

Research Article

A Cross-Sectional and Longitudinal Study of Pain among Middle-Aged and Older Adults in Thailand

Supa Pengpid ()^{1,2,3} and Karl Peltzer ()^{1,4,5}

¹Department of Health Education and Behavioral Sciences, Faculty of Public Health, Mahidol University, Bangkok, Thailand ²Department of Public Health, Sefako Makgatho Health Sciences University, Pretoria, South Africa

³Department of Healthcare Administration, College of Medical and Health Science, Asia University, Taichung, Taiwan

⁴Department of Psychology, University of the Free State, Bloemfontein, South Africa

⁵Department of Psychology, College of Medical and Health Science, Asia University, Taichung, Taiwan

Correspondence should be addressed to Karl Peltzer; kfpeltzer@gmail.com

Received 12 August 2022; Revised 13 December 2022; Accepted 3 March 2023; Published 9 March 2023

Academic Editor: Vahid Rakhshan

Copyright © 2023 Supa Pengpid and Karl Peltzer. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Objective. The present study aimed to assess the prevalence and risk factors of pain among ageing adults in Thailand. Methods. Cross-sectional and longitudinal data were analysed from two consecutive national waves of the Health, Aging, and Retirement in Thailand (HART) study in 2015 and 2017. The dependent variable pain was defined as moderate or severe pain in any of the 13 areas of the body over the past month. Independent variables included sociodemographic factors, health risk behaviour, physical and mental health conditions, and healthcare utilization. Results. The baseline or cross-sectional sample consisted of 5,616 participants (\geq 45 years), and the follow-up or incident sample consisted of 2,305 participants. The proportion of pain in the crosssectional/baseline sample was 36.0%, and in the incident/follow-up sample 39.9%. In the cross-sectional/baseline multivariable model, poor self-reported mental health, sleep problem, arthritis or rheumatism, brain disease and/or psychiatric problems, lung disease, use of hospital in-patient, conventional out-patient, and traditional medicine practitioners were positively associated with pain. In the incident/follow-up multivariable model, older age, Buddhist religion, class I obesity, poor self-reported mental health, hospital in-patient, private clinic out-patient, and use of a practitioner of traditional medicine were positively associated with pain. Male sex and higher education were negatively associated with both cross-sectional and incident pain. Conclusions. More than one-third of older adults in Thailand had past month moderate or severe pain. Risk factors of pain from cross-sectional and/or incident analysis included older age, female sex, lower education, obesity, poor self-reported mental health, sleep problem, arthritis or rheumatism, brain disease and/or psychiatric problems, lung disease, and conventional and traditional healthcare utilization.

1. Introduction

The population in Thailand is rapidly ageing, increasing the health burden of older adults [1]. In the general population, pain is a common symptom, comorbid with clinical conditions, and the prevalence ranges from 10% to 60% [2]. Pain has been redefined by the International Association for the Study of Pain as "An unpleasant sensory and emotional experience associated with, or resembling that associated with, actual or potential tissue damage [3]." Data from adults in the US even have shown an increase in noncancer pain from 32.9% in 1997/1998 to 41.0% in 2013/2014 [4]. In middle-income countries, past 12-month mild, moderate, or severe pain was reported by 14.3% in Brazil, 6.2% in China, and 18.3% in Russia [5]. In the 2008 National Health and Wellness Survey in the UK, France, Italy, Germany, and Spain, the prevalence of moderate or severe pain in the adult population in the past month was 16.6% [6]. In a multicountry study among older adults, 39.5% developed pain between baseline and 5 years' followup [2]. In a national study that included people aged 60 and older in China, 32.5% reported having pain [7]. We lack incident and cross-sectional data on pain in general populations, such as in Southeast Asia and Thailand [2], which led to this study.

As reviewed by Raggi et al. [2], risk factors for pain may include sociodemographic factors such as lower education, female sex, older age, and mental health problems, including sleep problems, depressive symptoms, chronic conditions, such as stroke, diabetes, and obesity, and health risk behaviours, such as physical inactivity and smoking. In the multicountry study, crosssectional risk factors for pain included obesity, female sex, and vigorous physical activity, and incident risk factors included walking difficulties, poor self-rated health, and sleep problems [2].

In addition, pain has been found to increase healthcare utilization. In a study among older adults in China, the pain was associated with an increased use of herbal medicine and over-the-counter drugs [7], in a study among adults in France, the pain was associated with more visits from healthcare providers, including emergency room visits and hospitalizations [8], and among adults with pain in a multicountry study (Brazil, China, Russia, Japan, USA, and developed European Union), physician visits, hospitalizations, and emergency room visits increased [5]. Considering the impact of pain on the life of older people, it is important to understand the pattern of pain characteristics and its risk factors, as well as healthcare utilization in Southeast Asia, including Thailand. The results may have implications for improving healthcare for patients with pain. Therefore, the objective of this cross-sectional and longitudinal study was to assess the prevalence and risk factors of pain in a national population-based sample of ageing adults in Thailand.

2. Methods

2.1. Study Design, Setting, and Participants. Cross-sectional and longitudinal national data were analysed from two consecutive surveys of the Health, Aging, and Retirement in Thailand (HART) study in 2015 and 2017 [9]. In a national sample, one household member (≥45 years) (inclusion criteria) was randomly selected by applying a multistage sampling process [9]; detailed procedures have been published [10]. The sample size of the 2015 survey was 5,616, and the sample of the 2017 survey was 3,708 participants, 1,908 were lost to follow-up, and the response and retention rate was 72.3% and 66.03%, respectively [11]. At baseline, a paper and pencil (PAPI) questionnaire were used, and at follow-up computer-assisted personal interviewing (CAPI) [9]. The Ethics Committee on Human Research of the National Institute of Development Administration, ECNIDA (ECNIDA 2020/00012), approved the study, and participants gave written informed consent [11]. We use Epi Info Version 7.2.2.6 for the calculation of the population survey sample size, prevalence of the previous study 32.5% pain [7], acceptable margin of error = 5, designing effect 1, at confidence level 99.99%, and the minimum sample required is 1327.

2.2. Measures.

Outcome Variable Pain

HART examines past-month pain in 13 body parts ("the head, shoulders, arms, wrists, fingers, chest, abdomen, back, hips, legs, knees, ankles, and toes") by asking the following question, "Did you feel any pain or ache in the following body parts in the last month?" Response options were none, mild, moderate, or severe. We defined moderate or severe pain in the past 4 weeks in one or more of the 13 body parts as "pain." Cronbach alpha for the pain measure was 0.81 and 0.82 in wave 1 and wave 2, respectively.

Healthcare utilisation was assessed with utilization of the following public and private healthcare types: (1) public healthcare: hospital admission, hospital out-patient in the past two years (district hospitals provide primary healthcare (PHC), and secondary care and regional/general hospitals provide tertiary and other specialized care), a health center in the past two years (provides PHC services), medical home visit in the past two years, and medical check-up in the past year, (2) private healthcare: private clinic in the past two years (mostly curative services), and (3) traditional medicine doctor in the past two years (is mostly private but can also be public health service) (Yes/No) [10, 12].

Sociodemographic variables included income quartile, education, sex, age, and religion [13].

Tobacco smoking, "Have you ever smoked cigarettes?" (responses were "1 = yes, and still smoke now, 2 = yes, but quit smoking, and 3 = never").

Alcohol use, "Have you ever drunk alcoholic beverages such as liquor, beer, or wine?" (response options: "1 = yes, and still drinking now, 2 = yes, but do not drink now, and 3 = never").

Physical activity was defined as "none = inactivity, 1-149 min/week = low activity, and $\geq 150 \text{ min/week} = \text{high activity}$ " [14].

Body mass index (BMI) was classified into "underweight (<18.5 kg/m²), normal weight (18.5–22.9 kg/m²), overweight (23–24.9 kg/m²), class I obesity (25–29.9 kg/m²), and class II obesity (30 kg/m²)" based on self-reported weight and height [15].

Probable depression (≥ 10 scores) was measured using the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression (CES-D-10) scale [16]; Cronbach alpha 0.78.

Self-reported mental health status: "In general, how would you rate your mental health status?" Responses were rated from "0 = very poor to 100 excellent," and poor mental health was defined as "0 to less than 80 and good mental health as 80-100" [11].

Sleep problem was defined as "almost always or often (versus sometimes or very rarely or never) having trouble falling asleep/insomnia in the past week" [9].

Chronic diseases (diagnosed by a healthcare provider) included diabetes, hypertension, arthritis or rheumatism, emphysema, emotional/nervous or psychiatric illness, lung diseases, Alzheimer's disease, cardiovascular diseases, brain diseases, kidney diseases, heart disease, and heart failure [9].

Functional disability was classified as being unable to do any of the four activities of daily living (ADL) (eating, bathing, dressing, and washing) [17] (Cronbach's α 0.94).

2.3. Statistical Analysis. Descriptive statistics were used to describe cross-sectional and incident pain by demographic and health status factors. To test for differences in proportions, Pearson chi-square tests were applied. The first Poisson regression model estimated prevalence ratios (PRs) and confidence intervals (CIs) for cross-sectional pain prevalence, and the second model compared the baseline sample without pain with incident pain (developed pain at follow-up). Variables significant at p < 0.1 in bivariate analyses were subsequently incorporated into the multivariable models. $p \le 0.05$ was accepted as statistically significant. Statistical analyses were carried out using StataSE 15.0 (College Station, TX, USA); only complete cases were included in the analyses.

3. Results

3.1. Participants. The baseline or cross-sectional sample consisted of 5,616 individuals (45 years and older, 66 years median age), and the follow-up or incident sample consisted of 2,305 participants. The prevalence of pain in the crosssectional/baseline sample was 36.0%, and the prevalence of incident pain (those who had pain at follow-up without pain at baseline) was 39.9%. In the baseline sample, most frequently moderate or severe pain was reported in the legs (19.0%), knees (18.6%), and back (11.8%), followed by hips (8.6%), arms (7.2%), shoulders (6.5%), head (5.5%), ankles (4.0%), wrists (3.1%), abdomen (3.0%), toes (2.1%), chest (1.9%), and fingers (1.8%). In the cross-sectional sample, binary analysis showed that sex, age, education, income, probable depression, body mass index, alcohol use status, self-reported mental health status, arthritis or rheumatism, sleep problem, kidney disease, hypertension, cardiovascular disease, diabetes, lung disease, functional disability, and brain disease or psychiatric problems differed significantly between persons with pain and without pain. In the incident population, binary analysis showed that sex, age, education, religion, income, smoking, physical activity, self-reported mental health status, hypertension, and diabetes differed significantly between persons with and without pain (see Table 1).

Table 2 shows the utilization of healthcare by crosssectional and incident pain. Binary analysis in the crosssectional population showed that all four types of healthcare utilization differed significantly between people with pain and without pain, and the binary analysis in the incident sample found that hospitalization, hospital out-patient, private clinic out-patient, and use of traditional medicine practitioner differed significantly between people with overall pain and without overall pain, as well as a leg, back, and knee pain (see Table 2).

3.2. Associations with Pain in Cross-Sectional Analysis. In the multivariable model, poor self-reported mental health (aPR: 1.49, 95% CI: 1.29 to 1.72), sleep problem (aPR: 1.99, 95% CI: 1.67 to 2.37), arthritis or rheumatism (aPR: 3.29, 95% CI: 2.36 to 4.60), lung disease (aPR: 1.94, 95% CI: 1.03 to 3.63), brain disease and/or psychiatric problems (aPR: 2.11, 95%

CI: 1.12 to 3.96), hospital in-patient (aPR: 1.88, 95% CI: 1.55 to 2.28), hospital out-patient (aPR: 1.27, 95% CI: 1.10 to 1.47), private clinic out-patient (aPR: 1.51, 95% CI: 1.20 to 1.90), and use of traditional medicine practitioner (aPR: 2.41, 95% CI: 1.60 to 3.63) were positively associated, and male sex (aPR: 0.77, 95% CI: 0.67 to 0.88) and higher education (aPR: 0.63, 95% CI: 0.53 to 0.76) were inversely associated with cross-sectional pain (see Table 3).

3.3. Associations with Incident Pain. In the final multivariable model, older age (aPR: 1.02, 95% CI: 1.01 to 1.03), Buddhist religion (aPR: 1.85, 95% CI: 1.26 to 2.73), obesity class I (aPR: 1.28, 95% CI: 1.01 to 1.62), poor self-reported mental health (aPR: 1.27, 95% CI: 1.02 to 1.58), hospital inpatient (aPR: 1.75, 95% CI: 1.31 to 2.35), private clinic outpatient (aPR: 1.59, 95% CI: 1.22 to 2.07), and use of traditional medicine practitioner (aPR: 2.57, 95% CI: 1.61 to 4.09) were positively associated, and male sex (aPR: 0.80, 95% CI: 0.66 to 0.99) and higher education (aPR: 0.65, 95% CI: 0.51 to 0.83) were inversely associated with incident pain (see Table 4).

4. Discussion

It appears that this is the first study that assessed the prevalence and risk factors of pain among ageing adults (≥45 years) in a national household survey in Thailand in 2015 and 2017. The prevalence of moderate or severe pain in the cross-sectional population was 36.0% and in the incident population 39.9%. This result is similar to the prevalence of pain among older adults in China (32.5%) [7], among adults in the USA (32.9%-41.0%) [4], and in a multicountry study among older adults (39.5% incident pain) [2], but higher than among adults in Brazil, China, and Russia (ranging from 6.2% to 18.3% past 12-month mild, moderate, or severe pain, versus 70% mild, moderate, or severe past month pain in our study, analysis not shown) [5], and among adults in the UK, France, Italy, Germany, and Spain (16.6% moderate or severe past month pain) [6]. Some of these differences may be explained by social and cultural differences, as well as differences in the measurement or definition of pain.

Risk factors of pain from cross-sectional and/or incident analysis included older age, female sex, lower education, Buddhist religion, obesity class I, poor self-reported mental health, sleep problem, arthritis or rheumatism, brain disease and/or psychiatric problems, lung disease, hospital inpatient, conventional out-patient, and traditional medicine practitioner use. Our results are in line with former research in terms of older age [18], females [2, 5, 7, 18], and lower education [19, 20]. It is possible that older adults develop more physical conditions, which in turn may cause more pain in the body [18]. Compared to women, men may underreport pain due to internalized masculinity norms [18, 21]. Older adults with lower education and, in univariable analysis, lower income had a higher prevalence of pain. General education and access to financial resources can improve general health and reduce pain through healthbehavioural, medical, and social factors [20]. Compared to

Variables	Subcategory		tional pain	p value	Incider	-	p value
4.11		No	Yes		No	Yes	
All		3593 (64.0)	2023 (36.0)		1385 (60.1)	919 (39.9)	
	45-54	779 (70.5)	326 (29.5)		303 (66.3)	154 (33.7)	
Age (in years)	55–64 65–74	974 (64.9)	526 (35.1)	< 0.001	403 (63.0)	237 (37.0)	< 0.001
		858 (62.6)	512 (37.4)		346 (59.1)	239 (40.9)	
	75 or more	982 (59.8)	659 (40.2)		334 (53.6)	289 (46.4)	
Sex	Female	1772 (60.5)	1158 (39.5)	< 0.001	647 (56.2)	504 (43.8)	< 0.001
	Male	1821 (67.8)	865 (32.2)		739 (64.0)	415 (36.0)	
	None	201 (55.4)	162 (44.6)		62 (51.2)	59 (48.8)	
Education	Elementary	2607 (61.8)	1610 (38.2)	< 0.001	1008 (58.1)	726 (41.9)	< 0.001
	>Elementary	769 (75.7)	247 (24.3)		312 (70.3)	132 (29.7)	
Marital status	Not married	1489 (63.3)	863 (36.7)	0.403	522 (57.9)	380 (42.1)	0.080
	Married/cohabiting	2098 (64.4)	1160 (35.6)		862 (61.5)	539 (38.5)	
Religion	Muslim or other	244 (60.8)	157 (39.2)	0.182	125 (69.4)	55 (30.6)	0.008
Kengloh	Buddhist	3342 (64.2)	1866 (35.8)	0.102	1259 (59.3)	864 (40.7)	0.000
	Low	830 (59.2)	573 (40.8)		318 (62.8)	188 (37.2)	
Income quartile	Lower middle	848 (61.5)	531 (38.5)	< 0.001	313 (55.7)	249 (44.3)	0.012
Income quartile	Upper middle	902 (64.6)	517 (36.4)	<0.001	358 (58.1)	258 (41.9)	0.012
	High	1013 (71.6)	402 (28.4)		397 (63.9)	224 (36.1)	
	Never	2893 (63.9)	1637 (36.1)		1087 (58.9)	758 (41.1)	0.056
Alcohol use	Past	232 (59.3)	159 (40.7)	0.028	102 (65.8)	53 (34.2)	
	Current	468 (67.3)	227 (32.7)		197 (64.6)	108 (35.4)	
	Never	2875 (64.1)	1608 (35.9)		1075 (58.4)	766 (41.6)	
Smoking tobacco	Past	253 (59.4)	173 (40.6)	0.085	102 (62.6)	61 (37.4)	< 0.001
5	Current	465 (65.8)	242 (34.2)		209 (69.4)	92 (30.6)	
	None	2166 (64.2)	1210 (35.8)		802 (58.9)	560 (41.1)	
Physical activity	1–149 min./week	852 (62.5)	511 (37.5)	0.320	328 (59.0)	228 (41.0)	0.030
Thysical activity	≥150 min./week	575 (65.6)	302 (34.4)	0.020	256 (66.1)	131 (33.9)	0.050
	Normal	1270 (66.4)	642 (33.6)		490 (60.9)	314 (39.1)	0.281
	Underweight	347 (62.1)	212 (37.9)	0.010	140 (63.1)	82 (36.9)	
Body mass index	Overweight	663 (65.8)	344 (34.2)		256 (60.4)	168 (39.6)	
body mass much	Obesity class I	773 (63.0)	454 (37.0)		277 (56.1)	217 (43.9)	
	Obesity class I	197 (51.6)	154 (43.9)		71 (57.7)	52 (42.3)	
	•						
Probable depression	No	2979 (65.8)	1549 (34.2)	< 0.001	1162 (60.5)	760 (39.5)	0.772
	Yes	336 (52.5)	304 (47.5)		123 (59.4)	84 (40.6)	
Sleep problem	No	3141 (67.8)	1493 (32.2)	< 0.001	1226 (60.8)	792 (39.2)	0.075
1 1	Yes	409 (44.7)	507 (55.3)		143 (55.0)	117 (45.0)	
Self-reported mental health	Good	2596 (67.6)	1244 (32.4)	< 0.001	1040 (61.3)	656 (38.7)	0.021
	Poor	924 (56.1)	723 (43.9)	101001	316 (55.8)	250 (44.2)	01021
Arthritis or rheumatism	No	3520 (65.3)	1872 (34.7)	< 0.001	1358 (60.2)	897 (39.8)	0.546
Artifities of Theumatishi	Yes	73 (32.6)	151 (67.4)	<0.001	28 (56.0)	22 (44.0)	0.540
Hymostopoion	No	2435 (66.4)	1230 (33.6)	<0.001	944 (61.6)	588 (38.4)	0.040
Hypertension	Yes	1158 (59.4)	793 (40.6)	< 0.001	442 (57.2)	331 (42.8)	0.040
	No	3080 (64.6)	1687 (35.4)	0.04.0	1207 (61.3)	762 (38.7)	
Diabetes	Yes	513 (60.4)	336 (39.6)	0.019	179 (53.3)	157 (46.7)	0.005
Cardiovascular disease	No	3443 (64.5)	1896 (35.5)		1331 (60.4)	872 (39.6)	
	Yes	150 (54.2)	127 (45.8)	< 0.001	55 (53.9)	47 (46.1)	0.190
Kidney diseases	No	3536 (64.2)	1975 (35.8)		1369 (60.4)	899 (39.6)	
	Yes	57 (54.3)	48 (45.7)	0.037	17 (45.9)	20 (54.1)	0.076
Brain diseases and psychiatric problems	No	3568 (64.3)	1983 (35.7)	< 0.001	1378 (60.2)	912 (39.8) $7(46.7)$	0.590
~ / ×	Yes	25 (38.5)	40 (61.5)		8 (53.3)	7 (46.7)	
Lung diseases	No	3570 (64.1)	1997 (35.9)	0.013	1376 (60.2)	910 (39.8)	0.503
0	Yes	23 (46.9)	26 (53.1)		10 (52.6)	9 (47.4)	
Functional disability	No	3504 (64.9)	1894 (35.1)	0.008	1331 (60.3)	876 (39.7)	0.292
Functional disability	Yes	89 (40.8)	129 (59.2)	0.000	31 (53.4)	31 (53.4) 27 (46.6)	0.292

TABLE 1: Demographic factors and health status by cross-sectional and incident pain.

		Cross-sectional Overall pain			Incie	lent	
Variable				p value	Overall pain		p value
		No	Yes		No	Yes	
Hospital in-patient	No	3247 (66.5)	1639 (33.5)	< 0.001	1267 (62.8)	749 (37.2)	< 0.001
	Yes	346 (47.4)	384 (52.6)	<0.001	119 (41.2)	170 (58.8)	<0.001
Hospital out-patient	No	1976 (69.5)	868 (30.5)	< 0.001	821 (65.6)	431 (34.4)	< 0.001
	Yes	1617 (58.3)	1155 (41.7)	<0.001	564 (53.7)	487 (46.3)	<0.001
Private clinic out-patient	No	3348 (65.1)	1792 (34.9)	< 0.001	1218 (62.3)	737 (37.7)	< 0.001
	Yes	245 (51.5)	231 (48.5)	(0.001	167 (48.4)	178 (51.6)	(0.001
Traditional medicine practitioner	No	3538 (64.7)	1930 (35.3)	< 0.001	1343 (61.2)	852 (38.8)	< 0.001
	Yes	55 (37.2)	93 (62.8)	(0.001	39 (37.5)	65 (62.5)	<0.001
			pain		Back		
Hospital in-patient	No	4365 (89.3)	521 (10.7)	< 0.001	2495 (88.4)	327 (11.6)	< 0.001
	Yes	589 (80.7)	141 (19.3)		352 (82.8)	73 (17.2)	
Hospital out-patient	No	2602 (91.5)	242 (8.5)	< 0.001	1489 (88.9)	186 (11.1)	0.029
	Yes	2352 (84.8)	420 (15.2)		1357 (86.4)	214 (13.6)	
Private clinic out-patient	No	4550 (88.5)	590 (11.5)	0.018	2407 (88.8)	304 (11.2)	< 0.001
	Yes	404 (84.9)	72 (15.1)	0.010	438 (82.3)	94 (17.7)	
Traditional medicine practitioner	No	4837 (88.5)	631 (11.5)	< 0.001	2730 (88.3)	362 (11.7)	< 0.001
	Yes	117 (79.1)	31 (20.9)		111 (74.5)	38 (25.5)	
		Knee pain			Knee		
Hospital in-patient	No	4057 (83.0)	829 (17.0)	< 0.001	2124 (81.8)	473 (18.2)	< 0.001
	Yes	517 (70.8)	213 (29.2)		262 (71.4)	105 (28.6)	
Hospital out-patient	No	2436 (85.7)	408 (14.3)	< 0.001	1327 (83.7)	258 (16.3)	< 0.001
	Yes	2138 (77.1)	634 (22.9)	<0.001	1057 (76.7)	321 (23.3)	
Private clinic out-patient	No	4208 (81.9)	932 (18.1)	0.008	2011 (81.2)	465 (18.8)	0.035
	Yes	366 (76.9)	110 (23.1)	0.000	373 (77.1)	111 (22.9)	
Traditional medicine practitioner	No	4467 (81.7)	1001 (18.3)	0.004	2278 (80.9)	539 (19.1)	0.017
	Yes	107 (72.3)	41 (27.7)	0.004	101 (72.7)	38 (27.3)	
		Leg pain			Leg		
Hospital in-patient	No	4050 (82.9)	836 (17.1)	< 0.001	2248 (86.8)	343 (13.2)	< 0.001
	Yes	501 (68.6)	229 (31.4)	<0.001	290 (78.8)	78 (21.2)	
Hospital out-patient	No	2433 (85.5)	411 (14.5)	<0.001	1385 (87.9)	191 (12.1)	< 0.001
	Yes	2118 (76.4)	654 (23.6)	< 0.001	1151 (83.3)	230 (16.7)	
Private clinic out-patient	No	4183 (81.4)	957 (18.6)	0.020	2141 (86.4)	336 (13.6)	0.020
	Yes	368 (77.3)	108 (22.7)	0.030	394 (82.6)	83 (17.4)	0.028
The distance is a distance and stirt	No	4442 (81.2)	1026 (18.8)	0.020	2423 (86.3)	384 (13.7)	<0.001
Traditional medicine practitioner	Yes	109 (73.6)	39 (26.4)	0.020 107 (74.3)	37 (25.7)	< 0.001	

TABLE 2: Healthcare utilization by cross-sectional and incident pain.

TABLE 3: Associations with cross-sectional pain, HART 2015.

Variables	CPR (95% CI)	p value	APR (95% CI)	<i>p</i> value	
Age (in years)	1.014 (1.01 to 1.02)	< 0.001	1.004 (0.998-1.011)	0.165	
Female	1 (reference)	< 0.001	1 (reference)	< 0.001	
Male	0.73 (0.65 to 0.81)	<0.001	0.77 (0.67 to 0.88)	< 0.001	
<elementary education<="" td=""><td>1 (reference)</td><td>< 0.001</td><td>1 (reference)</td><td rowspan="2">< 0.001</td></elementary>	1 (reference)	< 0.001	1 (reference)	< 0.001	
>Elementary education	0.51 (0.44 to 0.59)	<0.001	0.63 (0.53 to 0.76)		
Not married	1 (reference)	0.403			
Married	0.95 (0.85 to 1.07)	0.405			
Muslim or other	1 (reference)	0.182			
Buddhist	0.87 (0.71 to 1.07)	0.182			
Income high	1 (reference)	<0.001	1 (reference)	0.452	
Income low	1.37 (1.23 to 1.53)	< 0.001	1.06 (0.92 to 1.21)		
Current alcohol use	0.84 (0.71 to 1.00)	0.049	1.06 (0.87 to 1.31)	0.558	
Smoking tobacco	0.91 (0.77 to 1.08)	0.288			
Physical activity					

TABLE 3: Continued.

TABLE 5. Continued.							
Variables	CPR (95% CI)	p value	APR (95% CI)	<i>p</i> value			
None	1 (reference)						
1-149 minutes/week	1.07 (0.94 to 1.22)	0.285					
≥150 minutes/week	0.94 (0.80 to 1.10)	0.438					
Body mass index							
Normal	1 (reference)		1 (reference)				
Underweight	1.21 (0.99 to 1.47)	0.057	1.10 (0.89 to 1.37)	0.380			
Overweight	1.03 (0.87 to 1.21)	0.751	1.01 (0.84 to 1.20)	0.948			
Obesity I	1.16 (1.00 to 1.35)	0.050	1.14 (0.97 to 1.35)	0.123			
Obesity II	1.55 (1.23 to 1.95)	< 0.001	1.28 (0.99 to 1.67)	0.061			
Probable depression	1.74 (1.47 to 2.06)	< 0.001	1.14 (0.93 to 1.41)	0.209			
Self-reported mental health (poor)	1.63 (1.45 to 1.84)	< 0.001	1.49 (1.29 to 1.72)	< 0.001			
Sleep problem	2.61 (2.26 to 3.01)	< 0.001	1.99 (1.67 to 2.37)	< 0.001			
Arthritis or rheumatism	3.89 (2.93 to 5.17)	< 0.001	3.29 (2.36 to 4.60)	< 0.001			
Hypertension	1.36 (1.21 to 1.52)	< 0.001	1.13 (0.98 to 1.31)	0.103			
Diabetes	1.20 (1.03 to 1.39)	0.019	0.90 (0.75 to 1.08)	0.278			
Cardiovascular disease	1.54 (1.21 to 1.96)	< 0.001	1.09 (0.81 to 1.47)	0.554			
Kidney diseases	1.51 (1.02 to 2.22)	0.038	1.36 (0.86 to 2.13)	0.187			
Brain diseases and psychiatric problems	2.88 (1.74 to 4.76)	< 0.001	2.11 (1.12 to 3.96)	0.020			
Lung diseases	2.02 (1.15 to 3.55)	0.014	1.94 (1.03 to 3.63)	0.039			
Functional disability	1.46 (1.10 to 1.94)	0.008	1.03 (0.72 to 1.47)	0.879			
Health care utilization							
Hospital in-patient	2.20 (1.88 to 2.57)	< 0.001	1.88 (1.55 to 2.28)	< 0.001			
Hospital out-patient	1.35 (1.19 to 1.52)	< 0.001	1.27 (1.10 to 1.47)	< 0.001			
Private clinic out-patient	1.76 (1.46 to 2.12)	< 0.001	1.51 (1.20 to 1.90)	< 0.001			
Traditional medicine practitioner	3.10 (2.21 to 4.35)	< 0.001	2.41 (1.60 to 3.63)	< 0.001			

CPR: crude prevalence ratio, APR: adjusted prevalence ratio, and CI: confidence interval.

Muslims or others, Buddhists had a higher prevalence of pain. Similarly, in a study in Thailand [22], the proportion of knee pain was lower in Muslims than in Buddhists, which may relate to differences in religious practices ("Muslims pray since childhood by forcing the knees into deep flexion, stretching the soft tissue surrounding the knee, and decrease stiffness and contact pressure of the articular cartilage").

Consistent with previous research [2], we found that modifiable risk factors, such as obesity, poor selfreported mental health status, and sleep problems, increased the odds of pain. Obesity can contribute to pain through mechanical and inflammatory processes [2, 23]. Weight loss and sleep behaviour modification and mental health promotion can be used to address these modifiable risk factors [2]. In addition, physical exercise was found to be protective against pain in the univariable model. Although some studies show a bidirectional association between physical activity and knee pain [24]. On the other hand, some other studies found a bidirectional association between pain and sleep problems [25] and poor mental health (depressive symptoms) [26].

Furthermore, in agreement with previous research [2, 5], having certain comorbidities, such as arthritis [7] and lung diseases, increased the odds of pain. Older adults with arthritis are prone to pain disability [27], and pain is a common problem among patients with interstitial lung disease [28]. In addition, in univariable analyses, other non-communicable diseases (NCDs), such as hypertension and diabetes were associated with pain. Given the large burden of NCDs in Thailand and the region, it may be important to

synergistically target NCDs and pain relief interventions [7]. Moreover, in line with previous findings [5, 7, 8], pain increased hospital admission, conventional, and traditional medicine out-patient care visits. More research is needed to explore the specific pain management strategies, for example for the most frequently occurring pains related to the legs, knees, and back, by the different types of healthcare providers in Thailand. For example, a "Thai Medicinal Plant-4 (TMP-4) cream made up of *Garcinia mangostana* peel, *Sesamum indicum* seeds, *Glycine max* (L.) Merr. Seeds, and *Centella asiatica* leaves were not inferior to diclofenac gel in relieving osteoarthritic knee pain." [29].

Study limitations include the evaluation of the selfreport of all study variables. Furthermore, chronic pain and care or treatment modalities for pain were not assessed. Furthermore, the survey excluded institutionalised persons.

In conclusion, more than one-third of older adults in Thailand had past month moderate or severe pain. Risk factors of pain from cross-sectional and/or incident analysis included older age, female sex, lower education, Buddhist religion, obesity class I, poor self-reported mental health, sleep problem, arthritis or rheumatism, brain disease and/or psychiatric problems, lung disease, hospital in-patient, conventional out-patient, and traditional medicine practitioner use. The findings of this study may guide healthcare professionals and clinicians in improving pain management strategies. Additional investigations are indicated to assess chronic pain and types of pain management strategies by older adults in Thailand.

Pain Research and Management

TABLE 4: Associations with incident pain, HART 2015-2017.

Variables	CPR (95% CI)	p value	APR (95% CI)	p value
Age (in years)	1.02 (1.01 to 1.022)	< 0.001	1.02 (1.01 to 1.03)	< 0.001
Female	1 (reference)	-0.001	1 (reference)	0.025
Male	0.72 (0.61 to 0.85)	< 0.001	0.80 (0.66 to 0.99)	0.035
≤Elementary education	1 (reference)	< 0.001	1 (reference)	-0.001
>Elementary education	0.58 (0.46 to 0.72)	<0.001	0.65 (0.51 to 0.83)	< 0.001
Not married	1 (reference)	0.080	1 (reference)	0.553
Married	0.86 (0.72 to 1.02)	0.080	1.07 (0.86 to 1.33)	0.555
Muslim or other	1 (reference)	0.008	1 (reference)	0.002
Buddhist	1.56 (1.12 to 2.17)	0.008	1.85 (1.26 to 2.73)	0.002
Income high	1 (reference)	0.240		
Income low	1.09 (0.92 to 1.28)	0.340		
Current alcohol use	0.80 (0.63 to 1.03)	0.088	1.13 (0.83 to 1.47)	0.449
Smoking tobacco	0.62 (0.48 to 0.80)	< 0.001	0.75 (0.55 to 1.03)	0.076
Physical activity				
None	1 (reference)		1 (reference)	
1–149 minutes/week	1.00 (0.82 to 1.22)	0.965	1.05 (0.85 to 1.31)	0.657
≥150 minutes/week	0.73 (0.58 to 0.93)	0.010	0.79 (0.62 to 1.02)	0.073
Body mass index				
Normal	1 (reference)		1 (reference)	
Underweight	0.91 (0.67 to 1.24)	0.566	0.84 (0.61 to 1.16)	0.278
Overweight	1.02 (0.81 to 1.30)	0.846	1.06 (0.83 to 1.37)	0.638
Obesity I	1.22 (0.97 to 1.53)	0.086	1.28 (1.01 to 1.62)	0.044
Obesity II	1.14 (0.78 to 1.68)	0.496	1.17 (0.78 to 1.75)	0.443
Probable depression	1.04 (0.78 to 1.40)	0.772	_	
Self-reported mental health (poor)	1.25 (1.04 to 1.52)	0.021	1.27 (1.02 to 1.58)	0.035
Sleep problem	1.27 (0.98 to 1.64)	0.075	1.11 (0.83 to 1.47)	0.486
Arthritis or rheumatism	1.19 (0.68 to 2.09)	0.547	_	
Hypertension	1.20 (1.01 to 1.43)	0.040	1.01 (0.82 to 1.25)	0.930
Diabetes	1.39 (1.10 to 1.75)	0.006	1.13 (0.86 to 1.48)	0.397
Cardiovascular disease	1.30 (0.88 to 1.94)	0.191	_	
Kidney diseases	1.79 (0.93 to 3.44)	0.080	1.63 (0.83 to 3.22)	0.159
Brain diseases and psychiatric problems	1.32 (0.48 to 0.366)	0.591	_	
Lung diseases	1.36 (0.55 to 3.36)	0.504	_	
Functional disability	1.32 (0.78 to 2.23)	0.294	_	
Healthcare utilization				
Hospital in-patient	2.42 (1.88 to 3.11)	< 0.001	1.75 (1.31 to 2.35)	< 0.001
Hospital out-patient	1.65 (1.39 to 1.95)	< 0.001	1.21 (0.98 to 1.50)	0.074
Private clinic out-patient	1.76 (1.40 to 2.22)	< 0.001	1.59 (1.22 to 2.07)	< 0.001
Traditional medicine practitioner	2.63 (1.75 to 3.34)	< 0.001	2.57 (1.61 to 4.09)	< 0.001

CPR: crude prevalence ratio, APR: adjusted prevalence ratio, and CI: confidence interval.

Data Availability

The data source is publicly available at Gateway to Global Ageing Data, Health, Aging, and Retirement in Thailand: https://g2aging.org/?section=study&studyid=44.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

Acknowledgments

The Health, Aging, and Retirement in Thailand (HART) study was sponsored by the Thailand Science Research and Innovation (TSRI) and National Research Council of Thailand (NRCT).

References

- D. Anantanasuwong, "Population ageing in Thailand: critical issues in the twenty-first century," in *Education for the Elderly* in the Asia Pacific, Education in the Asia-Pacific Region: Issues, Concerns and Prospects 59, P. Narot and N. Kiettikunwong, Eds., Springer, Singapore, 2021.
- [2] A. Raggi, M. Leonardi, B. Mellor-Marsá et al., "Predictors of pain in general ageing populations: results from a multicountry analysis based on ATHLOS harmonized database," *The Journal of Headache and Pain*, vol. 21, no. 1, p. 45, 2020.
- [3] S. N. Raja, D. B. Carr, M. Cohen et al., "The revised International Association for the Study of Pain definition of pain: concepts, challenges, and compromises," *Pain*, vol. 161, no. 9, pp. 1976–1982, 2020.
- [4] R. L. Nahin, B. Sayer, B. J. Stussman, and T. M. Feinberg, "Eighteen-year trends in the prevalence of, and health care use for, noncancer pain in the United States: data from the

medical expenditure panel survey," The Journal of Pain, vol. 20, no. 7, pp. 796-809, 2019.

- [5] A. Goren, J. Mould-Quevedo, and M. daCosta DiBonaventura, "Prevalence of pain reporting and associated health outcomes across emerging markets and developed countries," *Pain Medicine*, vol. 15, no. 11, pp. 1880–1891, 2014.
- [6] P. C. Langley, "The prevalence, correlates and treatment of pain in the European Union," *Current Medical Research and Opinion*, vol. 27, no. 2, pp. 463–480, 2011.
- [7] L. Yang and W. Peng, "Prevalence and factors associated with body pain: results of a nationally representative survey of 9,586 Chinese adults aged 60 and over," *Frontiers in Public Health*, vol. 9, Article ID 634123, 2021.
- [8] Y. Hadjiat, A. Serrie, R. Treves, B. Chomier, L. Geranton, and S. Billon, "Pain associated with health and economic burden in France: results from recent National Health and Wellness Survey data," *ClinicoEconomics and Outcomes Research*, vol. 10, pp. 53–65, 2018.
- [9] S. Pengpid and K. Peltzer, "Prevalence and associated factors of cross-sectional and incident self-reported arthritis or rheumatism among a national community sample of middleaged and older adults in Thailand," *Frontiers in Public Health*, vol. 11, Article ID 1064751, 2023.
- [10] D. Anantanasuwong, D. Theerawanviwat, and P. Siripanich, "Panel survey and study on health and aging, and retirement in Thailand," in *Encyclopedia of Gerontology and Population Aging*, D. Gu and M. Dupre, Eds., Springer, Cham, Switzerland, 2019.
- [11] K. Peltzer and S. Pengpid, "Socioeconomic position and physical and mental health among middle-aged and older adults: cross-sectional and longitudinal results from a national community sample in Thailand," *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment*, vol. 2022, Article ID 2146827, 15 pages, 2022.
- [12] World Health Organization, "The kingdom of thailand health system review health systems in transition," 2015, https:// apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/208216/ 9789290617136_eng.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y.
- [13] D. Anantanasuwong, S. Pengpid, and K. Peltzer, "Prevalence and associated factors of successful ageing among people 50 Years and older in a national community sample in Thailand," *International Journal of Environmental Research* and Public Health, vol. 19, no. 17, Article ID 10705, 2022.
- [14] World Health Organization, Guidelines on Physical Activity and Sedentary Behaviour, World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland, 2020.
- [15] C. P. Wen, T. Y. David Cheng, S. P. Tsai et al., "Are Asians at greater mortality risks for being overweight than Caucasians? Redefining obesity for Asians," *Public Health Nutrition*, vol. 12, no. 04, pp. 497–506, 2009.
- [16] E. M. Andresen, J. A. Malmgren, W. B. Carter, and D. L. Patrick, "Screening for depression in well older adults: evaluation of a short form of the CES-D," *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, vol. 10, no. 2, pp. 77–84, 1994.
- [17] S. Katz, A. B. Ford, K. G. Heiple, and V. A. Newill, "Studies of illness in the aged: recovery after fracture of the hip," *Journal* of Gerontology, vol. 19, no. 3, pp. 285–293, 1964.
- [18] X. K. Liu, S. Y. Xiao, L. Zhou, M. Hu, and H. M. Liu, "Different predictors of pain severity across age and gender of a Chinese rural population: a cross-sectional survey," *BMJ Open*, vol. 8, no. 7, Article ID e020938, 2018.
- [19] F. Pan, J. Tian, D. Aitken, F. Cicuttini, and G. Jones, "Predictors of pain severity trajectory in older adults: a 10.7-year

follow-up study," Osteoarthritis and Cartilage, vol. 26, no. 12, pp. 1619–1626, 2018.

- [20] A. Zajacova, R. G. Rogers, E. Grodsky, and H. Grol-Prokopczyk, "The relationship between education and pain among adults aged 30-49 in the United States," *The Journal of Pain*, vol. 21, no. 11-12, pp. 1270–1280, 2020.
- [21] D. S. Berke, D. E. Reidy, J. D. Miller, and A. Zeichner, "Take it like a man: gender-threatened men's experience of gender role discrepancy, emotion activation, and pain tolerance," *Psychology of Men and Masculinity*, vol. 18, no. 1, pp. 62–69, 2017.
- [22] S. Chokkhanchitchai, T. Tangarunsanti, S. Jaovisidha, K. Nantiruj, and S. Janwityanujit, "The effect of religious practice on the prevalence of knee osteoarthritis," *Clinical Rheumatology*, vol. 29, no. 1, pp. 39–44, 2010.
- [23] A. Okifuji and B. D. Hare, "The association between chronic pain and obesity," *Journal of Pain Research*, vol. 8, pp. 399– 408, 2015.
- [24] S. Balogun, D. Scott, F. Cicuttini, G. Jones, and D. Aitken, "Longitudinal study of the relationship between physical activity and knee pain and functional limitation in community-dwelling older adults," *Archives of Gerontology* and Geriatrics, vol. 90, Article ID 104101, 2020.
- [25] S. C. Griffin, S. G. Ravyts, E. Bourchtein et al., "Sleep disturbance and pain in U.S. adults over 50: evidence for reciprocal, longitudinal effects," *Sleep Medicine*, vol. 86, pp. 32–39, 2021.
- [26] Y. Qiu, Y. Ma, and X. Huang, "Bidirectional relationship between body pain and depressive symptoms: a pooled analysis of two national aging cohort studies," *Frontiers in Psychiatry*, vol. 13, Article ID 881779, 2022.
- [27] N. T. James, C. W. Miller, K. C. Brown, and M. Weaver, "Pain disability among older adults with arthritis," *Journal of Aging and Health*, vol. 17, no. 1, pp. 56–69, 2005.
- [28] Q. Shen, T. Guo, M. Song et al., "Pain is a common problem in patients with ILD," *Respiratory Research*, vol. 21, no. 1, p. 297, 2020.
- [29] N. Koonrungsesomboon, A. Churyen, S. Teekachunhatean, C. Sangdee, and N. Hanprasertpong, "A randomized controlled trial of Thai medicinal plant-4 cream versus diclofenac gel in the management of symptomatic osteoarthritis of the knee," *Evidence-based Complementary and Alternative Medicine*, vol. 2022, Article ID 8657000, 11 pages, 2022.