# International Journal of Health Sciences and Research

ISSN: 2249-9571 www.ijhsr.org

Original Research Article

# Validity of Type 2 Diabetes Self-Reports among Black and White Church **Going Adults**

Octaviana Hemmy Asamsama<sup>1,2</sup>, Jerry W. Lee<sup>2</sup>, Kelly R. Morton<sup>1,3</sup>, Serena Tonstad<sup>2,4</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Psychology, Loma Linda University, Loma Linda, California <sup>2</sup>School of Public Health, Loma Linda University, Loma Linda, California <sup>3</sup>Department of Family Medicine, Loma Linda University, Loma Linda, California <sup>4</sup>Department of Endocrinology, Morbid Obesity and Preventive Medicine, Oslo University Hospital, Oslo, Norway

Corresponding Author: Octaviana Hemmy Asamsama

Received: 01/10/2014 Revised: 21/11/2014 Accepted: 24/11/2014

#### **ABSTRACT**

Background: There is a paucity of research evaluating the accuracy of type 2 diabetes (DM2) self-reports compared to laboratory measures for Blacks and Whites.

**Objectives:** The authors cross-sectionally compared DM2 self-reports to hemoglobin A1c (HbA1c), fasting plasma glucose (FPG), and a diabetes medication inventory order to evaluate the accuracy of selfreports to laboratory measures.

Methods: Data was collected as part of a community-based prospective cohort study of Black and White Seventh-day Adventist adults. Confirmed DM2 was defined as HbA1c≥ 6.5% or FPG≥ 126 mg/dL or use of hypoglycemic medications.

**Results:** There were 50 (12.7%) out of 394 participants with self-reported DM2. Blacks (19.6%, n = 31) reported significantly higher rates of DM2 compared to Whites (8.1%, n = 19). Detection of undiagnosed DM2 within the total sample population ranged from 2.3% to 6.7% with higher rates of undiagnosed DM2 for Blacks (2.4% to 11.0%) compared to Whites (2.3% to 4.1%). The sensitivity of self-reported DM2 ranged from 65.2% to 80.5% and the specificity ranged from 95.2% to 97.9%, depending on the diagnostic criteria.

**Conclusions:** Our findings add to the evidence that self-report is a relatively valid method for assessing DM2 with no observed ethnic differences.

Keywords: type 2 diabetes, self-report, Blacks, Whites, undiagnosed

# **INTRODUCTION**

Investigators often utilize self-report measures when studying type 2 diabetes (DM2). [1-3] Although there are advantages of self-report measures like low-cost and convenience, the specificity and sensitivity of self-reports when compared to laboratory measures like hemoglobin A1c (Hb1Ac) and fasting plasma glucose (FPG) can vary by study and sample populations. [4-7] From a public health perspective, it is important to determine the number of individuals with DM2 so that the at-risk population can be effectively targeted. It is estimated that 57 million U.S. adults have either pre-diabetes or diabetes. [8] Diabetes overall is the fifth

leading cause of death by disease with approximately 1.9 million people newly diagnosed each year. Furthermore, Harris et al. found significant ethnic differences in rates of diabetes. [9] Non-Hispanic Blacks had 1.6 times the rate of diabetes of non-Hispanic Whites.

Although there have been studies on accuracy of DM2 self-report, [10,11] the quality of self-report and the degree of underreporting for Blacks have not been well described. El Fakiri, Bruijnzeels, and Hoes found no ethnic difference in DM2 self-report in their study of Dutch, Turkish, Surinamese, and other first generation ethnic minorities residing in two Dutch cities. [12]

However, their sample was recruited from primary care centers with patients that were at risk for cardiovascular disease. There is a need to examine self-report accuracy in a community sample that subscribes to healthier lifestyle choices whose DM2 rate may differ from an at risk population. In addition, given the ethnic disparity in DM2 rates, it is important to assess whether self-reports of DM2 are equally valid for different ethnic groups.

Given the paucity of research evaluating the accuracy of DM2 self-reports for Blacks and Whites, we compared DM2 self-reports to concurrent HbA1c, FPG, and hypoglycemic diabetes medication reports in Seventh-day Adventist church-going adults who participated in a community-based prospective cohort study. Adventists have many religiously based health behavior recommendations such as regular exercise, healthy diet, and abstaining from smoking or alcohol consumption. These recommendations have been found to reduce morbidity and mortality as well as to promote a higher quality of life. [14-16] The combination of positive health behaviors observed in Adventists make them an optimal population to study ethnic differences in rates of DM2 self-report

accuracy as several other confounding variables are removed in this group. Thus, our study objectives were to examine the validity of self-reported DM2 among Seventh-day Adventist adults and evaluate whether there was any discrepancy in validity or prevalence of DM2 between Blacks and Whites.

# MATERIALS AND METHODS

# Participants and Procedures

Data for this study were collected in 2006-7 of the Biological as part Manifestations of Religion Substudy (BioMRS), which is part of the Adventist Health Study-2 (AHS-2), a longitudinal cohort study on diet and cancer as well as the Biopsychosocial Religion and Health Study (BRHS) where investigators examined the influence religion/spirituality on health outcomes in a random sample of the AHS-2 who lived within a 60-mile radius of the university campus. [17,18] The Institutional Review Board at Loma Linda University approved the study and participants signed written, informed consent to participate. They completed a 20-page questionnaire assessing stress, physical, and mental health as well as a medication inventory and provided fasting blood samples to determine FPG and HbA1c.

For validation of self-reported DM2, we restricted the population to participants without missing data on DM2 self-report, FPG, and HbA1c. The other inclusion criterion was being either Black (African American, Caribbean Black, biracial) or White ethnicity. There were no statistically significant differences in demographic measures (age, gender, ethnicity, education, socioeconomic status), health behaviors (smoking history, body mass index, reported diabetes medication use), or laboratory measures (FPG, HbA1c) between the 78

participants who were excluded and the 394 who were included in the study.

#### Measures

Definition of self-reported type 2 diabetes.

Study participants were asked whether they were "ever diagnosed with diabetes mellitus (type II adult onset) by a physician." If they answered "yes", they were coded as having self-reported DM2; if they said "no" they were coded as not self-reporting DM2. Participants who did not answer this question were excluded from the analyses.

Reference definitions of type 2 diabetes. Fasting plasma glucose and HbA1c were measured from eight-hour fasting blood Fasting plasma glucose was samples. the Cholestech assessed with Analyzer. HbA1c was assessed from frozen fasting blood samples with a Cholestech GDX Analyzer. Diagnostic criteria for DM2 were defined using FPG ≥ 126 mg/dL and/or HbA1c > 6.5% (American Diabetes Association; ADA, 2014). Participants who also reported the use of the following hypoglycemic diabetes medications were also identified as having DM2: Metformin (Glucophage), Glyburide, Glipizide, and Insulin. Three DM2 reference definitions were examined: (a) HbA1c  $\geq$  6.5% and/or hypoglycemic diabetes medication; (b) FPG ≥ 126 mg/dL and/or hypoglycemic diabetes medication; (c) HbA1c  $\geq$  6.5%, FPG  $\geq$  126 mg/dL, and/or reported use of hypoglycemic diabetes medication.

Type 2 diabetes diagnostic criteria include: HbA1c  $\geq$  6.5%, or FPG  $\geq$  126 mg/dL, or two-hour plasma glucose  $\geq$  200 mg/dL, or if the person is symptomatic for hyperglycemia with a random plasma glucose  $\geq$  200 mg/dL. [19] Of note, HbA1c measures the average blood glucose in the past three months, while FPG evaluates glucose levels after 8-hour fasting period.

Data Analysis

There several important are definitions to consider in determining the validity like true positive, true negative, false positive, and false negatives. True positives are participants who reported DM2 diagnostically have DM2. negatives refer to participants who did not report DM2 and are without DM2. False positives (type I error) are participants who self-report DM2 but diagnostically did not have DM2. False negatives refer to participants who reported no DM2 when in fact are diagnostically diabetic. This is also known as a type II error.

Self-reported diabetes was compared to each of the reference definitions of DM2 to determine sensitivity (probability of identifying true positives) and specificity (probability of diagnosing true negatives). Positive predictive value (PPV) was calculated by dividing the number of true positives/(true positives + false positives). Negative predictive value (NPV) was defined as true negatives/(true negative + false negatives).

Agreements between self-report medication diagnosis and inventories. HbA1C, and FPG were calculated using kappa statistics <sup>[20]</sup> with kappa value of < 0.40 indicative of poor to fair agreement, 0.41 to 0.60 as moderate agreement, 0.61 to 0.80 as substantial agreement, and 0.81 to 1.00 as excellent agreement. Baseline comparisons between those with versus without reported DM2 and Blacks versus Whites on demographic and clinical characteristics were assessed using t-tests for continuous variables and  $\chi^2$ for categorical variables. Analyses performed using IBM SPSS-20with p-value of <0.05 as the determinant of statistical significance.

#### RESULTS

The final sample consisted of 154 males (39.1%) and 240 females (60.9%)

with a mean age of 68.8 (SD = 11.9) and an age range of 36 to 96 years. Most participants were White, had little to no difficulties meeting expenses in the past year (91.1%, n = 362), were overweight, and within normal range in blood glucose measures, FPG < 126 mg/dL (n = 368, 93.4%) and HbA1c < 6.5% (n = 345, 87.6%). There were also a significant number of participants who met diagnostic criteria for pre-diabetes: FPG 100- 125 mg/dL (n = 74, 18.8%) and HbA1c 5.7– 6.4% (n = 199, 50.5%). Other demographic and laboratory characteristics of participants Table 1 are shown in along between those with and comparisons without self-reported DM2. There were 50 (12.7%) participants with self-reported DM2. As shown in Table 2, depending on the diagnostic criteria the sensitivity of selfreported DM2 ranged from 65.2% to 80.5% and the specificity ranged from 95.2% to 97.9%.

Baseline differences between Blacks (40.1%, n = 158) and Whites (59.9%, n = 236) were also assessed. There were no significant differences in FPG and difficulty meeting expenses. Whites (71.9 years, SD = 158)

12.0) on average were older than Blacks (64.5 years, SD = 10.4), t(392) = 7.4, p < 0.001. There were a higher percentage of Black females (68.4%, n = 108) compared to White females (55.9%, n = 132),  $\chi^2(1, N = 394) = 6.1$ , p = 0.013; and a greater number of Whites (52.1%, n = 123) with graduate degrees than Blacks (23.5%, n = 37),  $\chi^2(3, N = 394) = 58.4$ , p < 0.001. Blacks (19.6%, n = 31) reported higher rates of smoking history compared to Whites (8.1%, n = 19),  $\chi^2(1, N = 394) = 11.4$ , p = 0.001.

While both Blacks and Whites were on average within the overweight BMI  $(kg/m^2)$  category (25– 29.9), Blacks (29.8, SD=7.2) had higher BMIs compared to Whites (25.9, SD=4.8), t(392)=4.0, p<0.001. In fact, 75.9% of Blacks (n=120)compared 50.8% of Whites (n=120) had BMI  $\geq 25$ . Similar elevated rates were also observed for HbA1c values in Blacks (6.0%, SD=0.8) versus Whites (5.8%, SD=0.4), t(392)=4.3, p<0.001. There were 34 (21.5%) Blacks compared to 15 (6.4%) Whites with elevated HbA1c  $\geq 6.5\%$ ,  $\chi^2(1, N=394)=20.0$ , p<0.001.

Table 1. Characteristics of 394 Participants With and Without Self-Report Type 2 Diabetes

	All Participants		Self-Report Type 2 Diabetes				
			No $(n = 344)$		Yes $(n = 50)$		
	n(%)	Mean (SD)	n(%)	Mean (SD)	n(%)	Mean (SD)	<i>p</i> -value
Age (years)		68.8 (11.9)		68.5 (12.1)		72.0 (10.5)	0.06
Female	240 (60.9)		212 (61.6)		28 (56.0)		0.40
White	236 (59.9)		217 (63.1)		19 (38.0)		0.001
Level of education							0.101
Trade, high school or less	28 (7.1)		21 (6.1)		7 (14.0)		
Associate's or some college	115 (29.2)		96 (27.9)		19 (38.0)		
Bachelor's degree	91 (23.1)		86 (25.0)		5 (10.0)		
Graduate degree	160 (40.6)		141 (41.0)		19 (38.0)		
Low socioeconomic status	32 (8.1)		24 (7.0)		8 (16.0)		0.029
No history of smoking	50 (12.7)		35 (10.2)		15 (30.0)		< 0.001
Body mass index (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )		27.5 (6.2)		27.1 (6.1)		29.7 (6.1)	0.006
Hemoglobin A1c (%)		5.9 (0.6)		5.8 (0.4)		6.8 (1.2)	< 0.001
Fasting plasma glucose (mg/dL)		95.0 (19.9)		91.2 (13.0)		120.6 (35.0)	< 0.001
Hypoglycemic medication	25 (6.3)		0 (0)		25 (50.0)		< 0.001

Notes. History of smoking = Reported history of regular cigarette, cigar, or pipe smoking. Hypoglycemic diabetes medications include Metformin (Glucophage), Glyburide, Glipizide, and Insulin. Low socioeconomic status referred to the number of participants who reported somewhat, fairly, and very difficult meeting expenses basic needs in the last year.

Blacks (19.6%, n = 31) self-reported significantly higher rates of DM2 compared to Whites (8.1%, n = 19). In regards to undiagnosed DM2 (false negative) within the total sample population (n = 394), it ranged from 2.0% to 5.8% depending on reference definition. There was a higher rate of undiagnosed DM2 for Blacks (2.4% to

11.0%) compared to Whites (2.3% to 4.1%). False positive (self-reported DM2 but had normal glucose measures) may be conceptualized as glycemic control. For those who reported DM2, 17 (34%) had FPG <126 mg/dL and 19 (38.0%) had HbA1c < 6.5%, indicative of good glycemic control.

Table 2. Validation of Self-Reported Type 2 Diabetes Status by Ethnicity

			Predictive Value	
	Sensitivity	Specificity	Negative	Positive
Diagnostic Criteria <sup>b</sup>	% (95% CI)	% (95% CI)	% (95% CI)	(95% CI)
All Participants				
Hemoglobin A1c ≥ 6.5%	68.4 (55.5 – 79.0)	96.7 (94.3 – 98.2)	32.6 (22.3 – 47.9)	21.0 (11.4 – 38.5)
Fasting plasma glucose ≥ 126 mg/dL	80.5 (66.0 – 89.8)	95.2 (92.4 – 97.0)	20.5 (11.0 – 38.2)	16.7 (10.3 – 27.2)
Both	65.2 (53.1 – 75.5)	97.9 (95.7 – 99.0)	35.6 (25.6 – 49.5)	30.5 (14.4 – 64.9)
Blacks				
Hemoglobin A1c ≥ 6.5%	65.8 (49.9 – 78.8)	95.0 (89.5 – 97.7)	36.0 (23.1 – 56.1)	13.2 (5.8 – 29.7)
Fasting plasma glucose ≥ 126 mg/dL	87.0 (67.9 – 95.5)	91.9 (86.0 – 95.4)	14.2 (4.9 – 40.8)	10.7 (5.9 – 19.2)
Both	65.0 (49.5 – 77.9)	95.8 (90.5 – 98.2)	36.5 (23.9 – 55.8)	15.3 (6.3 – 37.3)
Whites				
Hemoglobin A1c ≥ 6.5%	73.7 (51.2 – 88.2)	97.7 (94.7 – 99.0)	26.9 (12.7 – 57.2)	32.0 (12.9 – 79.2)
Fasting plasma glucose ≥ 126 mg/dL	72.2 (49.1 – 87.5)	97.3 (94.1 – 98.7)	28.6 (13.6 – 60.2)	26.2 (11.3 – 60.8)
Both	65.4 (46.2 – 80.6)	99.1 (96.6 – 99.7)	34.9 (20.6 – 59.3)	68.7 (16.8 – 280.5)

Notes. Self-reported type 2 diabetes (total n = 394, self-reported diabetes n = 50) was defined as "yes" if participants answered "yes" to "ever diagnosed with diabetes mellitus (Type II adult onset) by a physician?"

#### **DISCUSSION**

Our findings add to the evidence that self-report is a relatively valid method of assessing of DM2 in both Blacks and Whites. Depending on the reference definition, sensitivity ranged from 65.2% to 80.5% and specificity ranged from 95.2% to 97.9% for all participants. These rates are indicative of substantial to excellent agreement between self-report and DM2 reference definitions. FPG was more sensitive compared to other criterion; however, it was the lowest in specificity, PPV, and NPV. This could be attributed to difference in plasma glucose measurement period between HbA1c (3 months) and FPG (8 hours). Utilizing HbA1c, FPG, and medication inventory together yielded the highest specificity, PPV, and NPV.

The specificity was highest for both Blacks and Whites when the diagnostic

criterion included all three measures (FPG, HbA1c, and medication) as predicted. The results from our study were consistent with other confirmatory studies of DM2 selfreport. [10,21,22] However, most prior studies did not evaluate validity by ethnicity. In addition, other studies often relied upon a single source of diagnostic criteria while we examined three independently and combination: HbA1c. FPG. and hypoglycemic diabetes medication inventory allowing us to conclude that self-reported DM2 is a valid measure.

In this older, community sample of Adventist adults, the detection of undiagnosed DM2 was low. As expected and consistent with the literature, [23,24] there were higher rates of undiagnosed DM2 as well as diagnosed DM2 in Blacks than Whites. These ethnic differences in the prevalence of diagnosed and undiagnosed DM2 were also noted in a recent National

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup>Diagnostic criteria include laboratory measures and/or use of hypoglycemic diabetes medications Metformin (Glucophage), Glyburide, Glipizide, and Insulin.

Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) study. [25] The participants in the NHANES study were younger, had higher BMI, and had slightly higher FPG than the participants in our sample. In the NHANES study, glycemic control was defined as HbA1c > 7.0%. All participants in this study had better glycemic control compared to the sample population, NHANES which exemplified the healthier nature of the general Adventists compared to the **BioMRS** population. For this study population, only 26.0% of self-identified DM2 had poor glycemic control (HbA1c > 7.0%). Similar rates of poor glycemic control were observed for Blacks (29.9%) and Whites (21.1%), and, these rates were significantly lower than the glycemic control in the NHANES population where 48.0% and 43.0% reported poor glycemic control respectively.

The strengths of our study included the validation of self-reports through multiple reference definitions and the comparative analysis of Blacks and Whites in an older, community based sample. Study limitations included possibly generalizability of the findings given that we only examined Seventh-day Adventists who have a healthier lifestyle than the general Perhaps U.S. population. with knowledge of diabetes status and/or reported medication use, some participants made positive changes in reducing their glucose levels.

#### CONCLUSION

In conclusion, findings indicate that self-report is an acceptable and valid assessment of DM2 in this community-based sample. Higher rates of diagnosed and undiagnosed DM2 were observed in Blacks compared to Whites. Of note, this sample population had better glycemic control compared to the general population and future studies can help identify the

mechanisms within the Seventh-day Adventist population that contribute to less diabetes and better diabetes management.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We thank the participants in the Adventist Health Study-2. This research was supported by grants from the National Institute on Aging (Biopsychosocial Religion and Health Study, 1R01AG026348) and the National Cancer Institute for the parent study (Adventist Health Study 2, 5R01 CA094594).

# **REFERENCES**

- 1. Brancati F, Wang N, Mead L, Liang K, Klag M. Body weight patterns from 20 to 49 years of age and subsequent risk for diabetes mellitus: The Johns Hopkins Precursors Study. *Arch Intern Med.* 1999; 159(9): 957. doi:10.1001/archinte.159.9.957
- 2. Fincke B, Clark J, Kazis L, et al. Assessment of long-term complications due to type 2 diabetes using patient self-report: the Diabetes Complications Index. *J Ambul Care Manage*.2005; 28(3): 262-273.
- 3. Rodbard H, Bays H, Grandy S, et al. Rate and risk predictors for development of self-reported type-2 diabetes mellitus over a 5-year period: the SHIELD study. *Int J ClinPract*. 2012; 66(7): 684-691. doi:10.1111/j.1742-1241.2012.02952.x
- 4. Midthjell K, Holmen J, Bjørndal A, Lund-Larsen G. Is questionnaire information valid in the study of a chronic disease such as diabetes? The Nord-Trøndelag diabetes study. *J Epidemiol Community Health*.1992; 46(5): 537-542.doi:10.1136/jech.46.5.537
- 5. Martin LM, Leff M, Calonge N, Garrett C, Nelson DE. Validation of self-reported chronic conditions and health services in a managed care population. *Am J Prev Med.* 2000; 18: 215-218.
- 6. Bays H, Bazata D, Grandy S, et al. Prevalence of self-reported diagnosis of

- diabetes mellitus and associated risk factors in a national survey in the US population: SHIELD (Study to Help Improve Early evaluation and management of risk factors Leading to Diabetes). *BMC Public Health*.2007; 7: 277-285.doi:10.1186/1471-2458-7-277
- 7. Goto A, Morita A, Watanabe S, et al. Validity of diabetes self-reports in the Saku diabetes study. *J Epidemiol*. 2013; 23(4): 295-300.doi:10.2188/jea.JE20120221
- 8. National Institute of Health. *National Diabetes Statistics* (NIH Publication No. 11-3892). 2011. Retrieved from http://diabetes.niddk.nih.gov/dm/pubs/st atistics/#NewCasesDD
- 9. Harris M, Flegal K, Byrd-Holt D, et al. Prevalence of diabetes, impaired fasting glucose, and impaired glucose tolerance in U.S. adults: the Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 1988-1994. *Diabetes Care*. 1998; 21(4): 518-524.
- Schneider A, Pankow J, Heiss G, Selvin E. Validity and Reliability of Self-reported Diabetes in the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Study. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2012;176(8):738-743. doi:10.1093/aje/kws156
- 11. Hansen H, Schäfer I, Scherer M, et al. Agreement between self-reported and general practitioner-reported chronic conditions among multimorbid patients in primary care results of the MultiCare cohort study. *BMC Family Practice*.2014; 15(1): 39-66.doi:10.1186/1471-2296-15-39
- 12. El Fakiri F, Bruijnzeels M, Hoes A. No evidence for marked ethnic differences in accuracy of self-reported diabetes, hypertension, and hypercholesterolemia. *J ClinEpidemiol*. 2007; 60(12): 1271-1279. doi:10.1016/j.jclinepi.2007.02.014
- 13. Fraser G. Diet, Life Expectancy, and Chronic Disease: Studies of Seventh-Day Adventists and Other Vegetarians. Oxford University Press; 2003.

- 14. Sukala W, Page R, Cheema B, et al. Exercise improves quality of life in indigenous Polynesian peoples with type 2 diabetes and visceral obesity. *J Phys Act Health*.2013; 10(5): 699-707.
- 15. Chaoyang L, Ford E, Mokdad A, Jiles R, Giles W. Clustering of multiple healthy lifestyle habits and health-related quality of life among U.S. adults with diabetes. *Diabetes Care*. 2007; 30(7): 1770-1776.doi:10.2337/dc06-2571
- 16. Fraser G, Shavlik D. Ten years of life: is it a matter of choice? *Arch Intern Med*. 2001; 161(13): 1645-1652. doi:10.1001/archinte.161.13.1645
- 17. Butler T, Fraser G, Jaceldo-Siegl K, et al. Cohort Profile: the Adventist Health Study-2 (AHS-2). *Int J Epidemiol*.2008; 37(2): 260-265.doi:10.1093/ije/dym165
- 18. Lee J, Morton K, Fraser G, et al. Cohort Profile: The biopsychosocial religion and health study (BRHS). *Int J Epidemiol*.2009; 38(6): 1470-1478.doi:10.1093/ije/dyn244
- 19. Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes 2014. *Diabetes Care*. 2014; 37(S1): S14-S40. doi:10.2337/dc14-S014
- 20. Landis JR, Koch GG. The measurement of observer agreement for categorical data. *Biometrics*. 1977; 33: 159-174.
- 21. Goldman N, Lin I, Weinstein M, Lin Y. Evaluating the quality of self-reports of hypertension and diabetes. *J ClinEpidemiol*. 2003; 56(2): 148-154. doi:10.1016/S0895-4356(02)00580-2
- 22. Okura Y, Urban L, Mahoney D, Jacobsen S, Rodeheffer R. Agreement between self-report questionnaires and medical record data was substantial for diabetes, hypertension, myocardial infarction and stroke but not for heart failure. *J ClinEpidemiol*. 2004; 57(10): 1096-1103. doi:10.1016/j.jclinepi.2004.04.005
- 23. Ziemer D, Kolm P, Phillips L, et al. Glucose-independent, black-white differences in hemoglobin A1c levels: a cross-sectional analysis of 2

- studies. *Ann Intern Med.* 2010; 152(12): 770-777. doi:10.1059/0003-4819-152-12-201006150-00004
- 24. Jamil H, Fakhouri M, Dallo F, Templin T, Khoury R, Fakhouri H. Disparities in self-reported diabetes mellitus among Arab, Chaldean, and Black Americans in Southeast Michigan. J Immigr Minor
- *Health*.2008; 10(5): 397-405. doi:10.1007/s10903-007-9108-0
- 25. Selvin E, Parrinello C, Sacks D, Coresh J. Trends in prevalence and control of diabetes in the United States, 1988-1994 and 1999-2010. *Ann Intern Med.* 2014; 160(8): 517-525. doi:10.7326/M13-2411

How to cite this article: Asamsama OH, Lee JW, Morton KR et. al. Validity of type 2 diabetes self-reports among black and white church going adults. Int J Health Sci Res. 2014;4(12):286-293.

\*\*\*\*\*\*\*

#### International Journal of Health Sciences & Research (IJHSR)

### Publish your work in this journal

The International Journal of Health Sciences & Research is a multidisciplinary indexed open access double-blind peerreviewed international journal that publishes original research articles from all areas of health sciences and allied branches. This monthly journal is characterised by rapid publication of reviews, original research and case reports across all the fields of health sciences. The details of journal are available on its official website (www.ijhsr.org).

Submit your manuscript by email: editor.ijhsr@gmail.com OR editor.ijhsr@yahoo.com