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# **BMJ Open**

# The COVID-19 Hinterland: How the pandemic has affected chronic diabetes management in the United States

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# ABSTRACT

Objective: This is first study of its kind to measure how, and to what extent, the pandemic has affected diabetes management in Americans with or without COVID-19. Research Design and Methods: We conducted a cross-sectional investigation using data from the real-world, population-based iNPHORM study. Participants 18-90 years old, living in the US, diagnosed with type 1 or 2 diabetes, taking insulin and/or secretagogues were recruited from online panels of the general public. We examined the impact of the COVID-19 situation on socio-economic, behavioural/clinical, and psychosocial aspects of glycemic management. Results: Data from 667 respondents (type 1 diabetes: 18%; type 2 diabetes: 82%) were analyzed. Almost 25% reported A1C values ≥8.1%. Rates of severe and non-severe hypoglycemia were 0.68 (95%CI: 0.5-0.96) and 2.75 (95%CI: 2.4-3.1) events perperson month, respectively. Ten respondents reported a confirmed or probable COVID-19 diagnosis. Because of the pandemic, 20-28% of respondents experienced difficulties affording housing, sufficient food to avoid hypoglycemia, and diabetes therapies/testing strips. Over one-quarter reported issues retrieving antihyperglycemics from the

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pharmacy and over one-third reported challenges consulting with diabetes providers. The pandemic contributed to the rapeutic non-adherence (14%), drug rationing (17%), and reduced monitoring (16%). Many struggled to keep track, and in control, of hypoglycemia (12-15%) and lacked social support to help manage their risk (19%). Nearly half reported decreased physical activity. Few differences emerged by diabetes type. Conclusions: The results of this study can inform decisive action to re-stabilize routine diabetes management amidst the pandemic, helping to protect the health of America's eliezoniz vulnerable populations.

Strengths and limitations of this study

This is the first and most comprehensive investigation to quantify the impact of •

the COVID-19 situation on the socio-economic, behavioural/clinical, and

psychosocial aspects of glycemic management in US outpatient communities.

 We developed a novel pandemic-specific questionnaire that was administered online to a large, real-world cohort of Americans with type 1 and type 2 diabetes taking insulin and/or secretagogues.

• Estimates presented in our study may be conservative as they describe the early

phase of the pandemic.

COVID-19 is among the most devastating health crises in American history. The first reported infection in the United States (US) occurred on January 19<sup>th</sup>, 2020 (1). Since then, the number of confirmed US-cases has surpassed 22.4 million, including over 374,000 deaths (2).

People with diabetes (PWD) have been identified as clinically vulnerable to COVID-19.

In the US, diabetes ranks as the second most common underlying health condition

among all cases and has been connected to more severe infection (3,4). However, less

appreciated in the literature are the disruptions caused by the pandemic on routine

diabetes care. These disruptions expose not only those with COVID-19, but all 34+

million Americans with diabetes to poor outcomes. Understanding how the pandemic

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affects diabetes services and management is crucial to informing short- and long-term clinical decision-making and public health planning. Targeted measures to help protect these Americans from the direct and indirect effects of the COVID-19 pandemic should be a top priority for all healthcare and government officials. The complex hinterland of COVID-19 and diabetes

The pathophysiological benefits of glycemic control on diabetes outcomes have been well-established. Numerous studies have linked chronic hyperglycemia and glycemic variability to increased risks of micro- and macro-vascular complications and mortality. In addition, dysglycemia can potentiate immunosuppression (5), increasing viral susceptibility and risk of poor clinical outcomes (6). While the role of coexistent diabetes in the pathogenesis of COVID-19 is still being determined (7), emerging signals suggest that euglycemia protects against infection and severity of prognoses (8,9). These data are consistent with evidence from other viral infections where glucose control showed to augment host immune response (5,10).

To mitigate COVID-19 risks, several national and international organizations have published diabetes pandemic guides, urging PWD to maintain scrupulous adherence to all self-management and public health recommendations (7,8). Notably, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) (11) has recommended maintaining at least a 30-day supply of medication and 2-week supply of food. The American Diabetes Association (ADA) (12) has advised storing blood glucose (BG) emergency supplies (i.e., glucagon and ketone strips). And the International Diabetes Federation (13) has encouraged healthy nutrition and regular monitoring to help avoid the complications of high and low BG. However, the COVID-19 situation has created a challenging terrain for effective glycemic management (14). Amid pressures to flatten the pandemic curve, patients and clinicians may divert focus and resources away from diabetes management, resulting in compromised care (8). Moreover, home guarantine, physical distancing, and community containment—while enacted to ensure the safety of Americans—can erode chronic disease services and make it increasingly difficult for PWD to access medical supplies

and engage in optimal self-management behaviour (e.g., healthy eating and physical

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activity) (15). Previous outbreaks have also been associated with inadequate diabetes monitoring and barriers to accessing healthcare, medications, and testing supplies (4,8). Such disruptions to routine care can lead to worse glycemic outcomes during and after the event (16,17). Yet, to date, most diabetes-related COVID-19 studies have focused exclusively on the epidemiology of hospitalized cases (18,19) and failed to consider how outpatient chronic diabetes management has suffered in the face of the pandemic. The lack of real-world evidence on the situational effects of COVID-19 bodes ill for the implementation of effective outbreak strategies that support Americans with diabetes. As the pandemic persists into the foreseeable future, the need to address this gap only intensifies. The present investigation aims to chart the complex hinterland of COVID-19 as it intersects with America's other deadly pandemic: Diabetes. We measured how, and the extent to which, the COVID-19 situation has affected glycemic management in the general US population with type 1 and 2 diabetes. The results of this study will be instructive for handling chronic disease management both during the current public health emergency and in future.

# **RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS**

We conducted a cross-sectional investigation of data collected from the real-world,

population-based iNPHORM Study (Investigating Novel Predictions of Hypoglycemia

Occurrence Using Real-world Models): an ambidirectional (one-year retrospective/one-

year prospective) survey of outpatient Americans with diabetes.

iNPHORM participants were recruited from five pre-existing online panels of the

general US public. Collectively, these panels comprised >10,000 Americans (≥18 years

old) with type 1 diabetes and >58,000 with type 2 diabetes. Panel members 18-90 years

old, living in the US for the past year, and with type 1 or 2 diabetes taking insulin and/or

secretagogues were eligible to enroll in our study. Individuals were ineligible if they were

or had been pregnant within the past year, were involved in an interventional study, or

were unable to read/understand English.

Convenience sampling was used to enroll two waves of participants: Wave 1 and Wave

2. First, a randomly selected subset of the panels was targeted based on study

requirements, mainly diabetes status. These individuals were contacted via email about

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the study; those interested in participating were directed to complete a screening questionnaire. Recruitment of Wave 1 ended when we achieved our target sample size of 1250 eligible enrollees. Those in Wave 1 who failed to submit the Month 1 follow-up guestionnaire were withdrawn from the study and replaced by new eligible recruits (Wave 2) sampled from a different, randomly selected subset of the panels. To finalize enrollment, Wave 1 and 2 eligible respondents needed to provide consent and complete the baseline guestionnaire. Once enrolled, participants were managed and hosted by Ipsos Interactive Services (IIS). Each recruitment wave, offset by two months, will complete up to 12 follow-up questionnaires disseminated on a prescheduled, monthly basis. Questionnaires must be submitted within seven-days of the distribution date. Reminders and honorariums are being administered to optimize participant retention. Data collection will occur February-2020 to April-2021. Further details regarding the iNPHORM study, including sample size considerations, are available at clinicaltrials.gov (NCT04219514) (20).

Survey instruments and variables All questionnaires (screening, baseline, and follow-ups) were developed by our team of epidemiologists and clinicians in consultation with the literature. Prior to dissemination, guestionnaires were pretested via semi-structured interviews for content, comprehensibility, skip patterns, and length In this study, we summarize data from 16 items contained in our COVID-19 subguestionnaire (described below). This sub-questionnaire was added post hoc in response to the escalating severity of the US COVID-19 situation. Beginning with the 'Wave 1 second follow-up questionnaire (FQ2)' (administered April 21st-28th, 2020), each monthly follow-up will contain the COVID-19 sub-questionnaire. We herein analyze 'Wave 1-FQ2' data. COVID-19 status: To ascertain self-reported infection status (past month), we adapted the CDC COVID-19 case definitions (April 2020) (21). Two structured items were developed to capture clinical criteria (symptoms), laboratory criteria (confirmed diagnoses), and epidemiologic linkage (potential exposure). Aligning with CDC recommendations, we classified respondents as confirmed, probable, or possible cases.

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Confirmed cases were those who reported having been formally diagnosed with COVID-19. Probable cases were those who did not have a formal diagnosis but who reported 1) symptoms typical of COVID-19 and 2)  $\geq$  1 form of epidemiologic linkage. If only one of the two latter conditions was met, we classified individuals as possible cases. Impact of the COVID-19 situation on aspects of diabetes management. We developed 12 structured, 5-point Likert items to assess how, and to what extent, the COVID-19 situation has disrupted socio-economic, behavioural/clinical, and psychosocial aspects of participants' diabetes management (past month). Respondents were asked to evaluate whether these aspects were made much harder, somewhat harder, somewhat easier, or much easier by the COVID-19 situation—a neutral option was provided. Topics included drug affordability/accessibility, medication-taking behaviour, healthcare consultations, glucose monitoring, and social support. Additionally, we incorporated two structured, binary items to assess drug rationing. Socio-demographic and clinical characteristics of study sample: Self-reported sociodemographic and clinical characteristics were collected between the screening,

baseline, FQ1, and FQ2 questionnaires. Past-month frequencies of self-reported severe hypoglycemia (SH) and non-severe hypoglycemia (NSH), defined in accordance with the ADA (22), were assessed at FQ2. Non-severe hypoglycemia was defined as any event that could be self-treated; SH was defined as a medical emergency that could not be self-treated (e.g., required third-party assistance). Statistical analysis Categorical variables were summarized as frequencies and percentages, while continuous variables as means and standard deviations (SD) or medians and interguartile ranges (IQR). Crude hypoglycemia frequencies were calculated as incidence rates (IR) and incidence proportions (IP). Confirmed, probable, and possible COVID-19 cases were calculated as period prevalences. The impact of the COVID-19 situation on glycemic management was descriptively analyzed (Likert responses were trichotomized). Differences by diabetes type were assessed using the Wilcoxin-Mann-Whitney test for Likert responses and the twosample test of proportions for binary responses. Tests were two-sided at  $\alpha$ =0.05.

Analyses were performed using STATA V.16.0.

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Patient and public involvement

No patients were directly involved in designing or conducting this study.

Ethical considerations

Western investigators and IIS obtained approval from the Western University's

Research Ethics Board and the Pearl Institutional Review Board (US), respectively.

## **RESULTS**

The current evaluation is based on a sub-sample of 667 (type 1 diabetes: 18.0%; type 2 diabetes: 82%) out of 704 Wave 1-FQ2 respondents who reported taking insulin and/or secretagogues (i.e., were at-risk of hypoglycemia). Socio-demographic and clinical characteristics are summarized in Table 1. Half of participants were female. The mean age was 51.9 (SD: 14.6; Min, Max: 20, 87) years; 23.2% were  $\geq$  65 years old. Diabetes duration was 26.0 (IQR: 23.0) years in people with type 1 and 11.0 (IQR: 14.0) years in people with type 2 diabetes. All respondents with type 1 diabetes, and 38.4% with type 2 diabetes, reported taking

insulin without secretagogues; among the remaining participants with type 2 diabetes,

36.9% were taking secretagogues without insulin, and 24.7% were taking a combination

of insulin and secretagogues. Twenty-three percent (type 1 diabetes: 23.3%; type 2 diabetes: 23.0%) of the total sample reported A1C values  $\geq$  8.1%. Sixty-one percent reported  $\geq$  1 diabetes-related complication, while 83.2% reported  $\geq$  1 comorbidity. Table 2 summarizes self-reported hypoglycemia incidences (combined daytime and nocturnal). The IR and IP of NSH were higher in people with type 1 diabetes (IR: 5.7 [95%CI: 4.6-7.1] events per person-month (PPM) and IP: 83.3% [95%CI: 75.7-88.9]) versus type 2 diabetes (IR: 2.1 [95%CI: 1.8-2.4] events PPM and IP: 55.0% [95%CI: 50.8-59.1]). However, SH, occurring at an overall rate of 0.7 (95%CI: 0.5-0.96) events PPM, was almost twice as common in people with type 2 versus type 1 diabetes (0.8 [95%CI: 0.5-1.1] versus 0.4 [95%CI: 0.2-0.9] events PPM]). Similarly, the monthly IP of SH, affecting nearly 13% (95%CI: 10.6-15.7) of respondents, was higher in people with type 2 diabetes compared to type 1 diabetes (13.2% [95%CI: 10.6-16.3] versus 11.7% [95%CI: 7.08-18.6]).

The one-month period prevalences of confirmed, probable, and possible COVID-19 were 0.75%, 0.75%, and 8.9%, respectively (Table 3).

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The impact of the COVID-19 situation on aspects of glycemic management A summary of results are provided in Table 4. Almost a guarter of respondents (type 1 diabetes: 30.0%; type 2 diabetes: 23.0%, P-value =0.07) reported that the COVID-19 situation had made affording rent and other living expenses somewhat or much harder. Similarly, 27.6% (type 1 diabetes: 23.3%; type 2 diabetes: 28.5%, *P*-value =0.29) of participants expressed difficulties ensuring adequate food supply to avoid hypoglycemia. Close to one in five experienced challenges paying for their diabetes medications (type 1 diabetes: 16.7%; type 2 diabetes: 19.0%, P-value =0.66) or test strips/sensors (type 1 diabetes: 13.3%; type 2 diabetes: 18.3%, P-value =0.31). Amid affordability concerns, access-related issues in retrieving diabetes medications from the pharmacy were noted by 27.4% (type 1 diabetes: 30.8%; type 2 diabetes: 26.7%, Pvalue =0.26) of our study sample. As well, because of the COVID-19 situation, ~17% of participants reported rationing their diabetes medications either to make supplies last longer (type 1 diabetes: 13.3%; type 2 diabetes: 17.4%, P-value =0.28) or avoid hypoglycemia (overall: 16.8%; type 1 diabetes: 15.8%; type 2 diabetes: 17.0%, P-value =0.76).

The COVID-19 situation also influenced participants' abilities to self-manage. Many respondents struggled to remember to take their diabetes medication(s) as prescribed (overall: 13.6%; type 1 diabetes: 6.7%; type 2 diabetes: 15.2%, P-value =0.052) as well as test and monitor their BG (overall: 15.9%; type 1 diabetes: 5.0%; type 2 diabetes: 18.3%, P-value < 0.001) and risk of hypoglycemia regularly (overall: 12.0%; type 1 diabetes: 7.5%; type 2 diabetes: 13.0%, P-value =0.02). Over a third of respondents (type 1 diabetes: 35.0%; type 2 diabetes: 36.8%, P-value = 0.78) found it somewhat or much harder to consult with their diabetes care providers. In terms of exercise maintenance, almost one in two respondents (type 1 diabetes: 47.5%; type 2 diabetes: 46.1, P-value = 0.98) reported that it had been somewhat or much harder to stay as physically active as usual. Lastly, psychosocial effects were observed. Many participants (14.5%) felt less in control of their hypoglycemia (type 1 diabetes: 11.7%; type 2 diabetes: 15.2%, P-value =0.5); 19% also reported having insufficient social support to help manage their risk (type 1 diabetes: 10.8%; type 2 diabetes: 20.3%, *P*-value =0.06).

The COVID-19 situation rarely had a beneficial impact on participants' lives. For almost all aspects of diabetes management that were measured, <5% of the sample selected "somewhat easier" or "much easier".

## DISCUSSION

Experts have long been aware of the impacts a protracted emergency would have on healthcare and outcomes. Now, as two widespread pandemics collide, many Americans are finding themselves at the nidus of extreme clinical vulnerability, and with little support. Despite advice furnished by several national and international organizations, PWD are clearly struggling to maintain glycemic management standards during the pandemic. This gap forebodes important, population-based consequences to diabetesrelated morbidities, both now and well-after vaccinations are distributed. Our study is the first and most comprehensive investigation to quantify the impact of the COVID-19 situation on the socio-economic, behavioural/clinical, and psychosocial aspects of glycemic management in US outpatient communities. In general, the pandemic was found to cause substantial deficiencies in routine diabetes care. Of note,

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only few appreciable differences were observed by diabetes type; of those identified, most related to the behavioural aspects of glycemic management. COVID-19 and the socio-economic aspects of glycemic management People with diabetes have been severely and disproportionately affected by the pandemic. Based on recent data published by the ADA, 24% of PWD have been forced to use savings, loans, or money from their stimulus checks (23). This percentage increases to half among the 33% of PWD (compared to 29% of people without diabetes) who have lost income since the pandemic began (23). It is thus not surprising that almost a guarter of iNPHORM respondents revealed that the COVID-19 situation impeded their abilities to afford rent and other living expenses. As the outbreak continues to escalate across the country, it is expected that the financial situation of many Americans will become increasingly precarious (18). In this study, economic incertitude also affected participants' access to healthy food (9). COVID-19-related financial or environmental factors can invoke a state of food insecurity, a major predictor of clinically significant hypoglycemia (24). One US study found that exhaustion of food budgets was associated with a 27% increase in

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hypoglycemia-related hospital admissions (25). Other research has associated food insecurity among PWD with poorer glucose monitoring and higher A1C values (26). Furthermore, decreases in financial resources, especially in the absence of health coverage, can inhibit access to diabetes medical supplies. An American study found that prescription refills for diabetes medications fell by 10% between January and August 2020 (27); however, whether or not this was due to financial or environmental factors was unclarified. Our data reveal that while roughly 20% of respondents experienced difficulties affording medications or strips/sensors, over a quarter reported issues physically retrieving medical supplies from pharmacies (perhaps due to prevention orders or anxieties over potential exposure). Interruptions in healthcare access may explain the significant percentages of respondents who reported rationing their diabetes supplies. Our study investigated whether or not PWD ration their medications not just to extend their lifespan, but to prevent hypoglycemia. Despite evidence that lockdown exacerbates hypoglycemia risk (28), no research yet existed measuring the potential risk of hypoglycemia-specific medication rationing during COVID-19. Treatment rationing contradicts the CDC's

recommendations for managing diabetes during the pandemic (11). Not only can antihyperglycemic underuse increase the likelihood of deleterious short-term outcomes, but it can also drive up the cost of long-term diabetes-related complications (29). The impact of the COVID-19 situation on socio-economic indicators predictably did not vary by diabetes type with nearly equivalent percentages of each reporting financial and environmental instabilities because of the pandemic. COVID-19 and the behavioural/clinical aspects of glycemic management Evidence from past national emergencies underscores their profound and lasting implications on self-management behaviours in people with coexistent illnesses (16,17). Our study is the most comprehensive diabetes investigation to measure these implications in the COVID-19 era. Because of the pandemic, several iNPHORM participants reported forgetting to take their prescribed medications. This was especially true of type 2 diabetes respondents, perhaps due to variability in medication regimens compared to those with type 1 diabetes. Lapses in medication use can compromise therapeutic adherence and efficacies, leading to elevated A1C values as far-out as 16 months post-emergency (17). This risk is compounded by sub-optimal BG tracking.

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> to be directly proportional to A1C and number of diabetes-related complications (33). Unfortunately, these effects may endure even after the viral outbreak has been guelled. Evidence from past disasters, has shown that reduced access to healthcare during the acute phase of an emergency can lead to an aftermath of increased deaths and morbidities including stroke, myocardial infarctions, and diabetes-related complications (34). Finally, COVID-19 mitigation measures can restrict access to indoor and outdoor physical activities, contributing to increased sedentary behaviours that adversely affect immune defence, glycemic control, and metabolic health in general (9). Based on data from other viral infections, sub-optimal physical activity can accentuate symptom severity, recovery times, and transmissibility; it can also compromise post-vaccination immunity and increase secondary infection risk (35). Regardless of diabetes type, staggering percentages of participants reported reduced physical activity because of the pandemic, a sure warning sign of the extensive health consequences to come. COVID-19 and the psychosocial aspects of glycemic management

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The psychosocial ramifications of COVID-19 in PWD has been minimally investigated in the literature. Our study specifically assessed how the pandemic has impacted respondents' senses of personal control over their hypoglycemia risk. Significant decrements in self-perceived control were observed across all participants. Sense of control-the learned belief that one does master, control, and shape one's life-has been linked to several positive health effects including proactive behavior and emotional well-being (36). However, inadequate supplies, financial loss, fear psychosis of being infected, and media/disinformation can all contribute to increased feelings of powerlessness (37). Reductions in sense of personal control have been associated with heightened stress, anxiety, and depressive symptoms (38)—outcomes that have been linked to poor medication adherence and diminished self-management (39). While support from family and friends can mediate the contextual impacts of COVID-19, several respondents in our study, particularly those with type 2 diabetes, reported insufficient social support to help manage their hypoglycemia. Assistance from informal relationships has been identified as a major component to hypoglycemia selfmanagement with demonstrable impacts on diabetes-related morbidity and mortality

reduction (14,38,40). The gap in social support observed in our study portend troubling implications for hypoglycemia incidence as well as other clinical and psychosocial sequelae. No study had yet quantified the effect the COVID-19 situation on social support access in PWD. Study strengths and limitations This study evaluates a large, generalized outpatient cohort of diabetic Americans-with and without infection-to derive insight into the real-world, real-time consequences of the COVID-19 situation in diabetes. The sample cohort focused on insulin and/or secretagogues users so variations in hypoglycemia management could be ascertained; such data had yet to be garnered in the US. By developing a novel pandemic-specific questionnaire, our research team was able to estimate the direct repercussions of the COVID-19 situation in Americans with diabetes. However, certain limitations should be noted. First, though counteracted by the high national prevalence of internet users and rigorous sampling strategies, non-response and coverage bias may have influenced study results. Second, self-reported data may have been subject to information bias. To reduce this risk, measures were taken to

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review clinical documentation prior to completing the question/survey. Finally, estimates derived in our study may be conservative, as they stem from a one-month data capture in the early phase of the pandemic trajectory.

optimize recall intervals. Participants could also take time to reflect on items and/or

# <u>CONCLUSIONS</u>

A 'hinterland' is defined as an area lying beyond what is visible or known. As a society we have exhibited unparalleled bravery in the face of one of the most terrifying crises known to humankind. However, our mission to abate the pandemic is only just beginning. Indeed, the COVID-19 calamity has had untold reverberations in the lives of Americans, extending well-beyond the visible devastations caused by infection alone. Not least are the impacts COVID-19 has had on PWD—cases and non-cases alike who have struggled to maintain control of their disease amidst the pandemic. Yet, until now, the nature and scale of these impacts were largely unknown or uncharacterized. Thus, the results of our study draw not only awareness to the farreaching and potential lasting consequences of the pandemic, but offer an evidence

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base for decisive action. In identifying the unique needs of Americans with diabetes

during the COVID-19 era, we can begin to develop, implement, and assess clinical and

public health strategies that ensure safe, undisrupted care within the context of patients'

communities. As we combat the acute phase of COVID-19, we must not lose sight of

the pernicious health challenges that coexist and await us in the aftermath.

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IC CHARACTERISTICS		Type 1 Diabetes	Type 2 Diabetes
	N=667	120 (17.99%)	547 (82.01%)
Years	51.85 (14.57)	45.96 (14.43)	53.14 (14.29)
D <sub>C</sub>			
$\geq$ 18 and $\leq$ 40 years	180 (26.99)	51 (42.50)	129 (23.58)
$\geq$ 41 and $\leq$ 64 years	332 (49.78)	53 (44.17)	279 (51.01)
$\geq$ 65 and $\leq$ 74 years	123 (18.44)	11 (9.17)	112 (20.48)
≥ 75 years	32 (4.80)	5 (4.17)	27 (4.94)
	0,		
Female	341 (51.12)	80 (66.67)	261 (47.71)
Female Male	341 (51.12) 326 (48.88)	80 (66.67) 40 (33.33)	261 (47.71) 286 (52.29)
Male	326 (48.88)	40 (33.33)	286 (52.29)
	$\geq$ 18 and $\leq$ 40 years $\geq$ 41 and $\leq$ 64 years $\geq$ 65 and $\leq$ 74 years	$\geq$ 18 and $\leq$ 40 years 180 (26.99) $\geq$ 41 and $\leq$ 64 years 332 (49.78) $\geq$ 65 and $\leq$ 74 years 123 (18.44)	$\geq 18 \text{ and } \leq 40 \text{ years} \qquad 180 (26.99) \qquad 51 (42.50)$ $\geq 41 \text{ and } \leq 64 \text{ years} \qquad 332 (49.78) \qquad 53 (44.17)$ $\geq 65 \text{ and } \leq 74 \text{ years} \qquad 123 (18.44) \qquad 11 (9.17)$

Hispanic, Latino/a, or Spanish origin	13 (1.95)	1 (0.83)	12 (2.19)
American Indian, Alaska Native, Native Hawaiian, or Pacific	4 (0.60)	0	4 (0.73)
Islander			
Multiracial	23 (3.45)	2 (1.67)	21 (3.84)
Other	3 (0.45)	0	3 (0.55)
Hispanic, Latino/a, or Spanish origin, n (%)			
Mexican, Mexican American, Chicano	27 (4.05)	2 (1.67)	25 (4.57)
Puerto Rican	6 (0.90)	1 (0.83)	5 (0.91)
Cuban	2 (0.30)	0	2 (0.37)
Other Hispanic, Latino/a, or Spanish origin	3 (0.45)	1 (0.83)	2 (0.37)
Not of Hispanic, Latino/a, or Spanish origin	629 (94.30)	116 (96.67)	513 (93.78
Highest level of education at time of study enrolment, n (%)			
Elementary or high school (No diploma)	10 (1.50)	3 (2.50)	7 (1.28)
High school diploma or GED/alternative credential	101 (15.14)	19 (15.83)	82 (14.99)
College degree or some college	425 (63.72)	75 (62.50)	350 (63.99
Degree beyond completing first college Bachelor's degree	131 (19.64)	23 (19.17)	108 (19.74
Employment status at time of study enrolment, n (%)			
Employed full-time or part-time (including self-employment)	346 (51.87)	73 (60.83)	273 (49.91
Temporarily laid off/Temporarily unemployed due to a health	4 (0.60)	1 (0.83)	3 (0.55)
issue			

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	Unable to work due to disability	84 (12.59)	11 (9.17)	73 (13.
	Unemployed	55 (8.25)	15 (12.50)	40 (7.3
	Student	4 (0.60)	1 (0.83)	3 (0.5
	Retired	174 (26.09)	19 (15.83)	155 (28
Total annual household	d income (before taxes and deductions) at tin	ne of study enrolme	ent, n (%)*	
	<\$24,999	107 (16.21)	13 (11.21)	94 (17
	\$25,000 to \$54,999	173 (26.21)	25 (21.55)	148 (27
	\$55,000 to \$84,999	142 (21.52)	39 (33.62)	103 (18
	\$85,000 to \$114,999	109 (16.52)	22 (18.97)	87 (15
Healthcare insurance a	$\geq$ \$115,000 at time of study enrolment, n (%)	129 (19.55)	17 (14.66)	112 (20
	at time of study enrolment, n (%)	0		
	at time of study enrolment, n (%) current or former employer or union that is	129 (19.55) 153 (22.94)	17 (14.66) 36 (30.00)	
Insurance through a	at time of study enrolment, n (%) current or former employer or union that is not a high deductible plan <sup>†</sup>	153 (22.94)	36 (30.00)	117 (21
Insurance through a	at time of study enrolment, n (%) current or former employer or union that is not a high deductible plan <sup>†</sup> lirectly from insurance company that is not	0		112 (20 117 (21 38 (6.
Insurance through a	at time of study enrolment, n (%) current or former employer or union that is not a high deductible plan <sup>†</sup> lirectly from insurance company that is not a high deductible plan	153 (22.94) 49 (7.35)	36 (30.00) 11 (9.17)	117 (21 38 (6.
Insurance through a	at time of study enrolment, n (%) current or former employer or union that is not a high deductible plan <sup>†</sup> lirectly from insurance company that is not a high deductible plan High deductible plan	153 (22.94) 49 (7.35) 34 (5.10)	36 (30.00) 11 (9.17) 11 (9.17)	117 (21 38 (6. 23 (4.
Insurance through a linsurance purchased d	at time of study enrolment, n (%) current or former employer or union that is not a high deductible plan <sup>†</sup> lirectly from insurance company that is not a high deductible plan High deductible plan Medicare	153 (22.94) 49 (7.35) 34 (5.10) 77 (11.54)	36 (30.00) 11 (9.17) 11 (9.17) 7 (5.83)	117 (21 38 (6. 23 (4. 70 (12
Insurance through a linsurance purchased d	at time of study enrolment, n (%) current or former employer or union that is not a high deductible plan <sup>†</sup> lirectly from insurance company that is not a high deductible plan High deductible plan Medicare ssistance, or other government-assistance	153 (22.94) 49 (7.35) 34 (5.10)	36 (30.00) 11 (9.17) 11 (9.17)	117 (21 38 (6.
Insurance through a classification in the second se	at time of study enrolment, n (%) current or former employer or union that is not a high deductible plan <sup>†</sup> lirectly from insurance company that is not a high deductible plan High deductible plan Medicare	153 (22.94) 49 (7.35) 34 (5.10) 77 (11.54)	36 (30.00) 11 (9.17) 11 (9.17) 7 (5.83)	117 (21 38 (6. 23 (4. 70 (12

Other	5 (0.75)	2 (1.67)	3 (0.55)
Two or more insurance plans	s 257 (38.53)	32 (26.67)	225 (41.13)
No insurance coverage at al	9 (1.35)	2 (1.67)	7 (1.28)
CLINICAL CHARACTERISTICS	Total	Type 1 Diabetes	Type 2 Diabet
CEINICAE CHARACTERISTICS	N=667	120 (17.99%)	547 (82.01%
Duration of diabetes, median (IQR)			
Years	s 13 (15)	26 (23)	11 (14)
Most recent hemoglobin A1C, n (%)*			
$\leq$ 7% (53 mmol/mol)	252 (37.78)	45 (37.50)	207 (37.84)
7.1% (54 mmol/mol) to 8% (64 mmol/mol)	239 (35.83)	45 (37.50)	194 (35.47)
8.1% (65 mmol/mol) to 9% (75 mmol/mol)	99 (14.84)	14 (11.67)	85 (15.54)
$\geq$ 9.1% (76 mmol/mol)	55 (8.25)	14 (11.67)	41 (7.50)
Unsure	e 12 (1.80)	0	12 (2.19)
Body mass index (BMI) at time of study enrolment, median (IQR)			
BMI (kg/m²)	30.38 (11.87)	26.43 (6.18)	32.19 (11.99

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Insulir	n <i>without</i> Secretagogues	330 (49.48)	120 (100.00)	210 (38.39
Secre	tagogues <i>without</i> Insulin	202 (30.28)	0	202 (36.93
Insulin <i>in combina</i>	tion with Secretagogues	135 (20.24)	0	135 (24.68
Diagnosed diabetes-related complication	s since 1 year preceding s	tudy enrolment, n		
(%)‡				
	No complications	263 (39.43)	41 (34.17)	222 (40.59
Or	e or more complications	404 (60.57)	79 (65.83)	325 (59.41
	Amputation	91 (13.64)	12 (10.00)	79 (14.44)
	Diabetes Ketoacidosis	110 (16.49)	42 (35.00)	68 (12.43)
	Foot damage	123 (18.44)	18 (15.00)	105 (19.20
	Gastroparesis	95 (14.24)	20 (16.67)	75 (13.71)
Hyperosmolar hyperg	lycemic nonketotic coma 🧹	60 (9.00)	5 (4.17)	55 (10.05)
	Nephropathy	114 (17.09)	18 (15.00)	96 (17.55)
	Neuropathy	298 (44.68)	46 (38.33)	252 (46.07
	Retinopathy	156 (23.39)	46 (38.33)	110 (20.11
Comorbidity status at time of study enrol	ment, n (%) <sup>‡</sup>			
	No comorbidities	112 (16.79)	32 (26.67)	80 (14.63)
Or	ne or more comorbidities	555 (83.21)	88 (73.33)	467 (85.37
Bone,	joint, or muscle problem	310 (46.48)	39 (32.50)	271 (49.54
	Cancer	52 (7.80)	3 (2.50)	49 (8.96)
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		/	
Yes	229 (34.33)	65 (54.17)	164 (29.98)
Current continuous glucose monitoring device use, n (%)	4		
		× ,	
Stroke or transient ischemic attack	44 (6.60)	5 (4.17)	39 (7.13)
Respiratory condition	125 (18.74)	24 (20.00)	101 (18.46)
Physical impairment	168 (25.19)	29 (24.17)	139 (25.41)
Neurological disorder	39 (5.85)	8 (6.67)	31 (5.67)
Mental health condition	223 (33.43)	36 (30.00)	187 (34.19)
Hypertension	363 (54.42)	50 (41.67)	313 (57.22)
HIV/AIDS	11 (1.65)	2 (1.67)	9 (1.65)
Gastrointestinal disease	86 (12.89)	17 (14.17)	69 (12.61)
Eating disorder	35 (5.25)	7 (5.83)	28 (5.12)
Chronic liver failure or liver disease	39 (5.85)	2 (1.67)	37 (6.76)
Chronic kidney disease	73 (10.94)	8 (6.67)	65 (11.88)
Cardiovascular condition	128 (19.19)	17 (14.17)	111 (20.29)

\* Cumulative percentage <100% due to missing data

 <sup>+</sup> High Deductible Plan: Deductible >\$1,350 for an individual or >\$2,700 for a family

<sup>‡</sup> Cumulative percentage >100% as participants could select more than one response

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# Table 2. Incidence rates and proportions of severe and non-severe hypoglycemia (daytime + nocturnal), overall and by diabetes type

INCIDENCE RATES	Total	Type 1 Diabetes	Type 2 Diabetes
INCIDENCE RATES	N=667	120 (17.99%)	547 (82.01%)
Severe Hypoglycemia			
Events per person-month (95% CI)	0.68 (0.48-0.96)	0.39 (0.18-0.85)	0.75 (0.51-1.09)
Non-Severe Hypoglycemia	CO.		
Events per person-month (95% CI)	2.75 (2.43-3.11)	5.73 (4.60-7.13)	2.10 (1.82-2.41)
INCIDENCE PROPORTIONS	Total	Type 1 Diabetes	Type 2 Diabetes
INCIDENCE FROFOR HONS	N=667	120 (17.99%)	547 (82.01%)
Severe Hypoglycemia (past month)			
% with $\geq$ 1 event (95% CI)	12.91 (10.58-15.67)	11.67 (7.08-18.63)	13.19 (10.60-16.28
Non-Severe Hypoglycemia (past month)			
% with $\geq$ 1 event (95% CI)	60.06 (56.29-63.71)	83.33 (75.66-88.94)	54.95 (50.75-59.07
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CI, confidence interval.

'ID-19 infection' Table 3. Period prevalence of COVID-19 infection\*

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	Total	Type 1 Diabetes	Type 2 Diabetes
PERIOD PREVALENCE OF COVID-19	N=667	120 (17.99%)	547 (82.01%)
Confirmed (past month), n (%) <sup>†</sup>			
	5 (0.75)	0	5 (0.91)
Probable (past month), n (%) <sup>‡</sup>			
	5 (0.75)	0	5 (0.91)
Possible (past month), n (%)§	CC+ .		
	59 (8.86)	16 (13.33)	43 (7.86)
* Data collected April 21st 28th 2020			
<ul> <li>* Data collected April 21<sup>st</sup>-28<sup>th</sup>, 2020</li> <li>† Had a formal diagnosis of COVID-19</li> <li>‡ No formal diagnosis of COVID-19; reported 1)</li> <li>§ No formal diagnosis of COVID-19; reported 1)</li> </ul>			
<ul> <li><sup>†</sup> Had a formal diagnosis of COVID-19</li> <li><sup>‡</sup> No formal diagnosis of COVID-19; reported 1)</li> </ul>			

Table 4. Impact of the COVID-19 situation on aspects of participants' glycemic management (past month)\*

ASPECT OF GLYCEMIC MANAGEMENT	has been much/ somewhat harder	has <u>not</u> been impacted	has been much/somewhat easier	( <b>₽</b> ) <i>P</i> -value <sup>†</sup>
Affording rent and other living expenses				
Overall (N=667)	162 (24.29)	491 (73.61)	14 (2.10)	
Type 1 Diabetes (n=120)	36 (30.00)	83 (69.17)	1 (0.83)	0.07
Type 2 Diabetes (n=547)	126 (23.03)	408 (74.59)	13 (2.38)	0.07
Ensuring enough food to avoid hypoglycen	nia			
Overall (N=667)	184 (27.59)	475 (71.21)	8 (1.20)	

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Type 1 Diabetes (n=120)	28 (23.33)	91 (75.83)	1 (0.83)	0.29
Type 2 Diabetes (n=547)	156 (28.52)	384 (70.20)	7 (1.28)	0.29
Affording diabetes medication(s)				
Overall (N=667)	124 (18.59)	534 (80.06)	9 (1.35)	
Type 1 Diabetes (n=120)	20 (16.67)	99 (82.50)	1 (0.83)	0.00
Type 2 Diabetes (n=547)	104 (19.01)	435 (79.52)	8 (1.46)	0.66
Affording test strips and/or sensors				
Overall (N=667)	116 (17.39)	540 (80.96)	11 (1.65)	
Type 1 Diabetes (n=120)	16 (13.33)	103 (85.83)	1 (0.83)	0.04
Type 2 Diabetes (n=547)	100 (18.28)	437 (79.89)	10 (1.83)	0.31
Retrieving diabetes medication(s) from the p	harmacy			
Overall (N=667)	183 (27.44)	470 (70.46)	14 (2.10)	
Type 1 Diabetes (n=120)	37 (30.83)	82 (68.33)	1 (0.83)	0.26
Type 2 Diabetes (n=547)	146 (26.69)	388 (70.93)	13 (2.38)	0.20
Consulting with healthcare provider(s) about	diabetes			
Overall (N=667)	243 (36.43)	410 (61.47)	14 (2.10)	
Type 1 Diabetes (n=120)	42 (35.00)	76 (63.33)	2 (1.67)	0.70
Type 2 Diabetes (n=547)	201 (36.75)	334 (61.06)	12 (2.19)	0.78
Testing/monitoring blood glucose				
Overall (N=667)	106 (15.89)	551 (82.61)	10 (1.50)	
Type 1 Diabetes (n=120)	6 (5.00)	110 (91.67)	4 (3.33)	~0.001
Type 2 Diabetes (n=547)	100 (18.28)	441 (80.62)	6 (1.10)	<0.001

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Overall (N=667)	91 (13.64)	554 (83.06)	22 (3.30)	
Type 1 Diabetes (n=120)	8 (6.67)	109 (90.83)	3 (2.50)	0.
Type 2 Diabetes (n=547)	83 (15.17)	445 (81.35)	19 (3.47)	0.
Monitoring risk of hypoglycemia regularly				
Overall (N=667)	80 (11.99)	561 (84.11)	26 (3.90)	
Type 1 Diabetes (n=120)	9 (7.50)	103 (85.83)	8 (6.67)	0
Type 2 Diabetes (n=547)	71 (12.98)	458 (83.73)	18 (3.29)	0.
Staying as physically active as usual				
Overall (N=667)	309 (46.33)	329 (49.33)	29 (4.35)	
Type 1 Diabetes (n=120)	57 (47.50)	55 (45.83)	8 (6.67)	0.98
Type 2 Diabetes (n=547)	252 (46.07)	274 (50.09)	21 (3.84)	U
Feeling in control of hypoglycemia				
Overall (N=667)	97 (14.54)	528 (79.16)	42 (6.30)	
Type 1 Diabetes (n=120)	14 (11.67)	99 (82.50)	7 (5.83)	0
Type 2 Diabetes (n=547)	83 (15.17)	429 (78.43)	35 (6.40)	0
Having enough social support to help manag	ne hypoglycemia			
Overall (N=667)	124 (18.59)	518 (77.66)	25 (3.75)	
Type 1 Diabetes (n=120)	13 (10.83)	104 (86.67)	3 (2.50)	0
Type 2 Diabetes (n=547)	111 (20.29)	414 (75.69)	22 (4.02)	

ASPECT OF GLYCEMIC MANAGEMENT	Yes	No	<i>P</i> -value§
Rationing diabetes medication(s) to make suppli	es last longer		
Overall (N=667)	111 (16.64)	556 (83.36)	
Type 1 Diabetes (n=120)	16 (13.33)	104 (86.67)	0.00
Type 2 Diabetes (n=547)	95 (17.37)	452 (82.63)	0.28
Rationing diabetes medication(s) to avoid hypog	lycemia		
Overall (N=667)	112 (16.79)	555 (83.21)	
Type 1 Diabetes (n=120)	19 (15.83)	101 (84.17)	0.76
Type 2 Diabetes (n=547)	93 (17.00)	454 (17.00)	0.76
	· · ·		
n (%) are presented. * Data collected April 21 <sup>st</sup> -28 <sup>th</sup> , 2020			
<sup>†</sup> Item responses were compared between individuals v	vith type 1 diabetes and type 2 dia	abetes. <i>P</i> -values were compu	uted using two-
sample Wilcoxin-Mann-Whitney tests.			
<sup>‡</sup> Statistically significant at an alpha value of 0.05 (i.e., t	the underlying distributions of iten	n responses statistically signi	ficantly differed
by diabetes type).			

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, with type 1 c. § Item responses were compared between individuals with type 1 diabetes and type 2 diabetes. P-values were computed using twosample Z tests for proportions.

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## **BMJ Open**

#### The COVID-19 Hinterland: Surveilling the self-reported impacts of the pandemic on diabetes management in the United States (Cross-sectional results of the iNPHORM Study)

Journal:	BMJ Open
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Article Type:	Original research
Date Submitted by the Author:	06-Jul-2021
Complete List of Authors:	Ratzki-Leewing, Alexandria A.; Western University, Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics Ryan, BL; University of Western Ontario Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics; Western University Schulich School of Medicine & Dentistry Buchenberger, John D.; Ipsos Dickens, Joseph W.; ISPOS, SMX Black, Jason; Western University Schulich School of Medicine & Dentistry, Family Medicine Harris, Stewart; Western University Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics; Western University Schulich School of Medicine & Dentistry, Department of Family Medicine
<b>Primary Subject Heading</b> :	Diabetes and endocrinology
Secondary Subject Heading:	Epidemiology, Public health
Keywords:	DIABETES & ENDOCRINOLOGY, Quality in health care < HEALTH SERVICES ADMINISTRATION & MANAGEMENT, General endocrinology < DIABETES & ENDOCRINOLOGY, General diabetes < DIABETES & ENDOCRINOLOGY, COVID-19, EPIDEMIOLOGY

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19	6	Short running title: Impact of the COVID-19 situation on diabetes management
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50 51 52	15	<u>ABSTRACT</u>	
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2 3	1	Main Objective: To determine how and to what extent, COVID-19 has affected real-world, self-
4 5	1	Main Objective. To determine now and to what extent, COVID-19 has affected real-world, sen-
6 7 8 9	2	reported glycemic management in Americans with type 1 or type 2 diabetes taking insulin and/or
10 11 12	3	secretagogues, with or without infection.
13 14 15	4	Design: A cross-sectional sub-study using data from the iNPHORM panel survey.
16 17 18 19	5	Settings: United States (US).
20 21 22	6	Participants: Americans 18 to 90 years old with type 1 or 2 diabetes taking insulin and/or
23 24 25	7	secretagogues were conveniently sampled from a probability-based internet panel.
26 27 28 29	8	Primary Outcome Measure: A structured, COVID-19-specific questionnaire was administered to
30 31 32	9	assess the impact of the pandemic (irrespective of infection) on socio-economic,
33 34 35	10	behavioural/clinical, and psychosocial aspects of glycemic management.
36 37 38 39	11	<u>Results</u> : Data from 667 respondents (type 1 diabetes: 18%; type 2 diabetes: 82%) were analyzed.
40 41 42	12	Almost 25% reported A1C values ≥8.1%. Rates of severe and non-severe hypoglycemia were
43 44 45	13	0.68 (95%CI: 0.5 to 0.96) and 2.75 (95%CI: 2.4 to 3.1) events per-person month, respectively.
46 47 48 49	14	Ten respondents reported a confirmed or probable COVID-19 diagnosis. Because of the
50 51 52	15	pandemic, 24% of respondents experienced difficulties affording housing; 28% struggled to
53 54 55 56	16	maintain sufficient food to avoid hypoglycemia; and 19% and 17% reported challenges accessing
57 58 59 60		4 For peer review only - http://bmjopen.bmj.com/site/about/guidelines.xhtml

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2 3 4 5	1	diabetes therapies and testing strips, respectively. Over one-quarter reported issues retrieving
6 7 8	2	antihyperglycemics from the pharmacy and over one-third reported challenges consulting with
9 10 11 12	3	diabetes providers. The pandemic contributed to therapeutic non-adherence (14%), drug
12 13 14 15	4	rationing (17%), and reduced monitoring (16%). Many struggled to keep track, and in control, of
16 17 18	5	hypoglycemia (12 to 15%) and lacked social support to help manage their risk (19%). Nearly
19 20 21	6	half reported decreased physical activity. Few statistically significant differences were observed
22 23 24 25	7	by diabetes type.
26 27 28	8	<u>Conclusions</u> : COVID-19 was found to cause substantial self-reported deficiencies in glycemic
29 30 31	9	management. Study results signal the need for decisive action to re-stabilize routine diabetes care
32 33 34 35	10	in the US.
36 37 38	11	Trial registration: ClinicalTrials.gov Identifier: NCT04219514.
39 40 41	12	
42 43 44 45	13	STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY:
46 47 48	14	• This is the first US-based, primary research study to quantify the real-world, self-
49 50 51	15	reported impact of the COVID-19 situation on the socio-economic,
52 53 54 55	16	behavioural/clinical, and psychosocial aspects of glycemic management.
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4	1	• A novel COVID-19-specific questionnaire was developed and administered to a real-
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7	2	world cohort of Americans with type 1 and type 2 diabetes taking insulin and/or
	Z	world conort of Americans with type 1 and type 2 diabetes taking insum and/or
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10	3	secretagogues; study participants were recruited from a large, probability-based
11	5	secretagogaes, stady participants were recraited from a targe, probability based
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14	4	internet panel.
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17	5	• Estimates presented in this study may be conservative as they describe the early
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20	6	phase of the pandemic.
21	0	phase of the pandeline.
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24	7	
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27	8	SIGNIFICANCE OF THIS STUDY:
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30	9	1. What is already known about this subject?
31	9	1. What is already known about this subject?
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33		
34	10	• The majority of COVID-19-related studies in the US have focused on hospitalized
	10	The indjointy of CO (ID 1) folded studies in the OS have focused on hospitalized
35		
36		
37	11	case epidemiology.
38		
39		
40	10	
41	12	• Little is known about the peripheral impacts of the COVID-19 situation on glycemic
42		
43		
44	13	management in Americans with diabetes taking insulin and/or secretagogues.
	15	management in Americans with diabetes taking insum and/or secretagogues.
45		
46		
47	14	• Disruptions to services, resources, and self-management forebode important
48		
49		
50	1.5	
51	15	population-based consequences to diabetes-related morbidities, especially in the US
52		
53	16	where COVID-19 and diabetes eminently collide
53 54	16	where COVID-19 and diabetes eminently collide.
53 54 55	16	where COVID-19 and diabetes eminently collide.
53 54 55 56	16	where COVID-19 and diabetes eminently collide.
53 54 55 56 57	16	where COVID-19 and diabetes eminently collide.
53 54 55 56 57 58	16	where COVID-19 and diabetes eminently collide.
53 54 55 56 57	16	6 For peer review only - http://bmjopen.bmj.com/site/about/guidelines.xhtml

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2 3 4 5	1	2. What this study adds
6 7 8	2	• The pandemic situation was found to cause substantial and diverse repercussions on
9 10 11 12	3	participants' glycemic management, irrespective of diabetes type.
13 14 15	4	• The results of this study provide an instructive evidence base for improved diabetes
16 17 18 19	5	care in the US, both during the current public health emergency and in future.
20 21 22	6	
23 24 25	7	
26 27 28	8	
29 30 31 32	9	
33 34 35	10	care in the US, both during the current public health emergency and in future.
36 37 38 39	11	
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10	3	COVID-19 is among the most devastating health crises in global history. In the United States
11	5	COVID-19 is among the most devastating hearth crises in global mistory. In the United States
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13		
14	4	(US), the first reported infection occurred on January 19th, 2020.(1) Since then, the number of
15		
16		
17	5	confirmed US-cases has surpassed 33.5 million, including over 605,000 deaths (July 5, 2021).(2)
18	5	commed ob cases has surpassed 55.5 minion, meruding over 005,000 deaths (July 5, 2021).(2)
19		
20	6	
21	6	People with diabetes (PWD) have been identified as clinically vulnerable to COVID-19. In
22		
23		
24	7	the US, diabetes ranks as the second most common underlying health condition among all cases
25		
26		
27	0	and has been connected to more servers infection (2.4) However, loss energy interd in the literature
28	8	and has been connected to more severe infection.(3,4) However, less appreciated in the literature
20 29		
30		
	9	are the disruptions caused by the pandemic on routine diabetes care. These disruptions expose
31 22		
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33 24	10	not only those with COVID-19, but all 34+ million Americans with diabetes to poor outcomes.
34 25	10	not only those with COVID-19, but an 54+ minor Americans with diabetes to pool butcomes.
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37	11	Understanding how the pandemic affects diabetes services and management is crucial to
38		
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40	12	informing short- and long-term clinical decision-making and public health planning. Targeted
41	12	morning short and rong term emilieur deerston making and public nearth planning. Targeted
42		
43	10	
44	13	measures to help protect these Americans from the direct and indirect effects of the COVID-19
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47	14	pandemic should be a top priority for all healthcare and government officials.
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3 4	1	The complex hinterland of COVID-19 and diabetes
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6 7	2	
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10 11	3	The pathophysiological benefits of glycemic control on diabetes outcomes have been well-
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13 14	4	established. Numerous studies have linked chronic hyperglycemia and glycemic variability to
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17 18	5	increased risks of micro- and macro-vascular complications and mortality. In addition,
19		
20	6	dysglycemia can potentiate immunosuppression,(5) increasing viral susceptibility and risk of
21 22		
23	7	near divised exteenes (6) While the role of accurate dishets in the acthe sense of COVID
24 25	7	poor clinical outcomes.(6) While the role of coexistent diabetes in the pathogenesis of COVID-
26		
27	8	19 is still being determined,(7) emerging signals suggest that euglycemia protects against
28 29		
30	9	infection and severity of prognoses.(8,9) These data are consistent with evidence from other viral
31 32	)	infection and seventy of prognoses.(6,7) These data are consistent with evidence from other vita
32 33		
34	10	infections where glucose control showed to augment host immune response.(5,10)
35 36		
37	11	To mitigate COVID-19 risks, several national and international organizations have published
38		
39 40		
41	12	diabetes pandemic guides, urging PWD to maintain scrupulous adherence to all self-management
42 43		
43 44	13	and public health recommendations.(7,8) Notably, the Centers for Disease Control and
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46 47	14	
48	14	Prevention (CDC)(11) has recommended maintaining at least a 30-day supply of medication and
49 50		
50 51	15	2-week supply of food. The American Diabetes Association (ADA)(12) has advised storing
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53 54	16	blood glucose emergency supplies (i.e., glucagon and ketone strips). And the International
55	10	biood gracose entergency suppries (i.e., gracugon and ketone surps). And the international
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4 5	1	Diabetes Federation(13) has encouraged healthy nutrition and regular monitoring to help avoid
6 7 8 9	2	the complications of high and low blood glucose.
9 10 11 12	3	However, the COVID-19 situation has created a challenging terrain for effective glycemic
13 14 15	4	management.(14) Amid pressures to flatten the pandemic curve, people with diabetes and their
16 17 18	5	clinicians may divert focus and resources away from diabetes management, resulting in
19 20 21 22	6	compromised care.(8) Moreover, home quarantine, physical distancing, and community
23 24 25	7	containment—while enacted to ensure the safety of Americans—can erode chronic disease
26 27 28	8	services and make it increasingly difficult for PWD to access medical supplies and engage in
29 30 31 32	9	optimal self-management behaviour (e.g., healthy eating and physical activity).(15) Previous
33 34 35	10	outbreaks have also been associated with inadequate diabetes monitoring and barriers to
36 37 38	11	accessing healthcare, medications, and testing supplies.(4,8) Such disruptions to routine care can
39 40 41 42	12	lead to worse glycemic outcomes during and after the event.(16,17)
43 44 45	13	Yet, to date, most diabetes-related COVID-19 studies in the US have focused exclusively on
46 47 48	14	the epidemiology of hospitalized cases(18,19) and failed to consider how community-based
49 50 51 52	15	chronic diabetes management has suffered in the face of the pandemic. The lack of real-world
53 54 55 56	16	evidence on the situational effects of COVID-19 bodes ill for the implementation of effective
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3	1	outbrook strategies that support A mariagns with diabates. As the pendamia parsists into the		
4	1	outbreak strategies that support Americans with diabetes. As the pandemic persists into the		
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6 7	n	formarcally fortune the need to address this can cally intensifies		
7 0	2	foreseeable future, the need to address this gap only intensifies.		
8 9				
9 10				
11	3	The main objective of this investigation was to measure how, and the extent to which, the		
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14	4	COVID-19 situation has affected self-reported glycemic management in the general community		
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17	5	population of Americans with type 1 and 2 diabetes. In so doing, we aimed to chart the complex		
18	C	population of functional and spectrum 2 and costs in so acting, we winted to chart the compton		
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20	6	hinterland of COVID-19 as it intersects with America's other deadly epidemic: Diabetes. The		
21	0	mineriand of COVID-19 as it intersects with America's other deadry epidemic. Diabetes. The		
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24	7	results of this study will be instructive for handling chronic disease management both during the		
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27	8	current public health emergency and in future.		
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33 34	10	RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS		
35	10	<u>RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS</u>		
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40	12	Study design		
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46	14	This cross-sectional study describes the results of a COVID-19-specific sub-questionnaire that		
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49 50	15	was administered as part of the larger iNPHORM (Investigating Novel Predictions of		
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3 4	1	Hypoglycemia Occurrence Using Real-world Models) panel survey: a one-year prospective			
5					
6 7 8	2	analysis of real-world hypoglycemia risk stratification in the US (NCT04219514).(20)			
9 10 11	3				
12					
13 14 15	4	Participants and data collection			
15 16 17	5				
18 19 20	6	iNPHORM participants were conveniently sampled from randomly selected subsets of a			
21 22 23	7	probability-based internet panel comprising >10,000 Americans with type 1 diabetes and			
24 25 26	8	>58,000 with type 2 diabetes (≥18 years old). These subsets were defined based on study			
27 28 29	9	requirements, mainly diabetes status. Individuals in each subset were contacted via email about			
30 31	10	the study; those interested in participating were directed to complete a screening			
32 33 34 35	11	questionnaire.			
36 37 38	12	Panel members 18-90 years old, living in the US for the past year, and with type 1 or 2			
39 40 41	13	diabetes taking insulin and/or secretagogues were eligible to enroll. Individuals were ineligible if			
42 43 44 45	14	they were or had been pregnant within the past year, were involved in an interventional study, or			
46 47 48	15	were unable to read/understand English. To finalize enrollment, eligible respondents needed to			
49 50 51 52 53	16	provide consent and complete a baseline questionnaire. Once enrolled, participants were			
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2	diabetes insights and real-world survey conduct.
3	Respondent data were collected via the online IIS platform. In addition to the screener and
4	baseline surveys, iNPHORM participants were asked to complete 12 prescheduled, monthly
5	follow-up questionnaires. Follow-ups were required to be submitted within seven-days of the
6	distribution date. Automatic reminders and notifications containing survey links were emailed
7	throughout the prospective phase. As well, honoraria were issued in the form of e-gift cards; the
8	incentivization scheme (based on the quantity and timing of completed surveys) complied with
9	social standards of reciprocity and Western University's Research Ethics Board.
10	Owing to the escalating severity of COVID-19 in the US, iNPHORM follow-up
11	questionnaires were emended post study commencement (at follow-up Month 2) to include a
12	COVID-19-specific sub-questionnaire. The sub-questionnaire assessed community infection, and
13	the impact of the pandemic on diabetes management. Data pertaining to the first administered
14	COVID-19 sub-questionnaire (April 21st to 28th, 2020) are summarized herein.
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4	1	Survey instruments and variables
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10	3	iNPHORM questionnaires (screening, baseline, and follow-ups [including the COVID-19 sub-
11	-	
12	4	questionnaire]) were developed by our team of epidemiologists and clinicians in consultation
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14 15	5	with the literature. All surveys were designed to be completed in English on diverse internet-
16	5	with the interature. All surveys were designed to be completed in English on diverse internet-
17		
18	6	equipped devices (e.g., computers, smart phones, tablets). Efforts were taken to avoid double-
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20 21		
22	7	barreled questions, clinical jargon, and value-laden or complex/ambiguous language.
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24		
25	8	Additionally, each item was specified to ensure its mutual exclusivity, exhaustiveness, and
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29	9	appropriateness of detail. When necessary, concise, clearly worded preambles, instructions, and
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31	10	definitions (including expounding mouseover texts) were provided. Participants could take as
32 33	10	definitions (including expounding mouseover texts) were provided. I articipants could take as
34		
35	11	much time as needed to reflect on items and/or review clinical documentation prior to
36		1
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38 39	12	completing the question/survey; at any point, they could opt out of responding. Questionnaires
40		
41	13	were piloted via semi-structured interviews prior to fielding.
42	15	were photed via semi-structured interviews phot to neiding.
43	14	
44 45	11	
46	15	COVID 10 status To essentain self segented and month infection status (March to April 2020)
47	15	COVID-19 status: To ascertain self-reported one-month infection status (March to April, 2020),
48		
49 50	16	we adapted the CDC COVID-19 case definitions (April 2020).(21) Two structured items were
50 51	10	we adapted the CDC CO (ID I) cube dominions (ripin 2020).(21) I we structured items were
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53	17	developed to capture clinical criteria (symptoms), laboratory criteria (confirmed diagnoses), and
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1	epidemiologic exposure (e.g., close contact with a confirmed or suspected case; international
2	travel). Aligning with CDC recommendations, we classified respondents as confirmed, probable,
3	or possible cases. Confirmed cases were those who reported having been formally diagnosed
4	with COVID-19. Probable cases were those who did not have a formal diagnosis but who
5	reported 1) symptoms typical of COVID-19 and 2) $\geq$ 1 form of epidemiologic exposure. If only
6	one of the two latter conditions was met, we classified individuals as possible cases.
7	Impact of the COVID-19 situation on aspects of diabetes management. We developed 12
8	structured, 5-point Likert items to assess how, on a scale from "much harder" to "much easier",
9	"the Coronavirus (COVID-19) situation has impacted" various socio-economic,
10	behavioural/clinical, and psychosocial aspects of participants' diabetes management (past
11	month). A neutral option (the pandemic has had no impact) was ordered in the middle between
12	negative and positive response categories. Topics included drug affordability/accessibility,
13	medication-taking behaviour, healthcare consultations, glucose monitoring, and social support.
14	Additionally, we incorporated two structured, binary items to assess drug rationing. See
15	Appendix A for a complete list of these questions.
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1	Socio-demographic and clinical characteristics of study sample. So as to align with the first
2	administered COVID-19 sub-questionnaire (analyzed herein), socio-demographic and clinical
3	characteristics were collated between the screening, baseline, and follow-up questionnaires
4	Months 1 and 2. Past-month frequencies of self-reported severe hypoglycemia (SH) and non-
5	severe hypoglycemia (NSH), defined in accordance with the ADA,(22) were assessed at follow-
6	up Month 2. Non-severe hypoglycemia was defined as any event that could be self-treated; SH
7	was defined as a medical emergency that could not be self-treated (e.g., required third-party
8	assistance).
9	
10	assistance). Statistical analysis
11	
12	Categorical variables were summarized as frequencies and percentages, while continuous
13	variables as means and standard deviations (SD) or medians and interquartile ranges (IQR).
14	Crude hypoglycemia frequencies were calculated as incidence rates and proportions. Confirmed,
15	probable, and possible COVID-19 cases were calculated as one-month period prevalences.

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4	1	The impact of the COVID-19 situation on glycemic management was descriptively analyzed.
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6 7	2	Clussonia management was operationalized assorting to different important separate from drug
8	2	Glycemic management was operationalized according to different important aspects from drug
9		
10	3	affordability/accessibility to social support. Variability by diabetes type was assessed using the
11 12		
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14	4	Wilcoxin-Mann-Whitney test for Likert responses and the two-sample test of proportions for
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16 17	F	hinem non ence. Tests were two sided at 0.05 All estimates were based on complete esse
18	5	binary responses. Tests were two-sided at $\alpha$ =0.05. All estimates were based on complete case
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20	6	analyses and were computed using STATA V.16.0.
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26 27	0	Detient and meldie investment
27	8	Patient and public involvement
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34	10	Neither patients nor the public were directly involved in designing or conducting this study.
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40	12	Ethical considerations
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46 47	14	Western investigators and UC abtained othing any never from the Western University's Descende
48	14	Western investigators and IIS obtained ethics approval from the Western University's Research
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50 51	15	Ethics Board and the Pearl Institutional Review Board (US), respectively (ID: 112986).
51 52		
53	17	Dortiginants gave informed concert before taking part in the study
54	16	Participants gave informed consent before taking part in the study.
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7	2	RESULTS
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13	4	A total of 704 iNPHORM participants completed the first COVID-19 sub-questionnaire (April,
14	4	A total of 704 INPHORM participants completed the first COVID-19 sub-questionnane (April,
15 16		
17	5	2020). Of these respondents, 667 (type 1 diabetes: 18.0%; type 2 diabetes: 82%) reported taking
18	0	2020). Of these respondents, our (type 1 diabetes: 10.0%, type 2 diabetes: 02%) reported taking
19		
20	6	insulin and/or secretagogues (i.e., met our study's eligibility criteria); their socio-demographic
21 22		
22		
24	7	and clinical characteristics are summarized in Tables 1 and 2, respectively.
25		
26		
27 28	8	Of the 667 eligible respondents, half were female. The mean age was 51.9 (SD: 14.6; Min,
29		
30	9	May 20, 87) years with 22.20 $\times$ 65 years and Dispeter dynation was 26.0 (IOD: 22.0) years in
31	9	Max: 20, 87) years with 23.2% $\geq$ 65 years old. Diabetes duration was 26.0 (IQR: 23.0) years in
32		
33 34	10	people with type 1 and 11.0 (IQR: 14.0) years in people with type 2 diabetes. All respondents
35	10	people with type 1 and 1110 (1Q11 1 10) years in people with type 2 and the spondents
36		
37	11	with type 1 diabetes, and $38.4\%$ with type 2 diabetes, reported taking insulin without
38		
39 40		
41	12	secretagogues; among the remaining participants with type 2 diabetes, 36.9% were taking
42		
43	12	
44 45	13	secretagogues without insulin, and 24.7% were taking a combination of insulin and
45 46		
47	14	secretagogues. Twenty-three percent (type 1 diabetes: 23.3%; type 2 diabetes: 23.0%) of the total
48	17	secretagogues. Twenty-three percent (type T diabetes: 25.5%, type 2 diabetes: 25.0%) of the total
49		
50 51	15	sample reported A1C values $\geq 8.1\%$ . Sixty-one percent reported $\geq 1$ diabetes-related
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54	16	complication(s), while 83.2% reported $\geq 1$ comorbidity.
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1	Table 3 summarizes self-reported hypoglycemia incidences (combined daytime and
2	nocturnal). The incidence rate and incidence proportion of NSH were higher in people with type
3	1 diabetes (incidence rate: 5.7 [95%CI: 4.6 to 7.1] events per person-month (PPM) and incidence
4	proportion: 83.3% [95%CI: 75.7 to 88.9]) versus type 2 diabetes (incidence rate: 2.1 [95%CI: 1.8
5	to 2.4] events PPM and incidence proportion: 55.0% [95%CI: 50.8 to 59.1]). However, SH,
6	occurring at an overall rate of 0.7 (95%CI: 0.5 to 0.96) events PPM, was almost twice as
7	common in people with type 2 versus type 1 diabetes (0.8 [95%CI: 0.5 to 1.1] versus 0.4
8	[95%CI: 0.2 to 0.9] events PPM]). Similarly, the monthly incidence proportion of SH, affecting
9	nearly 13% (95%CI: 10.6 to 15.7) of respondents, was higher in people with type 2 diabetes
10	compared to type 1 diabetes (13.2% [95%CI: 10.6 to 16.3] versus 11.7% [95%CI: 7.08 to 18.6]).
11	The one-month period prevalences of confirmed, probable, and possible COVID-19 were
12	0.75% (T1DM: n=0; T2DM: n=5 [0.75%]), 0.75% (T1DM: n=0; T2DM: n=5 [0.75%]), and
13	8.9% (T1DM: n=16 [13.33%]; T2DM: n=43 [7.86%]), respectively.
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15	The impact of the COVID-19 situation on aspects of glycemic management
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1	A summary of results is provided in Tables 4 and 5. Almost a quarter of respondents (type 1
2	diabetes: 30.0%; type 2 diabetes: 23.0%, <i>P</i> -value =0.08) reported that the COVID-19 situation
3	made affording rent and other living expenses either "somewhat harder" (type 1 diabetes: 19.2%;
4	type 2 diabetes: 14.6%) or "much harder" (type 1 diabetes: 10.8%; type 2 diabetes: 8.4%).
5	Similarly, 27.6% (type 1 diabetes: 16.7%; type 2 diabetes: 28.5%, <i>P</i> -value =0.29) of participants
6	expressed it was "somewhat harder" (type 1 diabetes: 16.7%; type 2 diabetes: 20.1%) or "much
7	harder" (type 1 diabetes: 6.7%; type 2 diabetes: 8.4%) to ensure adequate food supply to avoid
8	hypoglycemia. Close to one in five experienced challenges paying for their diabetes medications
9	(type 1 diabetes: 16.7%; type 2 diabetes: 19.0%, <i>P</i> -value =0.71) or test strips/sensors (type 1
10	diabetes: 13.3%; type 2 diabetes: 18.3%, <i>P</i> -value =0.38); of these individuals, approximately half
11	reported that their ability to afford therapeutic supplies had been made "much harder" by the
12	pandemic. Access-related issues were also identified. Overall, 27.4% (type 1 diabetes: 30.8%;
13	type 2 diabetes: 26.7%, <i>P</i> -value =0.24) found the pandemic made it "somewhat harder" (overall:
14	18.7%; type 1 diabetes: 20.0%; type 2 diabetes: 18.5%) or "much harder" (overall: 8.7%; type 1
15	diabetes: 10.8%; type 2 diabetes: 8.2%) to retrieve diabetes medications from the pharmacy. As
16	well, because of the COVID-19 situation, ~17% of participants reported rationing their diabetes

	1	medications either to make supplies last longer (type 1 diabetes: 13.3%; type 2 diabetes: 17.4%,
,	2	<i>P</i> -value =0.28) or avoid hypoglycemia (overall: 16.8%; type 1 diabetes: 15.8%; type 2 diabetes:
-	3	17.0%, <i>P</i> -value =0.76).
2	4	The COVID-19 situation also influenced participants' abilities to self-manage. Many
:	5	respondents struggled to remember to take their diabetes medication(s) as prescribed (overall:
(	6	13.7%; type 1 diabetes: 6.7%; type 2 diabetes: 15.2%, <i>P</i> -value =0.047) as well as test and
,	7	monitor their blood glucose (overall: 15.9%; type 1 diabetes: 5.0%; type 2 diabetes: 18.3%, P-
:	8	value <0.001) and risk of hypoglycemia regularly (overall: 12.0%; type 1 diabetes: 7.5%; type 2
	9	diabetes: 13.0%, <i>P</i> -value =0.026). Over a third of respondents (type 1 diabetes: 35.0%; type 2
1	0	diabetes: 36.8%, <i>P</i> -value =0.75) found it "somewhat harder" (overall: 23.7%; type 1 diabetes:
1	1	23.3%; type 2 diabetes: 23.8%) or "much harder" (overall: 12.7%; type 1 diabetes: 11.7%; type 2
12	2	diabetes: 13.0%) to consult with their diabetes care providers. In terms of exercise maintenance,
1.	3	almost one in two respondents (type 1 diabetes: 47.5%; type 2 diabetes: 46.1, <i>P</i> -value =0.84)
14	4	reported that it had been "somewhat harder" (overall: 31.3%; type 1 diabetes: 30.0%; type 2
1:	5	diabetes: 31.6%) or "much harder" (overall: 15.0%; type 1 diabetes: 17.5%; type 2 diabetes:
10	6	14.4%) to stay as physically active as usual.
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1	Lastly, psychosocial effects were observed. Many participants (overall: 14.6%; type 1
2	diabetes: 11.7%; type 2 diabetes: 15.2%, <i>P</i> -value =0.5) felt the pandemic situation had made it
3	"somewhat harder" (overall: 9.3%; type 1 diabetes: 7.5%; type 2 diabetes: 9.7%) or "much
4	harder" (overall: 5.3%; type 1 diabetes: 4.2%; type 2 diabetes: 5.5%) to remain in control of their
5	hypoglycemia. Nineteen percent also reported having insufficient social support to help manage
6	their risk (type 1 diabetes: 10.8%; type 2 diabetes: 20.3%, <i>P</i> -value =0.056); for 12.4% (type 1
7	diabetes: 8.3%; type 2 diabetes: 13.4%) accessing social support was "somewhat harder", while
8	for 6.2% (type 1 diabetes: 2.5%; type 2 diabetes: 7.0%) it was "much harder".
9	Although approximately 50% of respondents believed the pandemic situation had no impact
10	on their glycemic management, rarely was a beneficial impact on participants' lives observed. In
11	general, less than 5% of the sample reported that the pandemic made aspects of their diabetes
12	management either "somewhat easier" or "much easier".
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14	DISCUSSION
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1	Experts have long been aware of the impacts a protracted emergency would have on healthcare
2	and outcomes. Now, as two life-altering diseases collide, many Americans are finding
3	themselves at the nidus of extreme clinical vulnerability, and with little support. Despite advice
4	furnished by several national and international organizations, PWD are clearly struggling to
5	maintain glycemic management standards during the pandemic. This gap forebodes important,
6	population-based consequences to diabetes-related morbidities, both now and well-after
7	vaccinations are distributed.
8	iNPHORM is the first investigation to quantify the impact of the COVID-19 situation on the
9	socio-economic, behavioural/clinical, and psychosocial aspects of glycemic management among
10	community-dwelling Americans. Based on the results of our study, the pandemic was found to
11	cause substantial deficiencies in routine diabetes care in the US, a finding consistent with
12	international data published by the World Health Organization.(23) Of note, only few
13	appreciable differences were observed by diabetes type; of those identified, most related to the
14	behavioural aspects of glycemic management.
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10	3	People with diabetes have been severely and disproportionately affected by the pandemic. Based
11	5	reopie with thabetes have been severely and disproportionately affected by the pandemic. Based
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13	4	on recent data published by the ADA, 24% of PWD have been forced to use savings, loans, or
14 15	-	on recent data published by the ADA, 24 % of 1 WD have been foreed to use savings, toans, of
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17	5	money from their stimulus checks.(24) This percentage increases to half among the 33% of PWD
18	5	money nom men summus checks.(24) This percentage mereases to nam among the 35 % of 1 wD
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20	6	(compared to 29% of people without diabetes) who have lost income since the pandemic
21	0	(compared to 25% of people without diabetes) who have lost meonie since the pandemie
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23 24	7	began.(24) It is thus not surprising that almost a quarter of iNPHORM respondents revealed that
24 25	,	begun.(21) it is thus not surprising that annost a quarter of it if frontist respondents revealed that
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27	8	the COVID-19 situation impeded their abilities to afford rent and other living expenses. As the
28	Ũ	and CO ( 12 1) shows on impedeed their work of a forth and outer in ting expenses. The and
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30	9	outbreak continues to escalate across the country, it is expected that the financial situation of
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34	10	many Americans will become increasingly precarious.(18)
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37	11	In this study, economic incertitude also affected participants' access to healthy food.(9)
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40 41	12	COVID-19-related financial or environmental factors can invoke a state of food insecurity, a
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44	13	major predictor of clinically significant hypoglycemia.(25) One US study found that exhaustion
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47	14	of food budgets was associated with a 27% increase in hypoglycemia-related hospital
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51	15	admissions.(26) Food insecurity among PWD has also been associated with poorer glucose
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54	16	monitoring and higher A1C values.(26)
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3	1	Furthermore, decreases in financial resources, especially in the absence of health coverage,
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7	2	can inhibit access to diabetes medical supplies. An American study found that prescription refills
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10 11	3	for diabetes medications fell by 10% between January and August 2020(27); however, whether
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14	4	or not this was due to financial or environmental factors was unclarified. Our data reveal that
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17	5	while roughly 20% of respondents experienced difficulties affording medications or
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20	6	strips/sensors, over a quarter reported issues physically retrieving medical supplies from
21	0	surps/sensors, over a quarter reported issues physically retrieving incurear supplies from
22		
23 24	7	pharmacies (perhaps due to prevention orders or anxieties over potential exposure).
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27	8	Interruptions in healthcare access may explain the significant percentages of respondents who
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29 30		
31	9	reported rationing their diabetes supplies. Our study investigated whether or not PWD ration
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33	10	
34 25	10	their medications not just to extend their lifespan, but to prevent hypoglycemia. Despite evidence
35 36		
37	11	that lockdown exacerbates hypoglycemia risk, (28) no research yet existed measuring the
38	11	that lockdown exacerbates hypogrycenna lisk, (26) no research yet existed measuring the
39		
40	12	potential risk of hypoglycemia-specific medication rationing during COVID-19. Treatment
41 42		
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44	13	rationing contradicts the CDC's recommendations for managing diabetes during the
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47 48	14	pandemic.(11) Not only can antihyperglycemic underuse increase the likelihood of deleterious
49		
50	15	short terms sutcomes but it can also drive up the cost of lang terms dishetes related
51	15	short-term outcomes, but it can also drive up the cost of long-term diabetes-related
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53 54	16	complications.(29)
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3 4	1	The impact of the COVID-19 situation on socio-economic indicators predictably did not vary
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7 0	2	by diabetes type with nearly equivalent percentages of each reporting financial and
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10	3	environmental instabilities because of the pandemic.
11	5	environmental instabilities occause of the pandenne.
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17 18	5	COVID-19 and the behavioural/clinical aspects of glycemic management
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20	6	
21 22	U	
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24	7	Evidence from past national emergencies underscores their profound and lasting implications on
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26 27	0	alf more concert habeviewer in a carle with a consistent illuscases (16,17) Own study in the first
28	8	self-management behaviours in people with coexistent illnesses.(16,17) Our study is the first
29		
30	9	American diabetes investigation to measure these implications in the COVID-19 era. Because of
31 32		
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34	10	the pandemic, several iNPHORM participants reported forgetting to take their prescribed
35 36		
37	11	medications. This was especially true of type 2 diabetes respondents, perhaps due to variability
38	11	incarcations. This was espectanty true of type 2 anabetes respondenta, perhaps due to variability
39 40		
40 41	12	in medication regimens compared to those with type 1 diabetes. Lapses in medication use can
42		
43	12	compromise therement is adherence and efficiencies leading to elevated A1C values as for out as
44 45	13	compromise therapeutic adherence and efficacies, leading to elevated A1C values as far-out as
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47	14	16 months post-emergency.(17) This risk is likely compounded by financial- and access-related
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<del>5</del> 0		
51	15	issues resulting from the pandemic (described in previous section) as well as sub-optimal blood
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1	glucose tracking. Many respondents, especially those with type 2 diabetes, reported difficulties
2	testing/monitoring their glucose and, specifically, hypoglycemia risk.
3	In addition, the pandemic has imposed dramatic changes on routine healthcare access and
4	delivery, particularly among individuals with underlying health conditions.(30) To prioritize
5	access to hospital beds, equipment, and staff, as well as to minimize viral transmission, much of
6	routine healthcare has been postponed or cancelled. As well, people with diabetes may decline
7	attendance at hospitals, clinics, and screening exams over concerns of infection. More than a
8	third of respondents indicated that the COVID-19 situation made it harder to consult with their
9	diabetes providers. Interestingly, this finding did not significantly differ by diabetes type.
10	Research has shown that deferred or avoided healthcare due to the pandemic can contribute to
11	excess morbidity and mortality.(31) Based on an article by Woolf SH et al.,(32) US states with
12	large numbers of COVID-19-related deaths experience large proportional increases in deaths
13	from other underlying causes, including diabetes. Impacts on health may worsen the longer
14	community containment measures last. A simulation study of data from previous global disasters
15	found the duration of lockdown to be directly proportional to A1C and number of diabetes-
16	related complications.(33) Unfortunately, these effects may endure even after the viral outbreak

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1	has been quelled. Evidence from past disasters, has shown that reduced access to healthcare
2	during the acute phase of an emergency can lead to an aftermath of increased deaths and
3	morbidities including stroke, myocardial infarctions, and diabetes-related complications.(34)
4	Such increases in morbidity and mortality resulting from delayed and reduced healthcare access
5	are especially concerning among iNPHORM participants, of whom almost 90% reported some
6	comorbidity or diabetes-related complication.
7	Finally, COVID-19 mitigation measures can restrict access to indoor and outdoor physical
8	activities, contributing to increased sedentary behaviours that adversely affect immune defence,
9	glycemic control, and metabolic health in general.(9) Based on data from other viral infections,
10	sub-optimal physical activity can accentuate symptom severity, recovery times, and
11	transmissibility; it can also compromise post-vaccination immunity and increase secondary
12	infection risk.(35) Regardless of diabetes type, staggering percentages of participants reported
13	reduced physical activity because of the pandemic, a sure warning sign of the extensive health
14	consequences to come.
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3 4	1	COVID-19 and the psychosocial aspects of glycemic management
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6 7	2	
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10	3	The psychosocial ramifications of COVID-19 in PWD have been minimally investigated in the
12		
13 14	4	literature. Our study specifically assessed how the pandemic has impacted respondents' senses of
15		
16 17	5	personal control over their hypoglycemia risk. Significant decrements in self-perceived control
18	5	personal control over their hypogrycenna risk. Significant decrements in sen-perceived control
19 20		
20	6	were observed across all participants. Sense of control-the learned belief that one does master,
22		
23 24	7	control, and shape one's life—has been linked to several positive health effects including
25		
26 27	8	proactive behavior and emotional well-being. (36) However, inadequate supplies, financial loss,
28	0	proactive behavior and emotional wen-being. (50) However, madequate supplies, manetar loss,
29 30		
31	9	fear psychosis of being infected, and media/disinformation can all contribute to increased
32		
33 34	10	feelings of powerlessness.(37) Reductions in sense of personal control have been associated with
35		7
36 37	11	heightened stress, anxiety, and depressive symptoms(38)—outcomes that have been linked to
38	11	neightened sitess, anxiety, and depressive symptoms(56)—outcomes that have been mixed to
39 40		
41	12	poor medication adherence and diminished self-management.(39)
42 43		
44	13	No study had yet quantified the effect the COVID-19 situation on social support access in
45 46		
40 47	14	PWD. While support from family and friends can mediate the contextual impacts of COVID-19,
48	17	TWD. While support from family and mends can mediate the contextual impacts of COVID-19,
49 50		
51	15	several respondents in our study, particularly those with type 2 diabetes, reported insufficient
52 53		
54	16	social support to help manage their hypoglycemia. Assistance from informal relationships has
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3 4 5	1	been identified as a major component to hypoglycemia self-management with demonstrable
6 7 8	2	impacts on diabetes-related morbidity and mortality reduction.(14,38,40) The gap in social
9 10 11 12	3	support observed in our study portend troubling implications for hypoglycemia incidence as well
13 14 15	4	as other clinical and psychosocial sequelae.
16 17 18 19	5	Indeed, sub-optimal social support among people with type 2 diabetes, compounded by
20 21 22	6	inadequate hypoglycemia risk monitoring, could explain why SH was found to be more common
23 24 25	7	in our respondents with type 2 versus type 1 diabetes. Though comparable overall hypoglycemia
26 27 28	8	incidences have been observed in other real-world studies,(41) the 2018 InHypo-DM study(42)
29 30 31 32	9	reported similarly higher SH events rates in people with type 2 versus type 1 diabetes. This
33 34 35	10	finding suggests that important deficiencies—irrespective of the pandemic situation—may exist
36 37 38	11	with regard to hypoglycemia education, management behaviors, and/or primary care in people
39 40 41 42	12	with type 2 diabetes when compared to their type 1 diabetes counterpart. Parenthetically, unlike
43 44 45	13	many other real-world hypoglycemia investigations that focus exclusively on insulin-treated
46 47 48	14	diabetes,(43-45) it should be noted that 25% and 18% of participants in iNPHORM and InHypo-
49 50 51	15	DM, respectively, reported taking insulin in combination with secretagogues. Research has
52 53 54 55 56	16	shown that insulin-secretagogue therapy substantially increases the rate of SH compared to
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3 4	1	insulin without secretagogues and secretagogues without insulin.(46)
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15 16	5	Study strengths and limitations
17	5	Study strengths and limitations
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23	7	This study evaluates a general, community-based cohort of Americans with diabetes—
24 25		
25 26	8	irrespective of infection status—to derive insight into the real-world, real-time consequences of
27	0	intespective of infection status to derive insight into the real world, real time consequences of
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29 30	9	the COVID-19 situation in diabetes. To mitigate selection bias, a broad sample of participants
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32	10	was recruited from a large much shility based internet name! Online data collection analyled us to
33 34	10	was recruited from a large, probability-based internet panel. Online data collection enabled us to
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36	11	capitalize on the high prevalence of internet use in the US,(47) while optimizing survey reach
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40	12	and accessibility, respondent honesty, and representativeness, as well as reducing item
41 42		
42 43	13	nonresponse.(48,49) Participant anonymity and confidentiality were assured to decrease the risk
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46 47	14	of social desirability bias.(50)
48		
49	15	By developing a pandemic-specific questionnaire, our research team was able to elucidate the
50 51	10	By developing a pandenne specific questionnane, our research team was able to chactate the
52		
53	16	once unknown repercussions of the COVID-19 situation in Americans with diabetes; indeed,
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55 56	17	self-report data can offer unique and robust insight routinely uncaptured by other methods.
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1	Though the study is cross-sectional in design, self-reported causal attributions of the pandemic
2	were operationalized for each questionnaire item: respondents were asked to indicate to what
3	extent "the Coronavirus (COVID-19) situation [had] impacted" given aspects of glycemic
4	management. Such information had yet to be garnered in the US.
5	Nevertheless, certain study limitations should be noted. Selection biases may have arisen to
6	the extent that respondents differed non-randomly from the general US population with diabetes
7	taking insulin and/or secretagogues. Specifically, survivorship and coverage bias (e.g., due to
8	high observed percentages of Caucasian, educated, and insured participants) could have curtailed
9	the external validity of results. Volunteer bias may have also led participants to over- or under-
10	estimate their responses. For example, those who chose to complete the first COVID-19 sub-
11	questionnaire may have possessed systemically different (positive or negative) pandemic-related
12	perspectives and/or experiences than those who did not.
13	Estimates derived in our study may be conservative, as they stem from a one-month data
14	capture in the early phase of the pandemic trajectory. In addition, self-reported responses could
15	have been influenced by social desirability bias and/or recall error. Even so, self-report data-
16	typically the Hobson's choice for information on perspectives, views, and opinions-enabled us
17	to capture, for the first time, the impacts of COVID-19 on various socio-economic,

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3 4 5	1	behavioural/clinical, and psychosocial aspects of diabetes management in the US. The results of
6 7 8	2	our study (though not exhaustive, per se), provide important, unprecedented insight into the real-
9 10 11 12	3	world fallouts of the pandemic situation on diabetes-related health.
12 13 14 15	4	Analyses of psychometric properties and/or adjusted frequency estimates were beyond the
16 17 18	5	scope of this manuscript. Rather this study supplies descriptive, novel, and time-sensitive
19 20 21 22	6	evidence at the convergence of COVID-19 and diabetes, contributing to both the national and
22 23 24	7	international body of pandemic literature.
25 26	8	
27 28 29	9	CONCLUSIONS
30 31 32 33	10	CONCLUSIONS
34 35 36	11	A 'hinterland' is defined as an area lying beyond what is visible or known. As a society we have
37 38 39 40	12	exhibited unparalleled bravery in the face of one of the most terrifying crises known to
41 42 43	13	humankind. However, our mission to abate the pandemic is only just beginning. Indeed, the
44 45 46	14	COVID-19 calamity has had untold reverberations in the lives of Americans, extending well-
47 48 49 50	15	beyond the visible devastations caused by infection alone. Not least are the impacts COVID-19
51 52 53	16	has had on PWD—cases and non-cases alike—who have struggled to maintain control of their
54 55 56	17	disease amidst the pandemic.
57 58 59 60		33 For peer review only - http://bmjopen.bmj.com/site/about/guidelines.xhtml

in the aftermath.

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Yet, until now, the nature and scale of these impacts in the US were largely unknown or

uncharacterized. Thus, the results of our study draw not only awareness to the far-reaching and

potential lasting consequences of the pandemic, but offer an evidence base for decisive action. In

identifying the unique needs of Americans with diabetes during the COVID-19 era, we can begin

undisrupted care within communities of people with diabetes. As we combat the acute phase of

COVID-19, we must not lose sight of the pernicious health challenges that coexist and await us

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to develop, implement, and assess clinical and public health strategies that ensure safe,

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24	7	and wrote the manuscript. B.L.R. contributed to the discussion and reviewed/edited the
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27	8	manuscript IDD contributed to the discussion and reviewed/adited the manuscript IWD
28	8	manuscript. J.D.B. contributed to the discussion and reviewed/edited the manuscript. J.W.D.
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30	9	contributed to the discussion and reviewed/edited the manuscript. J.E.B. reviewed/edited the
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34	10	manuscript. S.B.H. contributed to the discussion, researched data, and reviewed/edited the
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50	15	TRANSPARENCY DELCARATION: S.B.H. affirms that the manuscript is an honest, accurate,
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52	16	and transparent account of the study being reported; that no important aspects of the study have
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been omitted; and that any discrepancies from the study as originally planned (and, if relevant,
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 3

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- 11 and can take responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

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3 4 5	1	member advisory board, consultant, clinical studies; JDRF: grant; Lawson: grant; Canadian
6 7 8	2	Institutes of Health and Research: grants.
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49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56	15	
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2 3	1	ETHICS STATEMENT. Western investigators and US shtained athies annexed from the
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## Table 1. Socio-demographic characteristics of study sample, overall and by diabetes type

SOCIO DEMOCR	APHIC CHARACTERISTICS	Total	T1DM	T2DM
SOCIO-DENIOGR	APHIC CHARACTERISTICS	N=667	120 (17.99%)	547 (82.01%
Age, mean (SD)				
	Years	51.85 (14.57)	45.96 (14.43)	53.14 (14.29)
Age (categorical), n (%)	<i>b</i> o			
	$\geq 18$ and $\leq 40$ years	180 (26.99)	51 (42.50)	129 (23.58)
	$\geq$ 41 and $\leq$ 64 years	332 (49.78)	53 (44.17)	279 (51.01)
	$\geq 65$ and $\leq 74$ years	123 (18.44)	11 (9.17)	112 (20.48)
	$\geq$ 75 years	32 (4.80)	5 (4.17)	27 (4.94)
Sex assigned at birth, n (%)		eh.		
	Male	326 (48.88)	40 (33.33)	286 (52.29)
	Female	341 (51.12)	80 (66.67)	261 (47.71)
Race, n (%)				
<b>Race</b> , n (%)	White	555 (83.21)	111 (92.50)	444 (81.17)
<b>Race</b> , n (%)	White Black or African American	555 (83.21) 52 (7.80)	111 (92.50) 3 (2.50)	444 (81.17) 49 (8.96)
<b>Race</b> , n (%)				
<b>Race</b> , n (%)	Black or African American	52 (7.80)	3 (2.50)	49 (8.96)

<b>Hignoria Lating/a or Spanish arigin</b> $p(\mathcal{O}_{r})$			
Hispanic, Latino/a, or Spanish origin, n (%) Mexican, Mexican American, Chicano	27 (4.05)	2 (1.67)	25 (4.57)
Puerto Rican	6 (0.90)	1 (0.83)	23 (4.37) 5 (0.91)
Cuban	2 (0.30)	0	2 (0.37)
Other Hispanic, Latino/a, or Spanish origin	3 (0.45)	1 (0.83)	2 (0.37) 2 (0.37)
Not of Hispanic, Latino/a, or Spanish origin	629 (94.30)	116 (96.67)	513 (93.78)
for of Hispanic, Eathora, of Spanish of gin	029 (91.30)	110 (50.07)	515 (55.76)
Highest level of education, n (%)			
Elementary or high school (No diploma)	10 (1.50)	3 (2.50)	7 (1.28)
High school diploma or GED/alternative credential	101 (15.14)	19 (15.83)	82 (14.99)
College degree or some college	425 (63.72)	75 (62.50)	350 (63.99
Degree beyond completing first college Bachelor's degree	131 (19.64)	23 (19.17)	108 (19.74)
Current employment status, n (%)	0 <sub>b</sub>		
Employed full-time or part-time (including self-employment)	346 (51.87)	73 (60.83)	273 (49.91)
Temporarily laid off/Temporarily unemployed due to a health issue	4 (0.60)	1 (0.83)	3 (0.55)
Unable to work due to disability	84 (12.59)	11 (9.17)	73 (13.35)
Unemployed	55 (8.25)	15 (12.50)	40 (7.31)
Student	4 (0.60)	1 (0.83)	3 (0.55)
Retired	174 (26.09)	19 (15.83)	155 (28.34)
Total annual household income (before taxes and deductions), $n \ (\%)$			

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<\$24,999	107 (16.21)	13 (11.21)	94 (17.28
\$25,000 to \$54,999	173 (26.21)	25 (21.55)	148 (27.2
\$55,000 to \$84,999	142 (21.52)	39 (33.62)	103 (18.9
\$85,000 to \$114,999	109 (16.52)	22 (18.97)	87 (15.99
≥ \$115,000	129 (19.55)	17 (14.66)	112 (20.5
urrent healthcare insurance, n (%)			
Insurance through a current or former employer or union that is not a high	153 (22.94)	36 (30.00)	117 (21.3
deductible plan <sup>†</sup>			
Insurance purchased directly from an insurance company that is not a high	49 (7.35)	11 (9.17)	38 (6.95)
deductible plan <sup>†</sup>			
High deductible plan <sup>†</sup>	34 (5.10)	11 (9.17)	23 (4.20)
Medicare	77 (11.54)	7 (5.83)	70 (12.80
Medicaid, Medical Assistance, or other government-assistance plan	74 (11.09)	17 (14.17)	57 (10.42
TRICARE and Veterans Affairs	9 (1.35)	2 (1.67)	7 (1.28)
Other	5 (0.75)	2 (1.67)	3 (0.55)
	257 (38.53)	32 (26.67)	225 (41.1.
Two or more insurance plans			7 (1.28)

\* Responses may not sum to total (N=667) due to missing data.

<sup>†</sup> High Deductible Plan: Deductible >\$1,350 for an individual or >\$2,700 for a family.

## Table 2. Clinical characteristics of study sample, overall and by diabetes type

CLINICAL CHARACTERISTICS	Total	T1DM	T2DM
	N=667	120 (17.99%)	547 (82.01%)
Duration of diabetes, median (IQR)			
Yea	rs 13 (15)	26 (23)	11 (14)
Most recent hemoglobin A1C, n (%)			
$\leq 7^{\circ}$	% 252 (37.78)	45 (37.50)	207 (37.84)
7.1-8	% 239 (35.83)	45 (37.50)	194 (35.47)
8.1-9	% 99 (14.84)	14 (11.67)	85 (15.54)
$\geq 9.1^{\circ}$	% 55 (8.25)	14 (11.67)	41 (7.50)
Unsu	re 12 (1.80)	0	12 (2.19)
BMI at time of study enrolment, median (IQR)			
BMI (kg/m	<sup>2</sup> ) 30.38 (11.87)	26.43 (6.18)	32.19 (11.99)
Current insulin and/or secretagogue use, n (%)			
Insulin without Secretagogue	es 330 (49.48)	120 (100.00)	210 (38.39)
Secretagogues without Insul	in 202 (30.28)	0	202 (36.93)
Insulin in combination with Secretagogue	es 135 (20.24)	0	135 (24.68)
Diagnosed diabetes-related complications since 1 year preceding study	enrolment, n (%) <sup>‡</sup>		

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	No complications	263 (39.43)	41 (34.17)	222 (40.59
	One or more complications	404 (60.57)	79 (65.83)	325 (59.41
	Amputation	91 (13.64)	12 (10.00)	79 (14.44)
	Diabetes Ketoacidosis	110 (16.49)	42 (35.00)	68 (12.43)
	Foot damage	123 (18.44)	18 (15.00)	105 (19.20
	Gastroparesis	95 (14.24)	20 (16.67)	75 (13.71)
	Hyperosmolar hyperglycemic nonketotic coma	60 (9.00)	5 (4.17)	55 (10.05)
	Nephropathy	114 (17.09)	18 (15.00)	96 (17.55
	Neuropathy	298 (44.68)	46 (38.33)	252 (46.07
	Retinopathy	156 (23.39)	46 (38.33)	110 (20.11
Comorbidity status a	t time of study enrolment, n (%) <sup>‡</sup>			
		112 (1( 70)		00 (14 (2
	No comorbidities	112 (16.79)	32 (26.67)	80 (14.63
	No comorbidities One or more comorbidities	555 (83.21)	32 (26.67) 88 (73.33)	
				467 (85.37
	One or more comorbidities	555 (83.21)	88 (73.33)	467 (85.37 271 (49.54
	One or more comorbidities Bone, joint, or muscle problem	555 (83.21) 310 (46.48)	88 (73.33) 39 (32.50)	467 (85.37 271 (49.54 49 (8.96)
	One or more comorbidities Bone, joint, or muscle problem Cancer	555 (83.21) 310 (46.48) 52 (7.80)	88 (73.33) 39 (32.50) 3 (2.50)	467 (85.37 271 (49.54 49 (8.96) 111 (20.29
	One or more comorbidities Bone, joint, or muscle problem Cancer Cardiovascular condition	555 (83.21) 310 (46.48) 52 (7.80) 128 (19.19)	88 (73.33) 39 (32.50) 3 (2.50) 17 (14.17)	467 (85.37 271 (49.54 49 (8.96) 111 (20.29 65 (11.88
	One or more comorbidities Bone, joint, or muscle problem Cancer Cardiovascular condition Chronic kidney disease	555 (83.21) 310 (46.48) 52 (7.80) 128 (19.19) 73 (10.94)	88 (73.33) 39 (32.50) 3 (2.50) 17 (14.17) 8 (6.67)	467 (85.37 271 (49.54 49 (8.96) 111 (20.29 65 (11.88 37 (6.76)
	One or more comorbidities Bone, joint, or muscle problem Cancer Cardiovascular condition Chronic kidney disease Chronic liver failure or liver disease	555 (83.21) 310 (46.48) 52 (7.80) 128 (19.19) 73 (10.94) 39 (5.85)	88 (73.33) 39 (32.50) 3 (2.50) 17 (14.17) 8 (6.67) 2 (1.67)	80 (14.63 467 (85.37 271 (49.54 49 (8.96) 111 (20.29 65 (11.88 37 (6.76) 28 (5.12) 69 (12.61
	One or more comorbidities Bone, joint, or muscle problem Cancer Cardiovascular condition Chronic kidney disease Chronic liver failure or liver disease Eating disorder	555 (83.21) 310 (46.48) 52 (7.80) 128 (19.19) 73 (10.94) 39 (5.85) 35 (5.25)	88 (73.33) 39 (32.50) 3 (2.50) 17 (14.17) 8 (6.67) 2 (1.67) 7 (5.83)	467 (85.37 271 (49.54 49 (8.96) 111 (20.29 65 (11.88 37 (6.76) 28 (5.12)
	One or more comorbidities Bone, joint, or muscle problem Cancer Cardiovascular condition Chronic kidney disease Chronic liver failure or liver disease Eating disorder Gastrointestinal disease	555 (83.21) 310 (46.48) 52 (7.80) 128 (19.19) 73 (10.94) 39 (5.85) 35 (5.25) 86 (12.89)	88 (73.33) 39 (32.50) 3 (2.50) 17 (14.17) 8 (6.67) 2 (1.67) 7 (5.83) 17 (14.17)	467 (85.37 271 (49.54 49 (8.96) 111 (20.29 65 (11.88 37 (6.76) 28 (5.12) 69 (12.61 9 (1.65)
	One or more comorbidities Bone, joint, or muscle problem Cancer Cardiovascular condition Chronic kidney disease Chronic liver failure or liver disease Eating disorder Gastrointestinal disease HIV/AIDS	555 (83.21) 310 (46.48) 52 (7.80) 128 (19.19) 73 (10.94) 39 (5.85) 35 (5.25) 86 (12.89) 11 (1.65)	88 (73.33) 39 (32.50) 3 (2.50) 17 (14.17) 8 (6.67) 2 (1.67) 7 (5.83) 17 (14.17) 2 (1.67)	467 (85.37 271 (49.54 49 (8.96) 111 (20.29 65 (11.88 37 (6.76) 28 (5.12) 69 (12.61

Current continuous glucose monitoring de				
<u> </u>	Yes	229 (34.33)	65 (54.17)	164 (29.98
T1DM: type 1 diabetes mellitus; T2DM: type		range; BMI: body mass ind	lex.	
* Responses may not sum to total (N=667) du	e to missing data.			
<sup>‡</sup> Cumulative percentage >100% as participar	as courd select more than one response.			
	nts could select more than one response.			

<b>INCIDENCE RATES*</b>	Total	T1DM	T2DM
	N=667	120 (17.99%)	547 (82.01%)
Severe Hypoglycemia (one-month retrospective)			
Daytime + Nocturnal:			
Events per person-month (95% $CI^{\dagger}$ )	0.68 (0.48 to 0.96)	0.39 (0.18 to 0.85)	0.75 (0.51 to 1.09)
Non-Severe Hypoglycemia (one-month retrospective)			
Daytime + Nocturnal:			
Events per person-month (95% $CI^{\dagger}$ )	2.75 (2.43 to 3.11)	5.73 (4.60 to 7.13)	2.10 (1.82 to 2.41
INCIDENCE PROPORTIONS*	Total	T1DM	T2DM
	N=667	120 (17.99%)	547 (82.01%)
Severe Hypoglycemia (one-month retrospective)			
Daytime or Nocturnal:			
% with $\geq 1$ event (95% CI <sup>‡</sup> )	12.91 (10.58 to 15.67)	11.67 (7.078 to 18.63)	13.19 (10.6 to 16.28
Non-Severe Hypoglycemia (one-month retrospective)			
Daytime or Nocturnal:			

T1DM: type 1 diabetes mellitus; T2DM: type 2 diabetes mellitus; CI, confidence interval.

\* Incidence rates and proportions are based on data from participants who reported taking insulin and/or secretagogues at Month 2 follow-up.

<sup>†</sup>Based on Negative Binomial distribution.

<sup>‡</sup> Based on Wilson Score Interval.

Table 4. Impact of the COVID-19 situation on aspects of participants' glycemic management (past month)\*, overall and by diabetes 

type

						\ <b>T</b> /
	has been	has been	has <b>not</b> been	has been	has been	P-
	much harder	somewhat harder	impacted	somewhat easier	much easier	value
Affording my rent and other living expenses						
Overall (N=667)	59 (8.85)	103 (15.44)	491 (73.61)	12 (1.80)	2 (0.30)	
T1DM (n=120)	13 (10.83)	23 (19.17)	83 (69.17)	1 (0.83)	0	0.08
T2DM (n=547)	46 (8.41)	80 (14.63)	408 (74.59)	11 (2.01)	2 (0.37)	
Making sure I have enough food to avoid hypogly	cemia					
Overall (N=667)	54 (8.10)	130 (19.49)	475 (71.21)	7 (1.05)	1 (0.15)	
T1DM (n=120)	8 (6.67)	20 (16.67)	91 (75.83)	1 (0.83)	0	0.29
T2DM (n=547)	46 (8.41)	110 (20.11)	384 (70.20)	6 (1.10)	1 (0.18)	
Affording my diabetes medication(s)						
Overall (N=667)	53 (7.95)	71 (10.64)	534 (80.06)	5 (0.75)	4 (0.60)	0.71
T1DM (n=120)	10 (8.33)	10 (8.33)	99 (82.50)	1 (0.83)	0	0.71

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T2DM (n=547)	43 (7.86)	61 (11.15)	435 (79.52)	4 (0.73)	4 (0.73)	
Affording my test strips and/or sens	ors					
Overall (N=667)	42 (6.30)	74 (11.09)	540 (80.96)	5 (0.75)	6 (0.90)	
T1DM (n=120)	9 (7.50)	7 (5.83)	103 (85.83)	1 (0.83)	0	0.38
T2DM (n=547)	33 (6.03)	67 (12.25)	437 (79.89)	4 (0.73)	6 (1.10)	
Getting my diabetes medication(s) f	from the pharmacy					
Overall (N=667)	58 (8.70)	125 (18.74)	470 (70.46)	8 (1.20)	6 (0.90)	
T1DM (n=120)	13 (10.83)	24 (20.00)	82 (68.33)	1 (0.83)	0	0.24
T2DM (n=547)	45 (8.23)	101 (18.46)	388 (70.93)	7 (1.28)	6 (1.10)	
Consulting with my healthcare prov	ider(s) about my diabetes					
Overall (N=667)	85 (12.74)	158 (23.69)	410 (61.47)	13 (1.95)	1 (0.15)	
T1DM (n=120)	14 (11.67)	28 (23.33)	76 (63.33)	2 (1.67)	0	0.75
T2DM (n=547)	71 (12.98)	130 (23.77)	334 (61.06)	11 (2.01)	1 (0.18)	
Testing/monitoring my blood glucos	se					
Overall (N=667)	34 (5.10)	72 (10.79)	551 (82.61)	7 (1.05)	3 (0.45)	0.001
T1DM (n=120)	4 (3.33)	2 (1.67)	110 (91.67)	4 (3.33)	0	<0.001 ‡
T2DM (n=547)	30 (5.48)	70 (12.80)	441 (80.62)	3 (0.55)	3 (0.55)	÷
Remembering to take my diabetes n	nedication(s) as prescribed					
Overall (N=667)	26 (3.90)	65 (9.75)	554 (83.06)	18 (2.70)	4 (0.60)	
T1DM (n=120)	1 (0.83)	7 (5.83)	109 (90.83)	3 (2.50)	0	0.047
T2DM (n=547)	25 (4.57)	58 (10.60)	445 (81.35)	15 (2.74)	4 (0.73)	
Monitoring my risk of hypoglycemi	a regularly					
Overall (N=667)	29 (4.35)	51 (7.65)	561 (84.11)	23 (3.45)	3 (0.45)	0.026

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T1DM (n=120)	3 (2.50)	6 (5.00)	103 (85.83)	8 (6.67)	0	
T2DM (n=547)	26 (4.75)	45 (8.23)	458 (83.73)	15 (2.74)	3 (0.55)	
Staying as physically active as I usually am						
Overall (N=667)	100 (14.99)	209 (31.33)	329 (49.33)	23 (3.45)	6 (0.90)	
T1DM (n=120)	21 (17.50)	36 (30.00)	55 (45.83)	7 (5.83)	1 (0.83)	0.84
T2DM (n=547)	79 (14.44)	173 (31.63)	274 (50.09)	16 (2.93)	5 (0.91)	
Feeling in control of my hypoglycemia						
Overall (N=667)	35 (5.25)	62 (9.30)	528 (79.16)	35 (5.25)	7 (1.05)	
T1DM (n=120)	5 (4.17)	9 (7.50)	99 (82.50)	6 (5.00)	1 (0.83)	0.50
T2DM (n=547)	30 (5.48)	53 (9.69)	429 (78.43)	29 (5.30)	6 (1.10)	
Having enough social support to help me manage	my hypoglycemia					
Overall (N=667)	41 (6.15)	83 (12.44)	518 (77.66)	21 (3.15)	4 (0.60)	
T1DM (n=120)	3 (2.50)	10 (8.33)	104 (86.67)	3 (2.50)	0	0.056
T2DM (n=547)	38 (6.95)	73 (13.35)	414 (75.69)	18 (3.29)	4 (0.73)	

\* Data collected April 21st to 28th, 2020.

<sup>†</sup> Item responses were compared between individuals with T1DM and T2DM. *P*-values were computed using two-sample Wilcoxin-Mann-Whitney tests.

<sup>±</sup> Statistically significant at an alpha value of 0.05 (i.e., the underlying distributions of item responses statistically significantly differed by diabetes type).

Table 5. Impact of the COVID-19 situation on diabetes medication rationing (past month)<sup>\*</sup>, overall and by diabetes type

		Total	T1DM	T2DM	
		N=667	120 (17.99%)	547 (82.01%)	<i>P</i> -value
Rationed to make diabetes medicat	tion(s) supply	<sup>y</sup> last longer			
	Yes	111 (16.64)	16 (13.33)	95 (17.37)	0.28
Rationed to avoid hypoglycemia					
	Yes	112 (16.79)	19 (15.83)	93 (17.00)	0.76
T1DM: type 1 diabetes mellitus; T2DM: ty	ype 2 diabetes r	nellitus.			
n (%) are presented.					
* Data collected April 21st to 28th, 2020					

Appendix A. Items assessing the impact of the COVID-19 situation on aspects of diabetes management

On a scale from *much harder* to *much easier*, please tell us how the Coronavirus (COVID-19) situation has impacted the following aspects of your life.

### In general, since the last time I completed an iNPHORM survey...

	has been much harder	has been somewhat harder	has <u>not</u> been impacted	has been somewhat easier	has been much easier
1Affording my rent and other living expenses					
2Affording my diabetes medication(s)					
3Affording my test strips and/or sensors					
4Getting my diabetes medication(s) from the pharmacy	0				
5Making sure I have enough food to avoid hypoglycemia	2				
6Testing/monitoring my blood glucose		0			
7Staying as physically active as I usually am					
8Consulting with my healthcare provider(s) about my diabetes					
9Remembering to take my diabetes medication(s) as prescribed					
10Monitoring my risk of hypoglycemia regularly					
11Having enough social support to help me manage my hypoglycemia					
12Feeling in control of my hypoglycemia					

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When answering this next question, please think about the time since you last completed an
<u>iNPHORM survey</u> .

Because of the Coronavirus (*COVID-19*) situation, did you ever <u>cut back</u> on your diabetes medication(s) in order to...

13make your diabetes medication(s) supply last longer?	Yes	No
14avoid hypoglycemia?		
14avoid hypoglycemia?		

STROBE 2007 (v4) Statement—Checklist of items that should be included in reports of cross-sectional studies

Section/Topic	Item #	Recommendation	Reported on page # (line #)
Title and abstract	1	( <i>a</i> ) Indicate the study's design with a commonly used term in the title or the abstract	Page 1 (lines 3-4)
		(b) Provide in the abstract an informative and balanced summary of what was done and what was found	Pages 3 and 4 (lines 1-6)
Introduction			
Background/rationale	2	Explain the scientific background and rationale for the investigation being reported	Pages 4 (lines 20-22), 5 (lines 1-10), 7 (lines 9-22), and 8 (lines 1-2)
Objectives	3	State specific objectives, including any prespecified hypotheses	Page 8 (lines 3-8)
Methods	1		
Study design	4	Present key elements of study design early in the paper	Pages 8 (lines 14-23) and 9 (all)
Setting	5	Describe the setting, locations, and relevant dates, including periods of recruitment, exposure, follow-up, and data collection	Page 8 (line 17) and 9 (line 22)
Participants	6	(a) Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of selection of participants	Pages 8 (lines 21-23) 9 (lines 4-7)
Variables	7	Clearly define all outcomes, exposures, predictors, potential confounders, and effect modifiers. Give diagnostic criteria, if applicable	Pages 10 and 11 (lines 1-18)
Data sources/ measurement	8*	For each variable of interest, give sources of data and details of methods of assessment (measurement). Describe comparability of assessment methods if there is more than one group	Pages 10 (lines 3-6 and 20- 23), 11 (lines 1-6, 8, 11-14), 40, and 41
Bias	9	Describe any efforts to address potential sources of bias	Pages 22 and 23 (lines 1-12)
Study size	10	Explain how the study size was arrived at	Pages 8 (lines 21-23) and 9 (lines 1-22)
Quantitative variables	11	Explain how quantitative variables were handled in the analyses. If applicable, describe which groupings were chosen and why	Pages 10 (lines 1-23) and 11 (lines 1-18)
Statistical methods	12	( <i>a</i> ) Describe all statistical methods, including those used to control for confounding	Pages 11 (lines 20-23) and 12 (lines 1-8)

		(b) Describe any methods used to examine subgroups and	n/a
		interactions	$\mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{r}} = 12 \left( 1_{\mathbf{r}} = 7 0 \right)$
		(c) Explain how missing data were addressed	Page 12 (lines 7-8)
		( <i>d</i> ) If applicable, describe analytical methods taking account of sampling strategy	Page 8 (lines 21-23)
		(e) Describe any sensitivity analyses	n/a
Results			
Participants	13*	(a) Report numbers of individuals at each stage of study—eg	Pages 8 (lines 21-23); 9
		numbers potentially eligible, examined for eligibility, confirmed	(lines 1-10); 12 (lines 22-23
		eligible, included in the study, completing follow-up, and analysed	and 10 (lines 1-11).
		(b) Give reasons for non-participation at each stage	n/a
		(c) Consider use of a flow diagram	n/a
Descriptive data	14*	(a) Give characteristics of study participants (eg demographic,	Pages 12 (lines 22-23) and
1		clinical, social) and information on exposures and potential	12 (lines 1-11). Also Table
		confounders	page 33-34
		(b) Indicate number of participants with missing data for each variable of interest	Tables 1, 2, 3, 4
Outcome data	15*	Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures	Pages 12 (lines 22-23); 13
			(1-21); 14 (1-23); 15 (1-23)
			and 16 (1-4)
Main results	16	( <i>a</i> ) Give unadjusted estimates and, if applicable, confounder-adjusted	
		estimates and their precision (eg, 95% confidence interval). Make	(lines 1-23); 15 (lines 1-23)
		clear which confounders were adjusted for and why they were included	and 16 (lines 1-4)
		(b) Report category boundaries when continuous variables were categorized	n/a
		(c) If relevant, consider translating estimates of relative risk into	n/a
		absolute risk for a meaningful time period	
Other analyses	17	Report other analyses done—eg analyses of subgroups and	n/a
		interactions, and sensitivity analyses	
Discussion			
Key results	18	Summarise key results with reference to study objectives	Pages 16 (lines 8 -21); 17
			(lines 1-23); 18 (lines 1-23)

			19 (lines 1-23); 20 (lines 1- 23); 21 (lines 1-23); 22 (lines 1-23); and 23 (lines 1-12)
Limitations	19	Discuss limitations of the study, taking into account sources of potential bias or imprecision. Discuss both direction and magnitude of any potential bias	Pages 22 (lines 16-23) and 23 (lines 1-12)
Interpretation	20	Give a cautious overall interpretation of results considering objectives, limitations, multiplicity of analyses, results from similar studies, and other relevant evidence	Pages 16 (lines 8 -21); 17 (lines 1-23); 18 (lines 1-23); 19 (lines 1-23); 20 (lines 1- 23); 21 (lines 1-23); 22 (lines 1-23); and 23 (lines 1-12)
Generalisability	21	Discuss the generalisability (external validity) of the study results	Page 22 (line 18-20)
Other information			
Funding	22	Give the source of funding and the role of the funders for the present study and, if applicable, for the original study on which the present article is based	Page 24 (lines 16-17)

\*Give information separately for cases and controls in case-control studies and, if applicable, for exposed and unexposed groups in cohort and cross-sectional studies.

**Note:** An Explanation and Elaboration article discusses each checklist item and gives methodological background and published examples of transparent reporting. The STROBE checklist is best used in conjunction with this article (freely available on the Web sites of PLoS Medicine at http://www.plosmedicine.org/, Annals of Internal Medicine at http://www.annals.org/, and Epidemiology at http://www.epidem.com/). Information on the STROBE Initiative is available at www.strobe-statement.org.