-21]. A binary choice question was used to capture patient
124 usage of each service ('yes'/'no'), and a 6-point Likert scale was used to reflect patient views on
125 pharmacists' roles (1=definitely no, 6=definitely yes). This was followed by an open-ended
126 question to explore patient priorities regarding their views of pharmacist roles: *'In your opinion,*
127 *what are the five most important services that should be provided at pharmacies to assist you*
128 *with your diabetes?'* The questionnaire was face and content validated by a panel of seven
129 academics, two board members of the IAI, two Indonesian community pharmacists and two
130 diabetes patients. Their feedback, where appropriate, was incorporated into the questionnaire.

131

132 The questionnaire (English version) then went through a translation process to an Indonesian
133 version: (i) forward translation to Bahasa Indonesia by one of the investigators whose first
134 language is Bahasa Indonesia; (ii) back-translation to English by an independent English first-

135 language translator; and (iii) the back-translation was compared to the original version by two of
136 the investigators whose first language was English. The forward-translation questionnaire was
137 piloted by 10 type 2 diabetes patients. This resulted in minor changes to the final questionnaire.
138 To assess reliability, the questionnaire was distributed on two occasions separated by a two-week
139 interval; the resulting Kappa scores for diabetes services (Section B) ranged from 0.412 to 1.000,
140 which were classified as ‘acceptable’ to ‘excellent’ levels of test-retest reliability [22].

141

142 **Questionnaire administration.** Owners of the 10 selected pharmacies were approached. In the
143 case of refusal, that pharmacy was replaced with another pharmacy in the same geographical
144 area and socio-economic level (Table 1). At each pharmacy, the pharmacist and/or pharmacy
145 staff member was briefed about the study and how to complete the questionnaire. Eligible
146 patients were invited to participate, and each pharmacy aimed to recruit approximately 20
147 patients. Once completed, the questionnaire was placed in a sealed envelope by the respondent
148 and submitted to the pharmacist/pharmacy staff. The questionnaires were then handed to the
149 investigators by the agreed deadline.

150

151 **Data Analysis**

152 Descriptive statistics were used to summarise the patient characteristics: demographics (Section
153 A), diabetes profile (Section C), and monitoring profile (Section D). SPSS version 19.0 was used
154 to perform the analysis.

155

156 In relation to diabetes services (Section B), frequencies were calculated for binary responses
157 (‘yes’/‘no’) related to the patient usage of services and for responses from Likert scales related to

158 the extent of patient agreement regarding pharmacists' roles. Moreover, content analysis was
159 used for responses from the open-ended question to explore patient views on the five priority
160 services at the pharmacies. These responses were coded, and frequencies were calculated.

161

162 Logistic regression models were employed to identify patient characteristics associated with
163 patients' views of pharmacists' roles. Responses regarding patients' views for each type of
164 service were classified into binary variables, to indicate 'agreement' (Likert scale ratings of 5 to
165 6) versus 'disagreement' (Likert scale ratings of 1 to 4), and were used as the dependent
166 variables. Some of the activities were grouped together if they related to the same theme for
167 which a mean rating was calculated, and converted into a binary variable as above. Patient
168 characteristics included as independent variables were gender, age, education, employment,
169 income, health insurance cover, diabetes organisation membership, duration of diabetes (time
170 since diagnosis), risk factors for complications, complications and diabetes (glycaemic) control.
171 The models also included an independent variable indicating patients' previous use of the service
172 (binary responses: 'yes'/'no'). The responses were grouped in a similar way to the dependent
173 variables for which a mean value was calculated. To calculate the mean, a 'no' response was
174 classified as '0', and a 'yes' was classified as '1'; the mean was treated as a continuous variable.
175 A backward elimination strategy was used to identify all the variables which significantly
176 contributed to each model. Through this approach all independent variables were included
177 initially, and then the least significant variable was dropped (one at a time) until the p-value
178 associated with each of the variables remaining in the model was less than 0.05.

179

180

181 **Results**

182

183 **Sample recruitment**

184 This study included 10 community pharmacies as sampling points after approaching 11
185 community pharmacies in Surabaya. One pharmacy refused, as the employee pharmacist was
186 planning to resign and they were in the process of recruiting a new one. From the final 10
187 pharmacies, a total of 204 patients were recruited; however, eight patients reported the use of
188 insulin at the beginning of their therapies and were deemed to have type 1 diabetes, leaving a
189 sample size of 196 (Table 1).

190

191 [Insert Table 1 here]

192

193 **Characteristics of pharmacy patients with type 2 diabetes**

194 The demographic information of participating patients (Section A) is summarised in Table 2.
195 Approximately 60% of respondents were female and half of respondents were aged 60 years or
196 older. Approximately half of the respondents did not have health insurance plans.

197

198 [Insert Table 2 here]

199

200 The diabetes data reported by participating patients (Section C) are shown in Table 3. The
201 median duration of diabetes (time since diagnosis) was seven years. More than 80% of
202 respondents reported that their treatment regimen included oral antidiabetic medications and diet
203 modifications. It is important to note that this variable did not measure whether the doctor made

204 the medication/diet/exercise recommendations, but rather whether the patient remembered and/or
205 reported it. Almost 60% of the respondents reported having at least one diabetes-related
206 complication, and most of the patients reported having at least one risk factor for complications.

207

208 [insert Table 3 here]

209

210 Table 4 shows the monitoring profile reported by participating patients (Section D). To provide
211 insight to patients' diabetes (glycaemic) control, variables related to the symptoms of
212 hypo/hyperglycaemia and HbA1c values were combined to indicate: fair-good control (i.e. no
213 symptoms and HbA1c \leq 8.0%); poor control (i.e. presence of symptoms and/or HbA1c $>$ 8.0%);
214 and unknown (i.e. symptoms 'none/don't know' and/or HbA1c values 'none/don't know'). Using
215 this derived variable, most respondents were perceived to have either poor diabetes control
216 (45.9%) or unknown diabetes control (42.3%).

217

218 [insert Table 4 here]

219

220 **Patients' use of pharmacy services and their views on pharmacist roles**

221 Responses describing patient usage of pharmacy services are summarised in Table 5. In addition
222 to the traditional role of dispensing ('treatment administration'), the most frequent services
223 received were 'patient education' about medications, particularly directions for use (79.6%) and
224 special precautions to follow (71.9%).

225

226 Table 5 also shows responses regarding pharmacists' roles. All patients agreed with pharmacists'
227 roles in dispensing. Beyond dispensing, more than 70% of respondents expected pharmacists to
228 provide 'patient education' about medications. About half of respondents supported other
229 activities related to 'patient education' and 'monitoring'.

230

231 [insert Table 5 here]

232

233 In terms of the priority roles of pharmacists, patients' responses can be seen in Table 6. The top
234 five services perceived as priorities by patients (in addition to pharmacists' traditional roles of
235 dispensing) were from the 'patient education' domain – education related to medications [i.e.
236 directions for use (64.5%), common/important adverse effects (25.5%), storage requirements
237 (26.6%)] and the 'monitoring' domain – monitoring compliance with medications (37.3%). No
238 new services were raised from this open-ended question.

239

240 [insert Table 6 here]

241

242 **Characteristics associated with patients' views on pharmacist roles**

243 Logistic regression models were used to identify patient characteristics which were associated
244 with patients' views on pharmacists' roles. The odds ratios of significant characteristics are
245 summarised in Table 7.

246

247 [insert Table 7 here]

248

249 Patient experience (previous use) with a service was strongly associated with their views that the
250 service should be provided by pharmacists [Odds Ratios (ORs) 4.4 to 11.3]. Patients with
251 poor/unknown glycaemic control or those who had risk factors for complications were more
252 supportive of pharmacists providing some monitoring services (ORs 2.3 to 10.2). On the other
253 hand, patients with higher incomes or those who were working were less supportive towards
254 pharmacists providing some education and monitoring services (ORs 0.3).

255

256

257 **Discussion**

258 This study has found most type 2 diabetes patients recruited had complications and/or risk
259 factors for complications, and/or had poor/unknown glycaemic control. It is evident that in the
260 current hospital outpatient/clinic treatment model many patients were poorly monitored. This is
261 consistent with a population study of type 2 diabetes patients in Indonesia which reported that
262 81% of type 2 diabetes patients had not achieved good glycaemic control (HbA1c <6.5%), and
263 approximately 60% of the patients had complications and/or risk factors for complications (i.e.
264 dyslipidaemia and/or hypertension) [3].

265

266 Moreover, this study reported that follow-up care tended to be inadequate, with only about one-
267 third of respondents reporting annual HbA1c monitoring and eye or foot examinations.
268 Supporting this finding, the Patient and Health Provider Survey in Indonesia (2012) indicated
269 that the majority of patients had not received foot or eye examinations within the past year, only
270 30% had had their HbA1c checked and many had expressed a wish to see health care providers
271 more often [23]. It was suggested that this poor quality of care and patient outcomes might relate

272 to the lack of awareness of, accessibility to and affordability of diabetes care for this patient
273 group [23]. This finding provides a basis for community pharmacists to provide a range of
274 services.

275

276 **Patients' use of pharmacy services and their views on pharmacist roles**

277 This study indicated little involvement of Indonesian community pharmacies in the care of
278 patients with type 2 diabetes. Respondents mostly utilised pharmacists for their supply role
279 (dispensing). A previous Indonesian study has confirmed the limited services provided to general
280 pharmacy patients [15].

281

282 Amongst non-supply roles, many respondents chose roles closely related to dispensing as the
283 priority roles of pharmacists, i.e. education related to medications, and monitoring compliance
284 with medications. Similar findings were evident from some international studies involved
285 diabetes patients [10-14]. Two qualitative studies indicated that patients identified the primary
286 expertise of the community pharmacist as medicines supply, and there were mixed perceptions of
287 community pharmacists' roles extending to advising on prescription medicines, providing
288 disease-related/health advice or providing monitoring services (using clinical testing devices)
289 [14, 24].

290

291 **Characteristics associated with patients' views on pharmacist roles**

292 The logistic regression models consistently found that a patient's support for a service was
293 influenced by their experience (previous use) of the service (Odds Ratios, ORs ≥ 4.4). Supporting
294 this finding, studies worldwide have shown that type 2 diabetes patients have increased

295 perceptions of pharmacists' ability to assist them after receiving pharmacy-based services [25-
296 29]. It should be emphasised that most patients in this study (at that time) received limited
297 services from community pharmacies, thus they might not be aware of what pharmacists should
298 and could do.

299

300 The implementation of *Jaminan Kesehatan Nasional* - JKN (National Health Coverage) in 2014
301 provides the best opportunity to optimise the use of Indonesian community pharmacies. It is
302 important for the Government and IAI to establish an agreement on the basic services that should
303 be available in community pharmacies. While the current payment under the scheme includes a
304 very low prescription fee [30], the IAI should negotiate adequate remuneration for pharmacists to
305 provide the services, thus enabling community pharmacies to remain viable.

306

307 In addition to patients' past experiences, patients who were working and/or had higher incomes
308 were generally less supportive of some of the proposed education or monitoring services (ORs
309 ≤ 0.5). This might be because these groups of patients were likely to be younger (mean age 63.7
310 years for non-workers versus 54.0 years for workers, $p < 0.0001$; and mean age 60.4 years for
311 income \leq Rp 5 million versus 58.6 years for income $>$ Rp 5 million, $p = 0.358$). Two previous
312 studies have reported that older patients, or those living with diabetes for a long time, were more
313 supportive of pharmacists' contributions [14, 31]. It has been suggested that elderly people are
314 one of the groups whose need for additional advice on medications and other related services has
315 been demonstrated [32].

316

317 Notably, patients who had risk factors for complications and/or had poor/unknown glycaemic
318 control were much more supportive of pharmacists monitoring treatment outcomes or adverse
319 drug reactions (ORs ≥ 2.3). Such patients might reflect those with lower health status,
320 representing a target group who might be more motivated and responsive to pharmacists'
321 involvement. It has been suggested that patients who benefit most from pharmacist-led
322 education/coaching and disease state management services include those with poor glycaemic
323 control and multiple comorbidities [33]. It is evident that overall treatment outcomes in this
324 patient cohort are concerning and expanding the community pharmacy role into patient
325 management needs to be investigated.

326

327 **Limitations**

328 The stratified sampling method used in the study (20 patients from each of 10 pharmacies) was
329 considered the only feasible manner by which it could be conducted. No full list of pharmacy
330 patients with diabetes exists in Surabaya, so it was not possible to obtain a truly random sample
331 of patients with this condition. However, the pharmacies covered a wide range of settings
332 (geographic and socioeconomic), so that no particular group of patients would be excluded. The
333 characteristics of the respondents in this study were comparable with respect to age, gender and
334 duration of diabetes to those of a population study involving all type 2 diabetes patients visiting
335 18 medical centres across Indonesia between November 2008 and February 2009 (N=1785) [3].
336 Hence, although the sample is not truly random, the views of participants give some insight into
337 the diabetes services used or desired at community pharmacies in Surabaya.

338

339 **Conclusions**

340 Community pharmacies in Surabaya, Indonesia in this study are mainly utilised for their basic
341 services of dispensing. Many type 2 diabetes patients in these pharmacies reported limited
342 monitoring of blood glucose and poor glycaemic control; in addition, their follow-up care and
343 health outcomes were generally poor. These findings indicate a need and opportunities for
344 community pharmacists to provide a range of services for patients with diabetes. Hence,
345 strategies should be developed to broaden current pharmacy patients' limited views of
346 pharmacists' roles which are mainly perceived as extensions to the supply roles. It is evident that
347 patients support the provision of services once they have been provided. Patient characteristics
348 that influence these views provide a target group for implementation of a pharmacy-based
349 diabetes service that should be evaluated. This can provide a partial solution in the environment
350 of a burgeoning burden of diabetes in Indonesia.

351

352

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456 Table 1 Patient recruitment data from 10 community pharmacies

457

Pharmacy code	Geographical area	Socio-economic level	Average number of diabetes patients per month	Number of diabetes patients recruited
Pharmacy 1	East Surabaya	2	150	21
Pharmacy 2	Central Surabaya	1	200	18
Pharmacy 3	East Surabaya	3	70	20
Pharmacy 4	West Surabaya	4	100	19
Pharmacy 5	South Surabaya	3	140	20
Pharmacy 6	Central Surabaya	2	100	20
Pharmacy 7	South Surabaya	4	100	20
Pharmacy 8	North Surabaya	1	240	19
Pharmacy 9	West Surabaya	3	120	20
Pharmacy 10	North Surabaya	2	100	19
Total				196

458

459

460

462 Table 2 Demographic data of patient respondents (N=196)

463

Patient demographics	Frequency (%)
<i>Gender</i>	
Male	80 (40.8)
Female	116 (59.2)
<i>Age, years – median (range)</i>	
	60.0 (32–86)
<i>Ethnicity</i>	
Asian	196 (100.0)
Others	0 (0.0)
<i>Highest Education</i>	
No schooling	6 (3.1)
Primary school	23 (11.7)
Junior high school	41 (20.9)
Senior high school	71 (36.2)
Diploma	18 (9.2)
Bachelor degree	25 (12.8)
Postgraduate degree	12 (6.1)
<i>Employment status</i>	
Working full-time (≥40 hours/week)	53 (27.0)
Working part-time (<40 hours/week)	20 (10.2)
Not working	123 (62.8)
<i>Total household income (from all sources) per month^a</i>	
≤Rp 2 million	103 (52.6)
>Rp 2 million – 5 million	54 (27.6)
>Rp 5 million – 10 million	25 (12.8)
>Rp 10 million	12 (6.1)
<i>Health insurance</i>	
Self-sponsored insurance	31 (15.8)
Employer-sponsored insurance	56 (28.6)
Insurance scheme for the poor/near poor	9 (4.6)
No insurance	100 (51.0)
<i>Member of a diabetes organisation</i>	
Yes	74 (37.8)
No	122 (62.2)

464 Abbreviations: Rp, Indonesian rupiah
465 * 2 missing responses

467 Table 3 Self-reported diabetes and health profile of patient respondents (N=196)

468

Patient diabetes profile	Frequency (%) of 'yes'
<i>Duration of diabetes, years – median (range)^a</i>	7 (1 – 42)
<i>Current diabetes treatment</i>	
Modifying diet	173 (88.3)
Exercise programme	123 (62.8)
Oral Antidiabetic Medication	189 (96.4)
Insulin	44 (22.4)
<i>Risk factors^c</i>	
BMI ≥ 25 kg/m ^{2b}	88 (44.9)
(History of) smoking	41 (20.9)
High cholesterol ^d	77 (39.5)
High blood pressure ^e	104 (53.6)
<i>Complications^c</i>	
Heart disease	34 (17.3)
Eye problems	52 (26.5)
Foot discomfort	81 (41.3)
Foot ulcers	14 (7.1)
Kidney problems	16 (8.2)

469 ^aSome missing responses470 ^bBMI, body mass index = weight (kg) divided by height² (m²); some missing responses471 ^cRespondents responded 'yes' for at least one complication/risk factor472 ^dRespondents responded 'yes', either for "Do you have high cholesterol?" or "Do you take medications to treat your high cholesterol?", or for

473 both

474 ^eRespondents responded 'yes', either for "Do you have high blood pressure?" or "Do you take medications to treat your high blood pressure?",

475 or for both

477 Table 4 Self-reported monitoring profile of patient respondents (N=195)^a

478

Patient monitoring	Frequency (%) of 'yes'
Diabetes (glycaemic) control	
<i>High blood sugar reactions (in the last month)</i>	56 (28.7)
<i>Low blood sugar reactions (in the last month)</i>	43 (22.1)
<i>Severe blood sugar reactions (in the last year)</i>	26 (13.3)
<i>HbA1c last value</i>	53 (27.0) ^b
<6.5%	18
6.5–8%	27
>8%	8
Routine tests	
<i>SMBG (in the last week)</i>	74 (37.9)
<i>Medical monitoring (in the last 3 months)</i>	
Blood sugar	167 (86.1)
Blood pressure	166 (85.1)
Weight	124 (63.9)
<i>HbA1c measurement (in the last year)</i>	65 (33.3)
<i>Medical monitoring (in the last year)</i>	
Cholesterol	127 (65.1)
Kidney	84 (43.1)
Eyes	48 (23.2)
Feet	41 (21.0)

479 Abbreviations: SMBG, self-monitoring of blood glucose; HbA1c, glycosylated haemoglobin

480 ^a1 missing response481 ^bnumber of respondents reported their HbA1c last value

483 Table 5 Patients' use of community pharmacy services and their views on pharmacists' roles
 484 (N=196)

Services	Being used N (%)	Being viewed as pharmacist roles ^a N (%)
Treatment administration		
Prepare medications	196 (100)	195 (100)
Provide labels with instructions for use	196 (100)	195 (100)
Patient education		
Disease process	93 (47.4)	120 (61.5)
Treatment targets	79 (40.3)	115 (59.0)
Antidiabetic medications:		
Directions for use	156 (79.6)	160 (82.1)
Use of insulin devices ^b	27 (61.4)	142 (72.7)
Storage requirements	93 (47.4)	144 (73.9)
Special precautions to follow	141 (71.9)	155 (79.5)
Common/important adverse effects	87 (44.4)	139 (71.3)
Exercise	66 (33.7)	96 (49.2)
Diet	84 (42.9)	101 (51.8)
SMBG	63 (32.1)	107 (54.9)
Prevention/treatment of acute complications	67 (34.2)	126 (64.6)
Prevention/treatment of chronic complications	45 (23.0)	116 (59.5)
Need for regular medical monitoring	48 (24.5)	97 (49.8)
Foot self-care	35 (17.9)	95 (48.7)
Smoking cessation ^c	12 (29.3)	72 (36.7)
Monitoring		
Monitor compliance with:		
Antidiabetic medications	100 (51.0)	127 (65.1)
Exercise plan	62 (31.6)	102 (52.3)
Diet plan	78 (39.8)	109 (55.9)
Plan for prevention/treatment of chronic complications	44 (22.4)	92 (47.2)
Scheduled medical monitoring	38 (19.4)	96 (49.3)
Monitor treatment outcomes:		
Check records on SMBG	58 (29.6)	101 (51.8)
Carry out blood glucose tests	58 (29.6)	113 (58.0)
Measure BMI	40 (20.4)	89 (45.6)
Measure blood pressure	55 (28.1)	103 (52.8)
Check results on patient laboratory tests	51 (26.0)	98 (50.3)
Monitor for adverse effects	63 (32.1)	110 (56.4)
Review		

Refer patients if necessary	69 (35.2)	110 (56.5)
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485 Abbreviations: SMBG, self-monitoring of blood glucose; BMI, body mass index

486 ^a1 missing response

487 ^bThe percentage was calculated for patients currently/previously taking insulin (N=44)

488 ^cThe percentage was calculated for patients currently (or had a history of) smoking (N=41)

490 Table 6 Patients' open-ended views on priority roles of pharmacists in diabetes care (N=169)^a
 491

Priority services ^b	Number of responses (%)
Treatment administration	
Prepare medications	35 (20.7)
Provide labels with instructions for use	66 (39.1)
Patient education	
Disease process	27 (16.0)
Antidiabetic medications:	
Directions for use	109 (64.5)
Use of insulin devices	15 (8.9)
Storage requirements	45 (26.6)
Special precautions to follow	37 (18.9)
Common/important adverse effects	50 (25.5)
Exercise	27 (13.8)
Diet	33 (16.8)
Prevention/treatment of acute complications	27 (16.0)
Prevention/treatment of chronic complications	20 (11.8)
Monitoring	
Monitor compliance with:	
Antidiabetic medications	63 (37.3)
Monitor treatment outcomes:	
Carry out blood glucose tests	30 (17.8)
Measure blood pressure	25 (14.8)
Monitor for adverse effects	23 (13.6)
Others (not a specific service)	
Provide a complete range of medications	12 (7.1)
Information about medications	16 (9.5)

492 Responses to an open-ended question: "In your opinion, what are the five most important services that should be provided at pharmacies to assist
 493 you with your diabetes?"

494 ^aFrom a total 196 respondents, there were 26 missing responses and 1 invalid response, giving a total N=169

495 ^bServices selected by more than 10 respondents

496 Table 7 Odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals of significant characteristics associated with support for ‘patient education’ and
 497 ‘monitoring’ by pharmacists

	Patient education by pharmacists				Monitoring by pharmacists			
	Medications ^a	Exercise	Diet	All education ^b	Compliance ^c	Treatment outcomes		Adverse drug reaction
						Perform clinical testings ^d	Check test results ^e	
<i>Income</i>								
Low	reference	reference	reference	reference	reference			reference
Moderate	NS	0.4 (0.17-0.90)	NS	NS	NS			NS
High	0.3 (0.10-0.72)	0.3 (0.10-0.80)	0.3 (0.12-0.61)	0.3 (0.10-0.68)	0.3 (0.10-0.72)			0.2 (0.09-0.53)
<i>Employment</i>								
Not working		reference		reference	reference	reference	reference	
Working		0.3 (0.15-0.83)		0.5 (0.24-0.94)	0.4 (0.21-0.88)	0.5 (0.24-0.97)	0.3 (0.15-0.74)	
<i>Risk factors</i>								
No								reference
Yes								3.4 (1.46-8.03)
<i>Diabetes (glycaemic) control^f</i>								
Good/fair						reference	reference	reference
Poor						NS	4.9 (1.20-20.55)	3.2 (1.05-9.97)
Unknown						2.3 (1.22-4.51)	10.2 (2.44-42.95)	4.3 (1.36-13.57)
<i>Previous use of the service</i>								
No	reference	reference	reference	reference	reference	reference	reference	reference
Yes	4.5 (1.79-11.53)	10.3 (4.6-23.15)	4.4 (2.30-8.30)	4.5 (1.60-12.51)	5.2 (1.79-11.52)	13.6 (5.21-35.51)	11.3 (4.51-28.13)	6.3 (2.82-13.90)

498 ^aA composite variable – education related to antidiabetic medications: directions for use, use of insulin devices (calculated only from those currently/previ-
 499 precautions and common/important adverse effects; a mean rating ≥ 5 was used

500 ^bA composite variable – all education: disease process, treatment targets, antidiabetic medications, exercise, diet, self-monitoring of blood glucose, prevention/treatment of acute complications,
 501 prevention/treatment of chronic complications, need for regular monitoring, foot self-care and smoking cessation (calculated only from those currently, or had a history of, smoking); a mean rating ≥ 5
 502 was used

503 ^cA composite variable – monitoring compliance with: antidiabetic medications, exercise and diet plan, plan for prevention/treatment of complications and scheduled medical monitoring; a mean rating
 504 ≥ 5 was used

505 ^dA composite variable – perform clinical testings (measuring blood glucose, blood pressure and BMI); a mean rating ≥ 5 was used

506 ^eA composite variable – check test results (patient self-monitoring records and laboratory data); a mean rating ≥ 5 was used

507 ^fDiabetes (glycaemic) control is a composite variable of hyper/hypoglycaemia symptoms and HbA1c values

508 NS = not significantly different from the reference

509

510