

Impact of integrated district level mental health care on clinical and social outcomes of people with severe mental illness in rural Ethiopia: an intervention cohort study

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3

4 **Impact of integrated district level mental health care on clinical and social outcomes of people with**
5 **severe mental illness in rural Ethiopia: an intervention cohort study**

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8

9 **Short title:** District mental health care for people with SMI in Ethiopia

10

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29

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31

32 **Abstract**

33 Aim

34 There is limited evidence of the safety and impact of task-shared care for people with severe mental
35 illnesses (SMI; psychotic disorders and bipolar disorder) in low-income countries. The aim of this study
36 was to evaluate the safety and impact of a district level plan for task-shared mental health care on 6 and
37 12-month clinical and social outcomes of people with SMI in rural southern Ethiopia.

38 Methods

39 In the Programme for Improving Mental health care (PRIME), we conducted an intervention cohort
40 study. Trained primary healthcare (PHC) workers assessed community referrals, diagnosed SMI and
41 initiated treatment, with independent research diagnostic assessments by psychiatric nurses. Primary
42 outcomes were symptom severity and disability. Secondary outcomes included discrimination and
43 restraint.

44 Results

45 Almost all (94.5%) PHC worker diagnoses of SMI were verified by psychiatric nurses. All prescribing was
46 within recommended dose limits.

47 A total of 245 (81.7%) people with SMI were re-assessed at 12 months. Minimally adequate treatment
48 was received by 29.8%.

49 All clinical and social outcomes improved significantly. The impact on disability (standardised mean
50 difference 0.50; 95% confidence interval (CI) 0.35, 0.65) was greater than impact on symptom severity
51 (standardised mean difference 0.28; 95%CI 0.13, 0.44). Being restrained in the previous 12 months
52 reduced from 25.3% to 10.6%, and discrimination scores reduced significantly.

53 Conclusions

54 An integrated district level mental health care plan employing task-sharing safely addressed the large
55 treatment gap for people with SMI in a rural, low-income country setting. Randomised controlled trials
56 of differing models of task-shared care for people with SMI are warranted.

57

58 **Key words**

59 Community mental health; schizophrenia; bipolar disorder; psychotic disorder; global mental health;
60 task-sharing

61

62

63

64 **Introduction**

65 The treatment gap for people with severe mental illness (SMI) is over 90% in most low-income countries
66 (Wang *et al.*, 2007). A ‘full’ task-sharing model whereby primary healthcare (PHC) workers are equipped
67 to deliver all aspects of first-line mental health care, with limited specialist support, is recommended to
68 increase access to care. Full task-sharing is at the heart of the World Health Organisation (WHO)’s
69 mental health Gap Action Programme (mhGAP) (World Health Organization, 2008). However, many
70 studies of task-shared care for SMI have employed a model whereby a mental health specialist makes
71 the diagnosis of SMI, initiates treatment and provides ongoing review, combined with involvement of
72 non-specialists in delivering psychosocial aspects of care (Chatterjee *et al.*, 2014). This ‘partial’ model of
73 task-sharing cannot address the needs of most people with SMI in low-income countries due to the
74 scarcity of mental health professionals. In the few examples of programmes employing a ‘full’ task-
75 sharing approach (Gureje *et al.*, 2015, Ventevogel *et al.*, 2012), there is only limited evidence on
76 whether care can be delivered safely and with sufficient quality to bring about improved outcomes for
77 people with SMD (Jordans *et al.*, 2017, Jordans *et al.*, 2019). This lack of evidence may be fuelling
78 reluctance to embrace the more ambitious task-sharing approach (Hanlon *et al.*, 2016b). To address this
79 evidence gap, we present findings from the Programme for Improving Mental health care (PRIME)
80 (Fekadu *et al.*, 2016). We have shown that PRIME in Ethiopia achieved contact coverage of over 80% for
81 people with SMI in the target population (Hailemariam *et al.*, 2018). The objective of the current study
82 was to investigate the impact of implementing a district level mental health care plan on the 12-month
83 clinical and social outcomes of people with SMI who engaged with primary mental health care in
84 Ethiopia.

85

86 **Methods**

87 Study design

88 We conducted an intervention cohort study, with assessments conducted at the baseline of
89 implementation of the district mental health care plan (T0), and six (T1) and 12 months (T2) after initial
90 engagement of people with SMI in the new integrated service.

91 Setting

92 The PRIME study was carried out in Sodo district, in the Gurage Zone of the Southern Nations,
93 Nationalities and Peoples' Region of southern Ethiopia from December 2014 to July 2016. Sodo has an
94 estimated population of around 160,000 people (Hanlon *et al.*, 2014). More than 90% of inhabitants live
95 in rural areas and rely on subsistence farming and small-scale trading. At the time of the study, health
96 services in Sodo comprised 54 health posts, most of which were staffed by two community health
97 extension workers with one year of training in general health promotion and illness prevention, and
98 eight health centres, staffed by nurses, health officers and midwives, who provide basic curative and
99 obstetric care. There were no doctors or mental health specialists in the district. In the nearest town of
100 Butajira, located 30 to 50km from Sodo, there was a psychiatric nurse-led out-patient clinic. The nearest
101 in-patient mental health services were 100-120km away in the capital city, Addis Ababa.

102

103 Sample and recruitment procedures

104 As described previously (Baron *et al.*, 2018), people with possible SMI in the community were identified
105 by community key informants and health extension workers who had received half a day of training in
106 typical presentations of SMI (Shibre *et al.*, 2002). People with possible SMI were referred to the nearest
107 health centre and assessed by PHC workers who had been trained in mental health care for a total of 10
108 days: five days of classroom-based teaching using adapted mhGAP training materials and five days of

109 practical clinical training in the Butajira psychiatric clinic. The PHC workers assessed the referrals, made
110 a diagnosis of SMI and initiated treatment according to the evidence-based clinical guidelines in the
111 WHO mhGAP Intervention Guide (World Health Organization, 2016). Independent diagnostic review was
112 carried out with standardised, semi-structured clinical assessments by research psychiatric nurses using
113 the OPERational CRITERia for research (OPCRIT) (McGuffin P *et al.*, 1991). Diagnostic assessments were
114 conducted for all people with PHC worker-diagnosed SMI and wherever the PHC worker was uncertain
115 about the diagnosis. The research psychiatric nurses reviewed the initial treatment plan. Any changes
116 made by the psychiatric nurses were communicated back to the PHC workers.

117 Eligibility criteria

- 118 • Confirmatory research psychiatric nurse diagnosis of a psychotic disorder (including
119 schizophrenia, schizoaffective disorder and depression with psychotic features) or bipolar
120 disorder.
- 121 • Providing informed consent, or caregiver permission, to participate in the study if the person
122 with SMI lacked capacity to consent.
- 123 • Able to converse in Amharic, the official language of the region.
- 124 • Planning to reside in the district for at least 12 months.
- 125 • No cognitive or sensory impairment that interfered substantially with the clinical assessment.
- 126 • Not acutely physically unwell.

127 Sample size

128 The sample size for the PRIME SMI cohorts across countries was calculated to detect a 20% reduction in
129 severity of symptoms at 12 months, with 90% power, two-sided alpha of 0.05 and 20% attrition rate
130 (Baron *et al.*, 2018), leading to a target sample size of 150. However, in the Ethiopia district, all people

131 who received a confirmatory diagnosis of SMI were included to establish a completely ascertained
132 population cohort.

133

134 PRIME intervention for people with SMI

135 The integrated district mental health care plan for the Ethiopian setting has been described in detail
136 previously (Fekadu *et al.*, 2016), and involved interventions at the level of the health system, PHC facility
137 and community.

138 *Health system interventions*

139 The district health office staff were involved in participatory planning using Theory of Change
140 methodology (Hailemariam *et al.*, 2015). The district health office assigned a focal person for mental
141 health co-ordination. PRIME provided ongoing technical support with medication supply management
142 (including establishing a revolving drug fund and providing assistance with forecasting the amount of
143 psychotropic medication required), building capacity in supervision of mental healthcare (training high-
144 performing general health workers to supervise mental health care) and monitoring and evaluation
145 activities (e.g. aggregating data on facility contacts and feeding back at the advisory board meetings).

146 *PHC facility interventions*

147 All frontline PHC workers in Sodo district (n=128) were trained in mental healthcare. The PHC workers
148 received monthly supervision from a psychiatric nurse trained using the mhGAP supervisor training
149 manual. For rural health centres, supervision was conducted by telephone when weather conditions
150 precluded travel to the facility. PHC workers could also consult the psychiatric nurse for advice. People
151 with confirmed SMI were prescribed an antipsychotic and/or antidepressant medication and/or a
152 benzodiazepine, as indicated. There were no mood-stabiliser medications available, so people with

153 bipolar disorder received antipsychotic medication as per usual practice in this setting (Fekadu *et al.*,
154 2015). Almost all service users had to pay for medication.

155 In addition to prescription of medication, PHC workers were trained to provide psychoeducation,
156 activate social supports, address social stressors, monitor physical health, review response to treatment
157 and refer to specialist mental health care if needed. As prescriptions were usually for a maximum of one
158 month, follow-up appointments with the PHC workers were usually scheduled monthly.

159 *Community level interventions*

160 A multi-sectoral 'community advisory board' was established to support community awareness-raising
161 and mobilisation, to help with trouble-shooting during the implementation phase and to review project
162 activities and outcomes. A total of 96 community-based health extension workers were trained in case
163 detection, outreach to re-engage people who dropped out of care, identification of medication side
164 effects, community awareness-raising and supporting social reintegration and recovery of people with
165 SMI. In half of the sub-districts, people with schizophrenia who had enduring symptoms or disability
166 after six months received adjuvant community-based rehabilitation, delivered by trained lay workers
167 (n=75) or ongoing PRIME care (n=87), as part of a nested cluster randomised trial (the RISE trial) (Asher
168 *et al.*, 2016). Aside from the additional contacts from CBR workers in the intervention arm (weekly for
169 two to three months and two-weekly for the subsequent five to six months), there were no additional
170 trial-related contacts.

171

172 Measures

173 Primary outcomes

- 174 • Clinical symptom severity was measured using the Brief Psychiatric Rating Scale, expanded
175 version (BPRS-E) (Burlingame *et al.*, 2006). The BPRS-E is a 24-item, clinician-rated scale which
176 has been translated into Amharic and shown to have robust psychometric properties and
177 sensitivity to change in Ethiopia (Habtamu *et al.*, 2017).
- 178 • Disability was measured using the World Health Organisation Disability Assessment Schedule
179 (WHODAS), version 2.0, 36-item version (Üstün *et al.*, 2010). The WHODAS has been validated
180 for use in people with SMI in Ethiopia and is sensitive to change (Habtamu *et al.*, 2017). The
181 WHODAS was completed by a combination of responses from the person with SMI and the
182 caregiver responses to the proxy-WHODAS at the post-baseline assessments (19.8% of WHODAS
183 scores from caregivers at midline, 24.1% at endline). We used the polytomous summary score of
184 the WHODAS scaled from 0 to 100.

185 Secondary outcomes

- 186 • Experience of discrimination was measured using the ‘unfair treatment’ subscale of the
187 discrimination and stigma scale-12 (DISC-12) (Brohan E *et al.*, 2013). The original DISC-12 sub-
188 scale has 21 items. Four items lacked face validity or had a low frequency of endorsement, but
189 the remaining 17 items loaded onto a single factor using exploratory factor analysis and were
190 summed.
- 191 • Restraint was measured by self-report of whether the person had been ‘restrained, chained or
192 confined’ in the preceding 12 months.
- 193 • Alcohol use disorder was measured using the lay interviewer-administered Alcohol Use Disorder
194 Identification Test (AUDIT) (Babor TF *et al.*, 2001). This 10-item scale has been adapted for local
195 drinks in the Ethiopian setting. People scoring ≥ 8 are considered to have a probable alcohol use
196 disorder.

197 • Depression was measured using a locally validated version of the Patient Health Questionnaire
198 (PHQ-9) (Kroenke and Spitzer, 2002). In the Ethiopian setting, a cut-off of 5 or more is indicative
199 of major depressive disorder (Hanlon *et al.*, 2015).

200 • Suicide attempts in the past three months were assessed using the Mini International
201 Neuropsychiatric Interview (Sheehan *et al.*, 1997).

202 Potential effect modifiers

203 *Equity indicators*

204 • Gender and residence (rural vs. urban).

205 • Socio-economic status: a poverty index was constructed which loaded onto a unidimensional
206 scale using exploratory factor analysis: roof material made of straw (vs. corrugated iron),
207 unimproved water source, unimproved sanitation, no electricity, no separate room for kitchen,
208 no radio or television, no mobile phone.

209 • Time to access the nearest health facility, estimated in minutes, whatever the means of travel.
210 This was dichotomised into less than 60 minutes vs. 60 minutes or longer.

211 *Baseline characteristic*

212 • Diagnosis: clinician-assessed diagnosis using criteria of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of
213 the American Psychiatric Association, version IV) (American Psychiatric Association, 1994) from
214 OPCRIT (McGuffin P *et al.*, 1991).

215 *Process indicators*

216 • Receipt of minimally adequate treatment used the definition proposed by Wang *et al.* (Wang *et*
217 *al.*, 2002): prescription of medication on at least one occasion combined with at least four
218 follow-up appointments with a health worker trained in mental health. We additionally required

219 that psychotropic medication should be prescribed at therapeutic levels (World Health
220 Organization, 2016). Data on the number of facility contacts and prescriptions were extracted
221 from the clinical records, cross-referenced with a facility registration book.

- 222 • Receipt of community support (measured at T1 and T2): support received with returning to
223 work, remembering to take medication, improving self-care, meeting people and social
224 engagement. Responses were summed and binarized: 0 to 2 types of community support vs. 3
225 to 5 types of community support.
- 226 • Receipt of in-patient care for mental health problems, contact with specialist mental health or
227 general health facilities and traditional or religious healers, and type of care received during
228 primary health care contacts were measured at T1 and T2.

229 Descriptive baseline characteristics

- 230 • Socio-demographic characteristics (age, educational level, marital status).
- 231 • Social support was assessed using the three-item Oslo Social Support Scale (OSS-3) (Dalgard OS
232 *et al.*, 2006), which asks about number of close supports, extent of concern from supports and
233 amount of practical support received. The OSS-3 total score was categorised as follows: 3 to 8
234 “poor support”, 9 to 11 “intermediate support” and 12 to 14 “strong support”.
- 235 • Duration of illness, type of illness onset (acute/sub-acute vs. gradual), psychiatric hospitalisation
236 in the past 12 months, presence of co-morbid medical condition and receipt of psychotropic
237 medication at baseline were obtained from the OPCRIT (McGuffin P *et al.*, 1991).

238 Data collection

239 The lay interviewers were individuals with an educational level of at least tenth grade who were
240 recruited from the local area and trained for 12 days on the study questionnaires and protocols,
241 including observed practice interviews. The trainers had master’s level qualifications. Degree-level

242 supervisors monitored data quality in the field. The clinician assessments were conducted by research
243 psychiatric nurses who were trained for seven days by senior Ethiopian psychiatrists. The OPCRIT
244 diagnoses were double-checked by an Ethiopian psychiatrist by reviewing the OPCRIT responses and
245 clinical documentation and conducting verification interviews (n=2) where needed.

246 Data management and analysis

247 Data were double-entered using EpiData (Lauritsen and Bruus, 2003) and analysed using Stata version
248 13.1 (StataCorp LP, 2016). The data were summarised descriptively, with outcome data stratified by
249 equity indicators (gender, residence, distance from the health facility and poverty status). Comparison of
250 the characteristics of participants remaining in the cohort with those lost to follow-up at 12 months, as
251 well as by equity indicators, was conducted using Pearson chi-squared for categorical variables,
252 Student's t-test for comparing means in normally distributed variables and Kruskal Wallis equality-of-
253 populations rank test for non-normal continuous variables.

254 Mixed effects linear regression with random intercept was used to model the change in symptom
255 severity, disability and depressive symptoms over time. We tested for improvement in model fit using
256 likelihood ratio tests after adding random slopes. We also tested for any significant difference in the
257 mean change between T0 and T1 or between T1 and T2. Mixed effects ordinal regression was used to
258 model change in discrimination score over time. A prevalence ratio was calculated for change from T0 to
259 T2 in probable alcohol use disorder (AUDIT \geq 8), suicide attempt in the preceding three months or
260 restraint in the preceding 12 months.

261 For the primary outcomes, we calculated standardised mean difference (Borenstein *et al.*, 2009) and
262 examined effect modification by the equity indicators, diagnosis (primary psychotic disorder vs. affective
263 disorder), process indicators (receipt of minimally adequate treatment and community support) and by
264 the community-based rehabilitation intervention group for the RISE trial. This was done by adding an

265 interaction term into the model and testing for improved model fit using a likelihood ratio test. Multiple
266 linear regression analysis was conducted to examine the association between baseline duration of
267 illness and type of illness onset with 12 month outcomes.

268 Ethical considerations

269 Ethical approval was obtained from the Institutional Review Board of the College of Health Sciences,
270 Addis Ababa University (No. 084/11/Psy). Informed consent was obtained where possible. If the person
271 lacked capacity and did not refuse, the accompanying caregiver was invited to give permission on the
272 person's behalf.

273

274 **Results**

275 Of the 294 people diagnosed by PHC workers as having SMI, 279 were confirmed to have SMI, giving a
276 positive predictive value for PHC worker diagnosis of 94.9%. A further 21 people referred by PHC
277 workers to psychiatric nurses for diagnostic review were also found to have SMI, giving a total of 300
278 participants. See Figure 1.

279

280

281 Figure 1: Flow diagram

282

283 Baseline characteristics

284 See Table 1. At baseline there was no significant difference in symptom severity score, disability,

285 discrimination or depressive symptoms by gender. The proportion with an alcohol use disorder ($\chi^2(1)$

286 48.6750; $p < 0.001$) or who had been restrained ($\chi^2(1)$ 5.1154; $p=0.024$) was higher in men. Baseline

287 disability ($t=2.1012$; $p=0.04$) and restraint ($\chi^2(1)$ 3.9058; $p=0.048$) were significantly higher in those with

288 low socioeconomic status. Perceived negative discrimination at baseline was higher in urban residents
289 ($\chi^2(1)$ 3.986; $p = 0.049$) and people of low socioeconomic status ($\chi^2(1)$ 4.195; $p = 0.04$).

290 Cohort follow-up

291 A total of 247 (82.3%) people were assessed at T1 (mean 7.4 months; SD 1.49) and 245 (81.7%) at T2
292 (mean 12.3 months; SD 1.12). See Figure 1. There was no evidence of differential loss to follow-up based
293 on baseline characteristics (Supplementary File 1). During the follow-up period, 11 participants died.

294 Facility-based intervention

295 After review by psychiatric nurses, the medication initiated by PHC workers was unchanged or changed
296 within the same medication class for 184 (67.7%) participants. Psychiatric nurses increased the dose or
297 added another medication for 46 (16.9%), stopped or reduced the dose in 15 (5.9%), changed the class
298 of medication in 15 (5.5%) and stopped a prescription of depot antipsychotic medication in 5 (1.8%).

299 Participants attended a median of two PHC appointments during the follow-up period (IQR 2,4;
300 minimum 1 and maximum 12). Supplementary File 2. Minimally adequate treatment was received by 89
301 (29.8%). Supplementary File 3. There was no evidence of prescribing above recommended limits and
302 only one occurrence of antipsychotic polypharmacy. Admission for in-patient care was very low (1.4% at
303 T1 and 2.0% at T2) and less than 10% of participants had direct contact with a mental health specialist. A
304 high proportion reported receiving psychosocial support and explanation about medication
305 (Supplementary File 4).

306 Community-based interventions

307 Most people with SMI reported receiving support with medication adherence and to improve self-care.
308 More than half received support to get back to work, but less than a quarter were supported to get
309 involved in social activities and less than 10% had support with meeting people. Almost all support was

310 reported to come from the family. A small proportion reported contact with traditional or religious
311 healers: 13.0% at T1 and 11.6% at T2.

312
313 Impact on clinical and social outcomes

314 There was a significant improvement in all clinical (symptom severity score, depressive symptoms,
315 suicide attempts, alcohol use disorder) and social (functioning, discrimination, restraint). Tables 2 and 3.
316 The standardised mean difference for symptom severity was 0.18 (95% confidence interval (CI) 0.02,
317 0.34) between T0 and T1 and 0.28 (95%CI 0.13, 0.44) from T0 to T2. For disability, the standardised
318 mean difference was larger at both time-points: T0 to T1: 0.27 (95%CI 0.13, 0.41), T0 to T2: 0.50 (95%CI
319 0.35, 0.65). The test for interaction between the RISE trial intervention group and the main outcomes
320 (symptom severity and functioning) at 12 months was non-significant.

321
322 For symptom severity and functioning, the magnitude of the change did not differ between T0 and T1
323 compared to T1 and T2. The reduction in depressive symptoms was significantly greater between T0 and
324 T1 than between T1 and T2 ($\chi^2(1)$ 4.26; $p=0.039$); similarly for change in perceived discrimination ($\chi^2(1)$
325 3.75; $p=0.053$).

326 There was no statistically significant effect modification by the equity indicators, diagnosis or process
327 indicators for the primary outcomes. At T1, higher receipt of community support had a borderline
328 statistical association with greater reduction in symptom severity ($p=0.19$) and disability ($p=0.09$).
329 Supplementary Files 5 and 6. There was no association between duration of illness or type of illness
330 onset and the mean improvement in the primary outcomes.

331

332 Discussion

333 In this community-ascertained intervention cohort of clinician-confirmed people with SMI, there was a
334 significant improvement in clinical and social outcomes after implementation of a district level mental
335 health care plan. PHC workers diagnosed SMI accurately, prescribed psychotropic medication safely and
336 were reported to have delivered psychoeducation and provided support to most people with SMI. The
337 findings from this study are generalizable to similar rural settings of low-income countries.

338 Although PHC workers prescribed safely (low polypharmacy and no doses above the recommended
339 therapeutic range), the psychiatric nurses did consider that it was necessary to change the initial
340 prescriptions of psychotropic medication in 30.1% of cases. This reinforces the need for task-shared care
341 to be supported by input by mental health specialists, either through regular supervision or through
342 timely review of newly diagnosed cases.

343 We are only aware of two previous studies, both from Nepal, where the impact of a 'full' task-sharing
344 model on clinical and social outcomes of people with SMI was evaluated (Jordans *et al.*, 2017, Jordans *et*
345 *al.*, 2019). Both studies found a significant reduction in symptom severity, disability and caregiver
346 burden but had sample sizes under 100 and included extensive community-based psychosocial
347 interventions (Jordans *et al.*, 2019). Our larger study, which included a more representative population
348 of people with SMI and a task-sharing intervention more closely based on mhGAP, provides more
349 definitive evidence of important clinical and social benefits from the recommended WHO mhGAP
350 approach.

351 In our study, the impact of the district mental health care plan care on psychotic symptoms was less
352 marked than the reductions seen in the social outcomes, with a reduction of 4.8 on the BPRSE being less
353 than that usually considered to be clinically significant (Hanlon *et al.*, 2016a). In previous intervention
354 studies for people with SMI in LMIC settings, a key factor for clinical improvement has been enhanced
355 adherence to antipsychotic medication (Chatterjee *et al.*, 2014), but only 30% of people with SMI in our

356 study received 'minimally adequate treatment' over the follow-up period. Our process data indicate that
357 engagement waxed and waned over time, rather than people dropping out of care altogether, and lends
358 support to the acceptability of care provided as well as providing explanation for the limited impact on
359 symptom improvement at cross-sectional assessment. In-depth interviews with study participants with
360 SMI who had disengaged from care indicated that most had experienced symptomatic improvement,
361 but that affordability of medication and side effects of medications was a barrier to continuous
362 engagement (Hailemariam *et al.*, 2018). This is supported by quantitative data from the same sample,
363 indicating high levels of poverty and out-of-pocket healthcare costs compared to the general population
364 (Hailemichael *et al.*, 2019). Mechanisms to reduce out-of-pocket healthcare costs for people with SMI
365 are needed to achieve improved access to mental health care (Hanlon, 2019).

366 Although disability is closely linked to symptom severity, our previous work in this community indicates
367 that stigma, discrimination and poverty also make important contributions (Habtamu *et al.*, 2018). The
368 borderline significant effect modification indicating greater improvements in disability in people with
369 higher receipt of community support may reflect the impact of reduced social exclusion. We observed a
370 significant decline in perceived negative discrimination in people with SMI. The PRIME mental health
371 care plan included a cascade model of training of community-based health extension workers to raise
372 community awareness and reduce stigma against mental health problems (Fekadu *et al.*, 2016);
373 however, the extent of implementation is not known. The growing community and family awareness of
374 the treatability of SMI, arising from the local availability of a treatment service and bearing witness to
375 the clinical improvement of people with SMI who were well-known to the community, might have also
376 reduced stigmatising attitudes, social exclusion and the need for people to be restrained (Hailemariam
377 *et al.*, 2018). Furthermore, the Community Advisory Board members were selected due to their level of
378 community influence and their endorsement of mental health care helped to reduce stigma and
379 misconceptions about mental illness in the study site. In a recent trial in Ghana, restraint was not

380 reduced by short-term provision of psychiatric care to people with SMI who were receiving faith healing
381 in prayer camps (Ofori-Atta *et al.*, 2018). In our study, the follow-up period was longer, which may have
382 allowed family members and the community to gain confidence in the beneficial effects of treatment
383 and the PRIME intervention incorporated community and system level interventions as well as task-
384 shared facility-based care.

385 Alternative approaches to expanding access to care for people with SMI in rural populations in LMICs
386 have been reported. One model is to utilise outreach clinics staffed by mental health specialists who
387 diagnose, prescribe and monitor clinical progress, combined with community-level interventions by non-
388 specialists to promote social inclusion and functional recovery (Chatterjee *et al.*, 2014, Chatterjee *et al.*,
389 2009, Srinivasa Murthy *et al.*, 2005). Another 'back-referral' model is for mental health specialists to
390 provide initial assessment and development of a care plan which is then implemented by non-specialist
391 health workers in the local area combined with task-shared psychosocial interventions (Xiang M *et al.*,
392 1994). Augmenting the PRIME model with more intensive and systematic community-based
393 rehabilitation delivered by non-specialists may help to address some of the gaps identified in our study
394 by strengthening engagement with PHC and supporting livelihoods (Asher *et al.*, 2016), although the
395 affordability and sustainability of such approaches needs evaluation. There are no published reports of
396 these task-sharing service models being successfully, safely and sustainably taken to scale and we have
397 no evidence regarding their relative impact on effective treatment coverage for people with SMI. In the
398 future, randomised controlled trials comparing task-shared models of care for people with SMI are
399 needed to inform policy decisions (Hanlon *et al.*, 2016a).

400 Limitations

401 PHC workers were informed of the research psychiatric nurse diagnosis and changes in treatment plan.
402 For diagnosis the concordance was high and so this is unlikely to have affected the outcome, but the

403 treatment plan reflected task-shared care with support from a mental health specialist.. We only
404 collected data on the positive and not the negative predictive value of the PHC worker diagnosis.
405 Calculating the negative predictive value would be an important focus for future studies. Due to ethical
406 concerns, there was no comparison group of people with SMI receiving 'usual care', which would have
407 amounted to no access to evidence-based care for most people. However, outcomes in people with
408 untreated schizophrenia (who formed the majority of our cohort) have been shown to be poor (Ran *et*
409 *al.*, 2001). Given the chronicity and severity of SMI at baseline, spontaneous improvement is unlikely.
410 This is supported by the lack of an association between baseline duration of illness or type of illness
411 onset and outcomes in our study.

412 Conclusions

413 An integrated district level mental health care plan employing a task-sharing approach safely addressed
414 the large treatment gap for people with SMI in a rural, low-income country setting, resulting in
415 improved clinical and social outcomes and reduced human rights abuses. Training and supporting PHC
416 workers to provide mental health care has great potential as a sustainable and feasible approach to the
417 care of people with SMI in resource-poor settings.

418

419

Table 1: Baseline characteristics of the severe mental disorder cohort stratified by gender

Characteristics		Total N (%)	Male N (%)	Female N (%)
		300 (100.0)	172 (57.3)	128 (42.7)
Age (years)	Mean (Standard Deviation)	35.5 (13.45)	36.6 (12.86)	34.1 (14.1)
Educational level (n=299)	No formal education	157 (52.5)	79 (46.2)	78 (60.9)
	Primary education	112 (37.5)	75 (43.9)	37 (28.9)
	Secondary and above	30 (10.0)	17 (9.9)	13 (10.2)
Religious affiliation	Orthodox Christian	270 (90.0)	154 (89.5)	116 (90.6)
	Muslim	10 (3.3)	7 (4.1)	3 (2.3)
	Protestant Christian	19 (6.3)	10 (5.8)	9 (7.0)
	None	1 (0.3)	1 (0.6)	0 (0.0)
Ethnicity	Gurage	284 (94.7)	162 (94.2)	122 (95.3)
	Other	16 (5.3)	10 (5.8)	6 (4.7)
Marital status	Married	111 (37.0)	66 (38.4)	45 (35.2)
	Single	136 (45.3)	83 (48.3)	53 (41.1)
	Divorced or widowed	53 (17.7)	23 (13.4)	30 (23.4)
Household size (n=298)	1 to 2	34 (11.4)	19 (11.1)	15 (11.8)
	3 to 4	85 (28.5)	46 (26.9)	39 (30.7)
	5 to 6	92 (30.9)	47 (27.5)	45 (35.4)
	7 or more	87 (29.2)	59 (34.5)	28 (22.1)
Children in household (n=287)	None	138 (48.1)	89 (54.3)	49 (39.8)
	≤ 5 years	67 (23.3)	33 (20.1)	34 (27.6)
	5 to 15 years	58 (20.2)	35 (21.3)	23 (18.7)
	16 years and older	24 (8.4)	7 (4.3)	17 (13.8)
Socio-economic status (n=297)	Higher (poverty index ≤ 3)	177 (59.6)	100 (58.5)	77 (61.1)
	Lower (poverty index >3)	120 (40.4)	71 (41.5)	49 (38.9)
Residence (n=299)	Urban	60 (20.1)	36 (20.9)	24 (18.9)
	Rural	239 (79.9)	136 (79.1)	103 (81.1)
Social support (n=298)	Strong social support	56 (18.8)	31 (18.2)	25 (19.5)
	Intermediate support	151 (50.7)	83 (48.8)	68 (53.1)
	Poor support	91 (30.5)	56 (32.9)	35 (27.3)
Travel time to nearest health facility (n=299)	≤ 60 minutes	192 (64.2)	115 (67.3)	77 (60.2)
	61 to 120 minutes	60 (20.1)	32 (18.7)	28 (21.9)
	≥121 minutes	47 (15.7)	24 (14.0)	23 (18.0)
Diagnosis	Affective psychosis/bipolar disorder	44 (14.7)	21 (12.2)	23 (18.0)
	Schizophrenia & other psychoses	256 (85.3)	151 (87.8)	105 (82.0)
Duration of illness (years) (n=270)	Median (Interquartile range; IQR)	5 (2.8, 10)	5 (2.8, 10)	5.5 (2.8, 11)
Onset of illness (n=271)	Acute/sub-acute	100 (36.9)	55 (35.5)	45 (38.8)
	Gradual	171 (63.1)	100 (64.5)	71 (61.2)
Psychiatric admission	In past 12 months	11 (3.7)	5 (2.9)	6 (4.7)
Treatment at recruitment (n=261)	Prescribed medication at baseline	69 (26.4)	35 (23.5)	34 (30.4)
Co-morbid medical disorder (n=286)	Diagnosed medical condition	18 (6.3)	13 (8.1)	5 (4.0)

421

422

*Poverty index = roof material made of straw (vs. corrugated iron), unimproved water source, unimproved sanitation, no electricity, no separate room for kitchen, no radio or television, no mobile 'phone.

423

424

Table 2: Mixed effects modelling of primary outcomes stratified by equity indicators

Outcome		Baseline (T0) Mean (SD)	T0 to T1 mean difference (95% confidence intervals)	T0 to T2 mean difference (95% confidence intervals)
SMI symptoms (BPRS-E)		N=294	N=247	N=245
Total sample		48.5 (15.6)	-2.6 (-4.8,-0.4)	-4.8 (-7.0, -2.6)
Gender	Male	47.9 (16.3)	-2.2 (-5.2, 0.9)	-3.9 (-6.9, -0.8)
	Female	49.4 (14.7)	-3.2 (-6.3, -0.04)	-6.0 (-9.1, -2.8)
Residence	Urban	47.4 (16.5)	-4.0 (-9.3, 1.2)	-9.0 (-14.2, -3.8)
	Rural	48.9 (15.4)	-2.3 (-4.7, 0.1)	-4.1 (-6.5, -1.7)
Health care access	<60 minutes	48.2 (16.2)	-2.1 (-4.8, -0.7)	-5.5 (-8.3, -2.8)
	≥ 60 minutes	49.3 (15.6)	-3.9 (-7.5, -0.3)	-3.4 (-7.0, 0.3)
Socio-economic status	Higher	49.2 (16.0)	-3.5 (-6.6, -0.5)	-5.6 (-8.6, -2.5)
	Lower	47.4 (15.1)	-0.8 (-3.9, 2.4)	-3.1 (-6.2, -0.02)
Disability (WHODAS 2.0)		N=296	N=246	N=245
Total sample		52.2 (22.0)	-6.2 (-9.3, -3.1)	-12.0 (-15.1, -8.9)
Gender	Male	52.3 (21.5)	-7.8 (-11.8, -3.8)	-10.1 (-14.2, -6.0)
	Female	52.1 (22.7)	-4.2 (-9.0, 0.6)	-14.3 (-19.1, -9.6)
Residence	Urban	49.2 (22.3)	-7.4 (-14.0, -0.7)	-14.1 (-20.6, -7.5)
	Rural	53.1 (21.9)	-6.2 (-9.7, -2.7)	-11.8 (-15.3, -8.2)
Health care access	<60 minutes	50.4 (22.5)	-4.8 (-8.7, -0.8)	-11.4 (-15.3, -7.4)
	≥ 60 minutes	55.9 (20.7)	-8.9 (-13.9, -3.8)	-13.4 (-18.5, -8.3)
Socio-economic status	Higher	50.0 (21.8)	-6.9 (-11.1, -2.7)	-11.4 (-15.6, -7.2)
	Lower	55.3 (22.1)	-4.7 (-9.3, -0.1)	-12.4 (-17.0, -7.9)

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426

427 **Table 3: Secondary clinical and social outcomes in people with SMI stratified by gender**

Outcome	Baseline (T0)	Follow-up (T2)	T0 to T2 change
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean difference
Depression symptoms (PHQ-9)	N=300	N=245	
Total sample	12.8 (5.43)	7.2 (4.80)	-5.6 (-6.3, -4.8)
Male	12.9 (5.64)	7.4 (4.84)	-5.4 (-6.5, -4.4)
Female	12.8 (5.15)	7.0 (4.75)	-5.7 (-6.8, -4.6)
	Median (IQR)	Median (IQR)	Odds ratio
Discrimination (DISC-12)	N=300	N=245	
Total sample	2 (0, 7)	0 (0, 3)	0.4 (0.3, 0.5)
Male	2 (0, 7)	0 (0, 4)	0.5 (0.3, 0.8)
Female	3 (0, 7)	0 (0, 2)	0.2 (0.1, 0.4)
	N (%)	N (%)	Prevalence ratio
Alcohol use disorder (AUDIT≥8)	N=300	N=245	
Total sample	87 (29.0)	40 (16.3)	0.6 (0.5, 0.8)
Male	77 (44.8)	34 (25.2)	0.6 (0.4, 0.8)
Female	10 (7.8)	6 (5.5)	0.7 (0.3, 1.4)
Suicide attempts past 3 months	N=300	N=245	
Total sample	42 (14.0)	12 (4.9)	0.3 (0.2, 0.6)
Male	20 (11.6)	8 (5.9)	0.5 (0.2, 1.0)
Female	22 (17.2)	4 (3.6)	0.2 (0.1, 0.5)
Restrained past 12 months	N=300	N=245	
Total sample	76 (25.3)	26 (10.6)	0.4 (0.3, 0.6)
Male	52 (30.2)	13 (9.6)	0.3 (0.2, 0.5)
Female	24 (18.8)	13 (11.8)	0.6 (0.3, 1.0)

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559

560

561 **Required statements**

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587

588 **Conflict of interest**

589 None.

590 **Ethical standards**

591 The authors assert that all procedures contributing to this work comply with the ethical standards of the
592 relevant national and institutional committees on human experimentation and with the Helsinki
593 Declaration of 1975, as revised in 2008.

594 **Availability of Data and Materials**

595 The datasets used and/or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author
596 on reasonable request. The PRIME datasets will be made publicly available during 2019 (via
597 www.prime.uct.ac.za).

598

599

600 **Supporting information captions**

601 **Supplementary file 1**

602 File format: WORD

603 Title: Characteristics of participants assessed at 12 months compared to those lost to follow-up

604 Description: Table displaying baseline characteristic of people with SMI who were re-assessed at the 12-
605 month follow-up time-point compared to those who were lost to follow-up.

606 **Supplementary file 2**

607 File format: WORD (embedded tiff figure).

608 Title: Pattern of engagement with primary care mental health care

609 Description: Figure showing number of primary care contacts for mental health care for each 3 month
610 period of follow-up.

611 **Supplementary file 3**

612 File format: WORD

613 Title: Psychotropic medication prescribed to cohort participants

614 Description: Descriptive summary of % of people receiving different types of psychotropic medication.

615 **Supplementary file 4**

616 File format: WORD

617 Title: Receipt of community and facility level care over the follow-up period

618 Description: Types of care received by the participants over the 12 month follow-up period.

619 **Supplementary file 5**

620 File format: WORD

621 Title: Tests for effect modification of change in outcome variables between T0 and T1

622 Description: Table presenting statistical testing of effect modification between T0 and T1.

623 **Supplementary file 6**

624 File format: WORD

625 Title: Tests for effect modification of change in outcome variables between T0 and T2

626 Description: Table presenting statistical testing of effect modification between T0 and T2.

627 **Supplementary file 7**

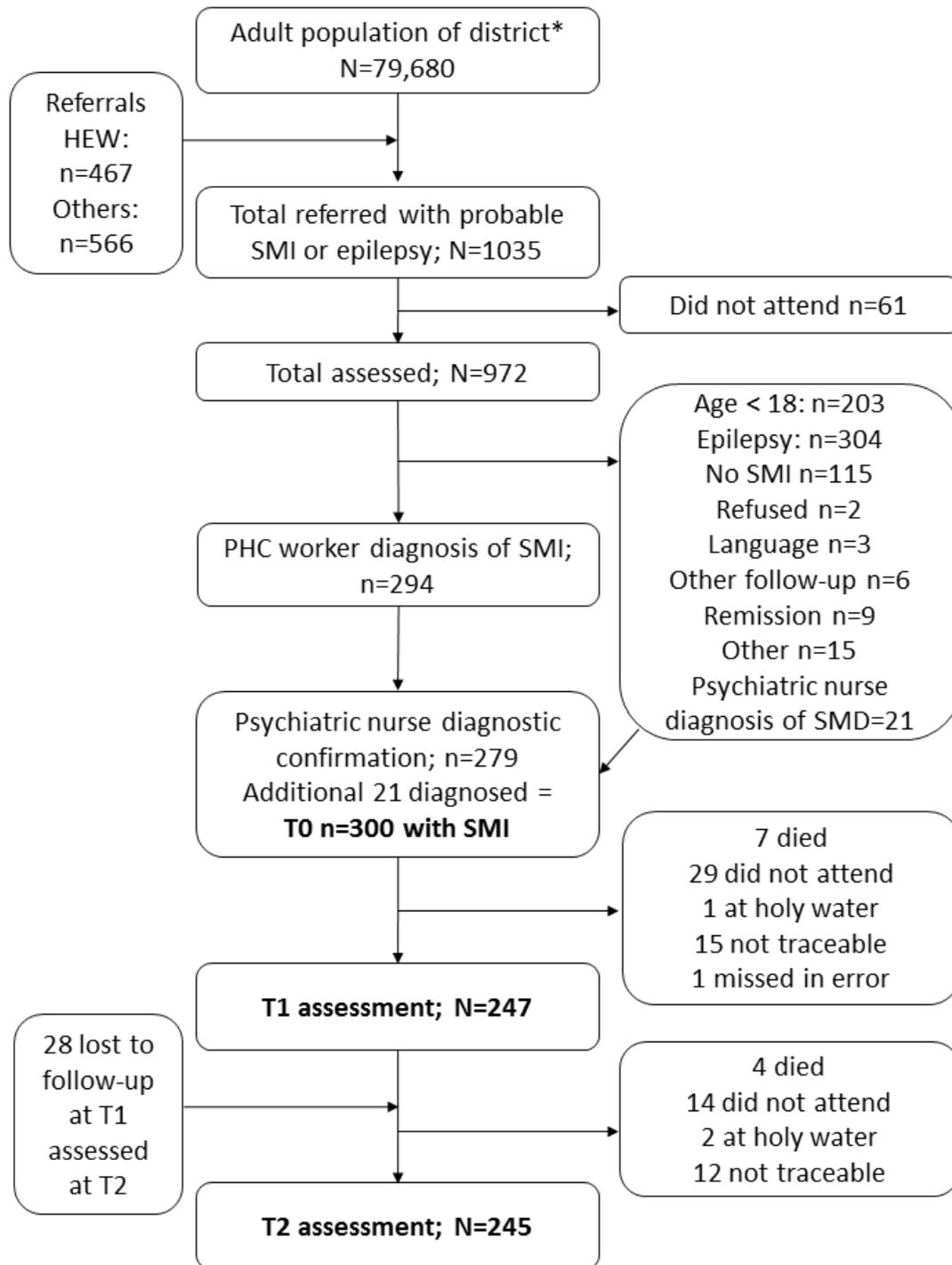
628 File format: WORD

629 Title: STROBE checklist

630 Description: STROBE checklist for reporting of this study

631

632 Figure 1: flow chart of study participants



633