

**Advancing our understanding of mental health outcomes in deprived communities**

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## Abstract

**Background** Residents of deprived areas are at increased risk of experiencing poor well-being, common mental health difficulties and psychotic disorders, partially due to the social stressors present in their neighbourhoods. There is now greater recognition of the social determinants of mental health, with a focus on situating the individual and their treatment in the environment in which they live. However, unpicking social inequalities is likely to be complex, concerning the intersectionality of the different parts of an individual's identity.

**Methods** A systematic review using narrative synthesis was conducted which synthesised papers measuring the impact of community-based interventions on mental health outcomes in residents of deprived areas. A quantitative study was conducted examining the intersection of area-level deprivation, ethnicity and inpatient use (defined by risk of compulsory admission, admission to a Psychiatric Intensive Care Unit, length of stay and number of admissions). This study made use of anonymised electronic health records to identify a sample of 6767 patients with psychotic disorders who were admitted to hospital for psychiatric treatment in South London between 2016-2019. Data were analysed using stratified Logistic or Negative binomial regressions.

**Results** Twenty-six papers, reporting on 21 studies were included in the systematic review. Overall findings about the impact of community-based interventions were mixed, with some promise for skills-based interventions and interventions with a narrower focus in their delivery and target audience. The empirical paper found living in all areas except the least deprived and belonging to a black ethnic minority group increased patients' risk of most inpatient-related outcomes. Living in the least deprived areas appeared to protect some ethnic minority groups from increased risk of compulsory admission, but not black British or Asian patients.

**Conclusions** The findings highlight the benefits of addressing social stressors for residents of deprived areas through community-based interventions and the potential consequences of failing to address these for residents with psychotic disorders who can be left at greater risk of severe symptomatology which requires inpatient hospital admission.

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## **Chapter One- Introduction**

This thesis aims to advance our understanding of mental health outcomes across the continuum of reduced well-being and mental health difficulties (MHD), both common MHD and psychotic disorders. This thesis hopes to highlight the importance of addressing the social stressors in these neighbourhoods through community-based interventions, decreasing the potential need for more restrictive interventions such as psychiatric inpatient admissions. This chapter will aim to define key terms pertinent to the thesis.

### **1.1 Mental health difficulties**

Categorical approaches to understanding MHD define everyone as either having or not having a diagnosable MHD (Kraemer et al. 2004). These approaches have been criticized for encouraging more stigmatising views of MHD (Lahey et al. 2022), by viewing individuals experiencing MHD as fundamentally different to the general population (Peter et al. 2021). In comparison, continuum approaches view mental health and MHD as a single dimension, with one end representing mild or non-existent clinical symptoms, and the other end representing severe psychiatric symptoms or MHD. These approaches recognise that most people will experience decreases in well-being or some degree of mental illness symptomatology at some point. They view individuals experiencing MHD as having more severe symptoms than the general population, but not as being categorically different to them (Peter et al. 2021). Across the thesis portfolio, different parts of this continuum will be considered concerning residents of deprived areas, from being at risk of poor well-being and mental health to experiencing MHD.

MHD are typically understood in two main groups, common and severe (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Common MHD include depression, phobias,

social anxiety disorder, generalised anxiety, panic disorder, obsessive-compulsive disorder, and post-traumatic stress disorder (Kendrick & Pilling, 2012). While common, with an estimated global prevalence of 17.6% (Steel et al. 2014), symptom severity can vary greatly, with a general trend for lower rates of functional impairments and more positive treatment outcomes compared to severe mental illnesses like psychotic disorders (Evans et al. 2006).

In contrast, experiencing severe mental illnesses is associated with poorer long-term outcomes such as increased risk of unemployment (Lehman et al. 2002), greater physical health co-morbidities (Launders et al. 2022) and shorter life expectancy (Nielsen et al. 2020). In this thesis, we focus specifically on Psychotic disorders which encompass a range of severe mental illnesses including schizophrenia, schizoaffective disorder, schizophreniform disorder, and delusional disorder (NICE, 2014). Individuals diagnosed with psychotic disorders experience disruption to their thoughts, perception, mood, and behaviour which interferes with their sense of reality. Common experiences include hallucinations, delusions, apathy, and social withdrawal (NICE, 2014). While there are key differences between common mental illness and psychotic disorders, research has highlighted some overlap between the two. For example, on a clinical (and subclinical level) a co-occurring genetic vulnerability for depressive and psychotic symptomatology has been found (Klassen et al. 2013). Moreover, individuals with psychosis are significantly more likely to have subsequent experiences of common MHD such as generalised anxiety disorder, social phobia and depression (McGrath et al., 2016).

## **1.2 Social determinants of mental health**

Historically medical or more biologically focused models for the aetiology of MHD have been favoured; however, these models were criticised for being too

reductionist by failing to acknowledge the role psychosocial issues play in the development of MHD. The introduction of Biopsychosocial Models of MHD (Engel, 1977) emphasized the need to consider the psychological and social factors and how these interact with biological factors such as a person's genetic vulnerability to experiencing MHD symptomatology. The Fair Society, Health Lives review (Marmot, 2010) was pivotal in highlighting the extent to which social factors can determine mental health outcomes, linking inequalities in health with social inequalities. Since the initial development of the initial Biopsychosocial Model, several theories have been developed to explain why some groups in society are more vulnerable to experiencing MHD including the Social Causation theory (Johnson et al., 1999) and Social Stress theory (Aneshnsel, 1992). These theories are explained below, linking them to mental health inequalities experienced by residents of deprived areas and ethnic minority patients.

### **1.3 Area-level deprivation**

Residents of deprived areas are one group identified as being at greater risk of experiencing both common MHD such as depression (Remes et al., 2015), and psychotic disorders such as schizophrenia (O'Donoghue et al. 2016). The Social Causation theory suggests that the characteristics of deprivation such as increased exposure to poor living conditions, decreased social capital and increased crime rates increase the risk of mental illness (Johnson et al., 1999). These environmental characteristics can have a psychological impact on residents who may be more vulnerable to experiencing decreased levels of well-being due to the lack of resources making it harder for them to leave behind their experience of deprivation (Jin et al., 2020). Moreover, exposure to specific domains of deprivation like neighbourhood criminal activity has been linked with an increased risk of psychosis, possibly due to the

generation of social threats and increased likelihood of paranoia (Bebbington et al., 2004).

Definitions of deprivation have evolved from focusing on household-level poverty based on income to more broadly thinking about the characteristics of an area that may detract from or enhance its residents' living conditions (Perry, 2002). The concept of relative deprivation was pioneered by Townsend (1979), who defined a deprived community as lacking the resources to have living conditions and amenities considered customary in the society they belong to. More recent definitions have begun to think about the types of resources these communities lack including necessities for living such as employment, economic investment, social organisation (Anderson et al., 1997), and the possibilities to choose their destination of residence (Piro et al., 2007). In the UK, relative deprivation is measured using separate Index of Multiple Deprivation (IMD) measures for each country (Noble et al. 2019). These measures combine 7 domains (income, employment, education, health, crime, living environment and barriers to housing) to give an overall measure of multiple deprivation experienced by people living in each neighbourhood. This measure can then be used to rank neighbourhoods relative to other areas in terms of deprivation. These measures are in line with the literature's more holistic approach to understanding area-level deprivation by considering the characteristics of the neighbourhood individuals live in more fully.

#### **1.4 Intersectionality**

While it is recognised that the residents of deprived areas are more vulnerable to experiencing MHD, unpicking this health inequality is likely to be complex as it concerns the interplay of various parts of individual identity, rather than a single linking

mechanism (Bowleg, 2012). The term intersectionality was first used to conceptualise the multiple disadvantages Black women experienced where it was recognised that race and gender could not be seen as distinct characteristics (Falcon & Nash, 2015). This concept has since been applied to a range of fields including health inequalities and psychology (Bauer et al., 2021). Intersectionality assumes that parts of our identity such as the deprivation level of the area we live in, or our ethnicity, are mutually constructed and underlie interlaced systems of power that foster social formations of complex social inequalities (Gkiouleka et al., 2018).

Ethnicity refers to a multi-dimensional social construct which includes cultural traditions, nationality, shared language, and norms (Lu et al. 2022). Ethnic minority groups are numerically smaller in size and often possess cultural or ethnic characteristics different to the rest of the population (Krishnan et al. 2021). Ethnic minority patients have also been found to be at greater risk of experiencing mental health difficulties including psychotic disorders (Oduola et al., 2021), potentially due to the accumulation of stressors they experience due to disadvantaged minority status (Schofield et al. 2019).

We know that ethnic minority groups are more likely to live in deprived areas (Tinsley & Jacobs, 2006). This increased likelihood is driven by several factors including migration and a lack of opportunities and resources (Ingelbey, 2012). Ethnic minority groups from the Old Commonwealth migrated to urban areas of England post-war seeking employment, which left neighbourhoods struggling to provide adequate housing and living conditions for its residents (Fenton et al.2010). Fenton et al. argue that the lack of opportunities (e.g. educational advancement) to escape income security constrained movement to less deprived areas, resulting in some distinct settlement patterns that can still be seen today. The Social Stress theory (Aneshnsel, 1992) suggests

that individuals are affected by both intrapersonal factors, the larger sociocultural context they inhabit and their social interactions. Ethnic minority patients living in more deprived areas may therefore be vulnerable to experiencing a greater range of stressors linked to the various parts of their identity. Stressors may include labour market disadvantages (Jivraj and Alao, 2023), experiences of discrimination or racism (Webster et al., 2003), and limited access to protective resources may make individuals more vulnerable to poor mental health (Trauer et al., 2006).

### **1.5 Community-level treatment for mental health difficulties**

Given the greater recognition of the social determinants of health, there has been a drive to promote positive mental health and prevent MHD at the population level. Public Health England has recognised the value of working with communities to achieve this (South, 2015). This is in contrast to the way typical mental health services are commissioned to focus on the individual in front of them without addressing the wider social context they sit in and cannot address themselves (Gask et al., 2012). The National Health Service (NHS) Long-term Plan acknowledges the importance of placing mental health services at the heart of communities to ensure all residents can access the support they need, addressing local population needs (NHS, 2019). The introduction of Integrated Care Systems and Integrated Care Boards in 2022 can be seen as a step in this direction (Thomson and Chatterjee, 2023). These systems depend on the collaboration of health care services with community-based voluntary partners and local authorities, who are responsible for public health and social care to ensure the population's health needs are met in their entirety (van der Feltz-Cornelis, et al. 2023). Rethink Mental Health (2022) emphasises that for individuals experiencing MHD to thrive, reforms should be made beyond the NHS to address the lack of wider community support in areas such as housing and employment. They recognise that without these, individuals with MHD are more vulnerable to reaching a crisis point and requiring more intensive and expensive NHS treatment such as inpatient admissions.

However, there is a potential for community-based interventions to be heterogeneous, with currently little consensus around what works best for residents of deprived communities. Therefore, consensus is needed to inform how the Integrated Care Systems could best target their resources to improve the mental health of these communities.

### **1.6 Treatment in psychiatric hospitals**

Without addressing the social stressors residents of deprived areas currently experience, there is a risk they will remain at increased risk of experiencing psychotic disorders (Bebbington et al., 2004). Research has shown that there is an elevated risk of admission for individuals experiencing psychotic disorders, often associated with severe symptomatology (Niedzwiedz et al. 2023), with over one-third of individuals being admitted to hospital for psychiatric inpatient treatment within two years (Gannon et al. 2023). These risk factors include the lack of insight, care avoidance, unauthorised cessation of medication (Jong et al. 2017) and delayed help-seeking during subclinical stages of psychosis (Schultze-Lutter et al. 2015). Treatment in an inpatient hospital may be considered if an individual's MHD is having a significant impact on their functioning or if there is significant concern that an individual is unable to keep themselves safe (Rozalski & McKeegan et al. 2019). In England, inpatient admissions can be voluntary or under the Mental Health Act (Department of Health, 1983). This is the main piece of legislation covering the assessment (Section 2 and 4), treatment (Section 3) and rights of patients admitted against their will to hospital for treatment. Patients can be admitted to either an acute ward or moved to secure Psychiatric Intensive Care Units if their symptoms are particularly difficult to treat (Cullen et al. 2018). There are also specialist forensic wards to treat individuals, who typically have a history of offending and/or risk of violence. The NHS has set specific targets to ensure all admissions are no longer than 32 days, recognising the potential negative outcomes that longer length of stay can have, such as loss of social functioning (Tesng et al. 2020). Research has found that



involuntary in-patient care is often a distressing and frightening experience for individuals, particularly associated with the use of force and restraint (Akther et al. 2019). These experiences can have a negative impact on relationships with mental health professionals, engagement with treatment and ultimately individual recovery (Douglas & Donohue, 2021).

### **1.7 Thesis aims and overview**

This thesis aims to advance our understanding of mental health outcomes in residents of deprived communities across the continuum of reduced well-being and MHD (both common MHD and psychotic disorders). In line with the introduction of Integrated Care Systems, this thesis hopes to highlight the importance of addressing the social stressors characteristic of deprived neighbourhoods through community-based interventions, decreasing the potential need for more restrictive interventions such as psychiatric inpatient admissions.

Given Public Health England's focus on including the community in the promotion of mental health at the population level, a systematic review (including a narrative synthesis and meta-analysis) aims to explore the impact of community-based interventions on mental health outcomes in deprived communities. There are a higher prevalence of psychotic disorders and poorer mental health outcomes in deprived areas and among ethnic minority people. Chapter four presents an empirical paper which aims to explore the intersection between area-level deprivation and ethnicity, concerning inpatient-related outcomes such as frequency of hospital admissions, length of stay and

use of the Mental Health Act using anonymised electronic health data. The links between these chapters are discussed in a bridging (chapter three) and discussion chapter (chapter five) with strengths, limitations and implications for clinical practice and research also considered.

## Chapter two

### **A systematic review of the impact of community-based interventions for improving mental health outcomes in deprived neighbourhoods.**

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## 2.1 Abstract

Residents of deprived communities face inequalities in their mental health outcomes. Community-based interventions which attempt to situate treatment in a person's social context have potential benefits for improving mental health and well-being. However, there is limited evidence of the impacts of these interventions in deprived communities. Medline, CINHAL, EMBASE, PYSHINFO and ASSIA databases were searched. Studies were included if they reported mental health outcomes in relation to a community-based intervention where the majority of patients lived in a deprived area. Using a narrative synthesis of 26 studies this paper synthesises evidence on the impact of community-based interventions on the mental health of residents in deprived communities. Findings about the impact of community-based intervention were mixed, with some promise for skills-based and more focused (in their delivery and target audience) interventions. However, there are clear research gaps in this area, which need addressing to enhance our understanding of the impact of community-based interventions in deprived areas such as how to make these interventions accessible to residents to improve engagement.

Key words: Community-based interventions, Deprivation, Communities, Mental health, Area-level characteristics.

## 2.2 Introduction

Living in deprived areas increases residents' health risks due to the ecological concentration of poverty, economic disinvestment, and social disorganisation (Anderson et al., 1997). These risk factors extend beyond individual households to the characteristics of individuals residing community (Thomson et al., 2020). The Fair Society, Healthy Lives Marmot review (Marmot, 2010) linked the characteristics of deprived neighbourhoods with wider health inequalities, supporting the social causation hypothesis (Johnson et al., 1999). Living in highly deprived areas exposes individuals to many stressors such as higher incidence of crime and poorer quality housing thus, having negative implications for mental health. These implications include a lack of well-being, which is defined as lacking positive emotions, control over one's life, a sense of purpose, and positive relationships (Ruggeri et al., 2020), as well as common (e.g. depression) (Stafford et al., 2007) or severe (e.g. psychosis) mental illness symptomatology. During the Covid-19 pandemic, the well-being of residents from deprived areas declined significantly. (Bezzo et al., 2021). Equally, men in deprived areas have a 50% higher chance of experiencing depression compared to those in less deprived areas (Remes et al., 2019)

Residents of deprived areas also face inequalities in treatment access (Delgadillo et al., 2016). This is possibly due to the paucity of interventions to address mental health outcomes in deprived communities. Despite health policy highlighting the need for community engagement in ensuring sustainable health gains at the population level, many socio-environmental stressors residents in deprived communities experience lie outside of the remit of mental health services (Alegria et al., 2018). These services are not designed to address the wider social, economic, and political context that can contribute to health inequalities such as poor-quality housing (Pevalin et al 2017).

Instead, they are clinically orientated and patient-centred e.g., treating the individual using medication, psychological therapy, or case management (Gask et al., 2012).

Community-based interventions can offer an alternative to the individual-focused interventions discussed above, by attempting to situate the individual and their care within their residing community. Typically, these interventions are actioned through a variety of public, and third-sector organisations within local communities (Bach-Mortensen et al. 2018), with facilitators often being peer mentors from the community themselves or lay people who have received some training to deliver interventions (Rose-Clarke et al, 2019) Interventions may use the community as a setting, delivered in accessible and familiar (compared to traditional clinical) spaces (Baskin et al., 2023). These interventions often target individuals within the community to reduce the population's risk of poor mental health. Examples include delivering exercise groups in community halls to improve mental health outcomes (Marzolini et al., 2009).

Equally, community-based interventions may directly target mental health improvement at a community level, creating a healthy community environment through broad changes in public policy and services (McLeroy et al., 2003). For example, increasing the amount of green space per capita to improve resident's health (Benton et al., 2021). Community-based interventions can also view the community as a resource, marshalling a community's internal resources, working across community and voluntary sectors, and involving external facilitators to achieve positive health outcomes (McLeroy et al., 2003). This approach emphasizes community participation and ownership to sustain positive health outcomes at the population level (Castillo et al., 2019). For example, setting up a community garden run and maintained by the community itself (Tharrey et al., 2020) or the Healthy Start community-based federal

program in America seeking to eliminate national disparities in infant mortality (Minkler et al., 2001). These different approaches to community-based interventions reflect different conceptions of the nature of community, the role of public health in addressing population health outcomes and how change is created.

Previous systematic reviews have focused on the impact of community-based interventions on mental health outcomes in other marginalised populations including those with severe mental illness (Killaspy et al., 2022), older adults (Lee et al., 2022), refugees (Siddiq et al., 2023) and ethnic minority groups (Baskin et al. 2021). In their review, McGrath et al., (2021) found certain community-based interventions (e.g. link workers) positively impacted the mental health of adults facing financial hardship. Moreover, a systematic review of non-pharmaceutical co-location interventions in primary care found interventions which focus on connecting individuals with their community had a positive impact on the well-being of deprived communities (Tanner et al., 2023). It is important to see if a wider range of community-based interventions can be of similar benefit to these communities.

To our knowledge, this is the first review to consider the impact of all community-based interventions on mental health in deprived areas. The lack of previous reviews in this area may reflect the lack of consistency in definitions for ‘deprived area’ and ‘community-based intervention’ within the literature. Given the likely heterogeneity between studies and the lack of previous systematic reviews, this systematic review is warranted. We employed a narrative synthesis approach to address the following research question: What effect do community-based interventions have on the mental health of residents of deprived communities?

## **2.3 Methods**

### **2.3.1 Search strategy**

This systematic review was registered on the International Register of Prospective Systematic Reviews (registration number: CRD42023385472). Searches were

completed using MEDLINE, PsycINFO, CINAHL, EMBASE and ASSIA databases in January 2024. The search strategy incorporated a mix of keywords adapted for each database. The search terms were:

(Depriv\* adj3 (place\* OR area OR neighbo\* OR district\* OR communit\* OR region\* OR town\* OR city or borough OR location\* OR index))

AND

(wellbeing OR "mental health" OR "mental illness" OR "mental disorder"

OR anxi\* or depress\* OR Psycho\* or Bipolar OR "at-risk mental state" OR "

schizophre\*")

AND

((Community OR Outreach or Peer) adj5 (project\* or representative\* OR approach\*

engagement OR programme\* OR based or intervention\* OR treatment\* OR worker\*

OR practitioner\* OR supporter\* OR training\* OR help\* Or group OR worker\* OR

project\* or hubs)) OR (Befriend\* OR "green space" OR "food security" OR "physical

activity" OR "social activi\*" OR training OR "signposting" OR "social prescrib\*")

Backward citation searching was completed from reference lists of papers included in the full-text screening. Grey literature was not sought as we wanted to focus on peer-reviewed literature.

### **2.3.2 Inclusion and exclusion criteria**

Inclusion and exclusion criteria were determined using the PICOS framework (see Table 1).



**Table 1**

## Inclusion criteria

<b>Population</b>	
Inclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Where at least 51% of the main beneficiaries of intervention must be individuals of all ages live in deprived areas of high-income countries (as defined by the World Bank). In line with other reviews (Visser et al. 2021) focusing on deprivation and mental health outcomes, high income countries were chosen as they likely have more comparable mental health expenditure per capita compared to low- and middle-income countries (Morris et al. 2012).</li> <li>• Authors must report how deprived area was operationalised using validated measures of deprivation, or by reporting the characteristics of the deprived area e.g., crime or unemployment levels. This is in line with previous systematic reviews focusing on deprived areas (Algren et al. 2015, Visser et al. 2021, Vos. A et al. 2014,) which allowed authors to come up with their own definition of a deprived area</li> <li>• Beneficiaries should be at risk of or with a diagnosis of a common (e.g., anxiety, depression), serious mental illness or poor well- being. Previous reviews of community-based interventions targeting other populations have also included both those at risk of and experiencing mental-ill health (Lee et al. 2021). Serious mental illness is defined as ICD-10 codes F20-33 in line with Nesvåg et al. (2017).</li> </ul>
Exclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Where 51% of individuals do not live in deprived areas and/or live in low- or middle-income countries (as defined by the world bank)</li> <li>• Where beneficiaries primary difficulty relates to something other than the defined mental health difficulties above such as physical health difficulties, dementia, or a learning disability.</li> </ul>

<b>Intervention</b>	
Inclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Inline with a mapping exercise by Duncan et al. (2021) interventions that took place in a non-clinical setting within the community, targeting both the individuals or/and the communities in which they live. This may include individual support and practical assistance to mobilising community connections and resources. Interventions could include co-location services such as social prescribing which is delivered in General Practice clinics but helps individuals access resources in the community (Duncan et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2022)</li> </ul>
Exclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Clinical or pharmaceutical interventions including medication and psychological therapy.</li> </ul>
<b>Comparator</b>	
Inclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Either a non-exposed comparison group or before-after intervention measurement in the intervention groups</li> </ul>
Exclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Studies without preintervention and postintervention measurements or a comparison group</li> </ul>
<b>Outcomes</b>	
Primary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Studies that collect pre-post, change score data or comparison data to a control group from commonly used validated measures for common mental health difficulties (e.g., anxiety and depression), general mental health/well-being or serious mental illnesses (psychosis).</li> </ul>

### **2.3.3 Screening**

Abstracts and full texts were screened by CH using Rayyan (Ouzzani et al. 2016) in line with the inclusion criteria (Figure 1). Twenty per cent of articles considered eligible during abstract screening were checked independently by a second reviewer (n=635), with an agreement rate of 99.69% (K=0.92). Discrepancies were discussed in a consensus meeting with SO.

### **2.3.4 Data extraction**

An extraction form was developed including the following aspects: study design, population/sample details, intervention details, mental health outcomes, and results. Data were extracted independently by CH. Authors of papers were contacted to obtain additional information, with one supplying this.

### **2.3.5 Quality appraisal**

The methodological quality of studies was assessed using the Quality Assessment Tool for Quantitative Studies (Thomas et al., 2004) which was designed for use with a range of public health topics and has been used in reviews on community-based interventions in other populations (McGrath et al., 2021). Quality was assessed against eight domains: selection bias, study design, confounders, blinding, data collection methods, withdrawals, intervention integrity and analysis, with each study being assigned an overall rating of 'high', 'moderate' or 'weak'. Individual study quality was assessed by CH, with 20% (n=6) being independently checked by a second reviewer, with an agreement rate of 73.3%. Discrepancies were discussed in a consensus meeting with the SO. Studies were not excluded based on their quality assessment.

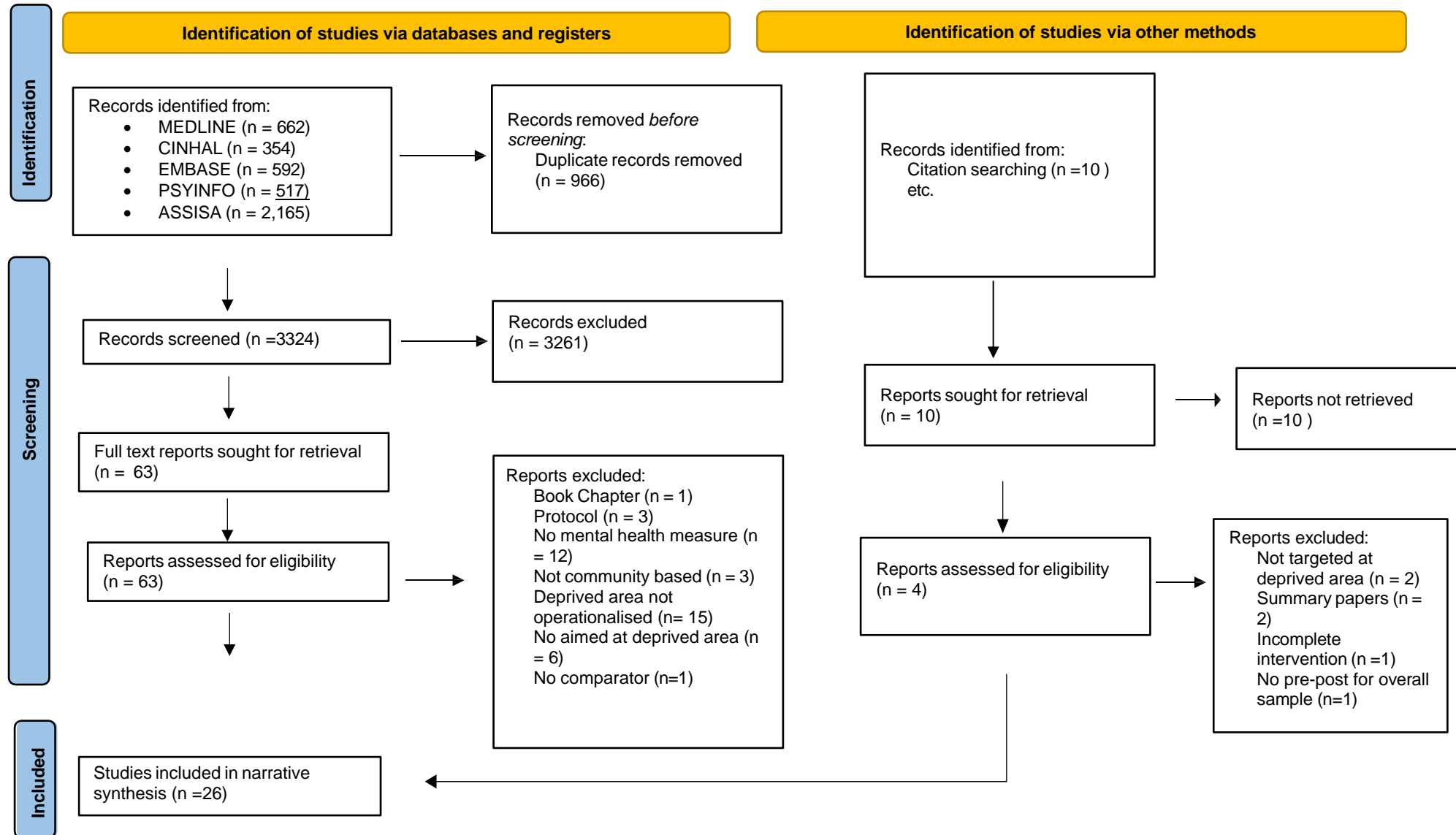
### **2.3.6 Data synthesis plan**

A narrative synthesis was conducted on all papers following guidance by Popay et al., (2006). Alongside SMD, where available odds ratios (for having poor mental health at last follow-up compared to control) were extracted (See Appendix D). Tabulation was used to synthesise similarities and differences between study findings,

characteristics, and intervention features. A harvest plot approach was taken, which is suited to combining research with different study designs and outcomes, to give an overall visual display of intervention impact (Ogilvie et al., 2008). Following, Cochrane's guidance, this assessment was based on direction of change, not statistical significance (McKenzie & Brennan, 2023). This part of the review does not aim to understand the effectiveness of interventions but to understand their ability to create positive change more broadly. Each study's findings were assessed as either favouring the intervention's ability to create positive change (reporting a positive change in pre-post scores or outcomes favouring the treatment group compared to the control) or not favouring the intervention's ability to create positive change (reporting no between groups or pre-post differences, or pre-post difference in unwanted direction or outcomes favouring the control group). Where the direction of outcomes differed within one study, the majority direction was taken (Richards et al., 2018). Where this was difficult to determine, discussion with another member of the research team was held. A harvest plot was constructed to map interventions, research designs, study quality and reported outcomes to describe the scope and strength of each intervention.

**Figure 1**

*Process of Identifying, Screening and Assessing Eligibility for Inclusion of Studies*



## 2.4 Results

### 2.4.1 Study characteristics

Figure one shows the study selection process. Twenty-six papers met the inclusion criteria, reporting on 21 interventions. Table 2 summarises study characteristics. Two papers reported on the WellLondon intervention, one on adults (Phillips et al., 2014) and one on adolescents (Frostick et al., 2017). Three papers reported on the Dutch District approach (DDA), with one reporting outcomes in older adults (Timmermans et al., 2020) and three on adults. Linked to this (but considered separate interventions in this review), one paper focused on green area interventions as part of the DDA on mental health outcomes in adolescents and adults (Gubbels et al., 2016) and one on districts that had an additional public health focus on adults only (Ruijsbroek et al., 2022). Three papers were reported outcomes in adults for the New Deal for Communities (NDC) (Stafford et al., 2014, 2008; Walthery et al., 2015). All other papers (16) reported independent interventions, with 15 targeting adults and one targeting children.

Nineteen papers were from the UK covering 16 interventions, five from the Netherlands covering three interventions, one from Canada and one from Australia. Of the 21 interventions, 10 focused on using the community as a setting to target individuals' mental health, and the other 11 focused on community-based interventions delivered at the community level, viewing the community as a target or a resource. Six papers used a pre-post design with no comparator group. Of the 20 papers including a comparator group eight used a randomised control trial design (RCT) or randomised feasibility design, with another 12 using a quasi-experimental design. Eleven of these 20 papers used a repeated cross-sectional design whereby surveys were given to different members of the intervention (or control) community pre-and post-intervention. Two papers recruited participants with pre-existing mental health difficulties (post-natal depression) (Daley et al., 2008, 2015). Two studies

included children with behavioural difficulties, though one measured outcomes in parents, not children (Baurach et al., 2021, Day et al., 2022). The other 22 papers recruited participants at risk of mental health difficulties or poor psychological well-being or, where a portion of the sample met cut-off for poor mental health at baseline, but this was not part of the inclusion criteria.

**Table 2**

## Characteristics of included studies

ID	Author/ Intervention type	Intervention name/ Country	Design	Population	Largest Ethnic group	Definition of deprivation	Comparison group	Outcome measure	Measure of Engagement	Times taken
<b>Community engagement</b>										
A	Eden & Lowndes 2013	Salford Health Improvement Service, UK	Pre-post	Adults who took part in initiatives between April 2011 and March 2012	Not reported	18 <sup>th</sup> worse ranked local authority (of 326) in the 2010 IMD with 33% of the LSOAS among the 10% most deprived in England.	Pre-post only	WHO-5		Baseline and 6-8 week follow up
B	Phillips et al. 2014	WellLondon, UK	RCT	Eligible household members aged 16 living in area	White British Intervention 23% Control 25.7%	The 20 London boroughs containing at least 4 LSOAS falling among the most deprived 11% in London were chosen	One of the four neighbourhoods was control	GHQ-12 <b>WEMWBS</b>		<b>2 years follow up</b>



ID	Author/ Intervention type	Intervention name/ Country	Design	Population	Largest Ethnic group	Definition of deprivation	Comparison group	Outcome measure	Measure of Engagement	Times taken
C	Frostick et al. 2017	WellLondon, UK	RCT	Adolescents (11-16) living in one of 40 intervention or control LSOAs	Black Intervention 36.9% Control 33.2%	The 20 London boroughs containing at least 4 LSOAS falling among the most deprived 11% in London were chosen and the 4 most deprived identified in IMD	One neighbourhood was used as control	SDQ		Baseline and 2 year follow up

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**Exercise**


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ID	Author/ Intervention type	Intervention name/ Country	Design	Population	Largest Ethnic group	Definition of deprivation	Comparison group	Outcome measure	Measure of Engagement	Times taken
D	Daley et al. 2015	Physical Activity for Mums- Promoting Health and Recovery, UK	RCT	Women (18+) who were within 6 months of giving birth and had depression	White Intervention 57% Control 68%	79% participants lived in the two highest deprivation quartiles on IMD	Usual care	<b>EDPS</b>	85% of women completing at least 4 exercise logs	Baseline and 6- and <b>12-months</b> <b>post-</b> <b>randomization</b>
E	Daley et al. 2008	Exercise Intervention, UK	Feasibility RCT	Women (16+) who had depression and whose youngest child was less than 12 months.	White Intervention 66% Control 80%	83.7% of control and 80% of intervention participants lived in the two highest deprivation quartiles on IMD	Usual care	<b>EDPS</b>	90.9% meeting the intervention exercise goal in	Baseline, <b>12</b> <b>week follow up</b>

ID	Author/ Intervention type	Intervention name/ Country	Design	Population	Largest Ethnic group	Definition of deprivation	Comparison group	Outcome measure	Measure of Engagement	Times taken
<b>Food</b>										
F	Cummins et al. 2005	Large scale food retailing, UK	Controlled pre-post	Men and women (16+) who lived in the postcode district	Not Reported	DEPCAT score of 7 on SIMD (the most deprived populations)	Area 5km away from supermarket of similar deprivation	GHQ-12	30% of switched to new supermarket	Baseline and 10- month follow- up
<b>Green Space</b>										
G	Chalmin-Pui et al. 2021	Residential front garden horticultural intervention, UK	Pre-post with pooled data	Adult residents from two streets	93% White	10% most deprived areas using IMD	Pooled data across both groups so pre post only	SWEMWBS	36% actively engaging with their new garden	2 weeks before intervention and 3 months follow-up

ID	Author/ Intervention type	Intervention name/ Country	Design	Population	Largest Ethnic group	Definition of deprivation	Comparison group	Outcome measure	Measure of Engagement	Times taken
H	Gubbles et al. 2016	Dutch District Approach, Holland (Green interventions)	Pre-post	Adults and adolescents living in 10 districts part of the Dutch District approach	Dutch Adolescents 52.1% Adults 69.0%	Targeted the 40 most deprived districts in the Netherlands	Pre/Post only	CES-D		Baseline and two years follow-up
I	Thompson et al. 2019	Woods In and Around Towns (WIAT) programme, UK	Controlled pre-post (cross- sectional & longitudina l samples)	Individuals (16+) within 1.5km of the relevant woodland site in intervention or control area	White Intervention 99% Control 99%	the worst 30% of deprivation in Scotland as measured by (SIMD)	3 control groups	SWEMWBS	Non- significant increase in visits to Woods	Baseline, approx. 1 year after baseline and approx. two years follow-up

ID	Author/ Intervention type	Intervention name/ Country	Design	Population	Largest Ethnic group	Definition of deprivation	Comparison group	Outcome measure	Measure of Engagement	Times taken
<b>Peer mentoring</b>										
J	Cupples et al. 2010	The MOMENTS Study, UK	RCT	Primigravidae women (16-30) less than 20 weeks' gestation	Not reported	The lowest tertile of deprivation scores on IMD	Usual care	<b>SF-36 – mental health component</b>	48.8% complying with mentoring	<b>12 months follow-up</b>
K	Slade et al. 2021	Facilitating Perinatal Access to Resources and Support (PeARS), UK	Feasibility RCT	Women (18+) under community midwifery led care	83% White British	85% of the sample lived in the most deprived 10% of the IMD scores.	A booklet about local resources	<b>HADS SWEMWBS</b>	50% completing their antenatal plan	Baseline at booking visit, 37 weeks' gestation; Follow up <b>6 months postnatally</b>

ID	Author/ Intervention type	Intervention name/ Country	Design	Population	Largest Ethnic group	Definition of deprivation	Comparison group	Outcome measure	Measure of Engagement	Times taken
L	Day et al. 2022	Being a Parent Course, UK	Pre-post	Primary parental caregiver who: 1) reported difficulties in managing behaviour of an index child aged 2–5 years, and 2) expressed concerns	67.9% White	67.0% of venues in lowest third of the most deprived UK neighbourhoods, 29.9% in the 10% most deprived. 75.3% of parents lived in areas with higher- than-average deprivation. 27.4% in the 10% most socially deprived	Pre/post only	SWEMWBS	73.5% of mothers completed the parenting course	Baseline and in final session (week 8)

ID	Author/ Intervention type	Intervention name/ Country	Design	Population	Largest Ethnic group	Definition of deprivation	Comparison group	Outcome measure	Measure of Engagement	Times taken
				about their parenting.						
	<b>Regeneration</b>									
M	Dunn et al. 2023	Hamilton's Neighbourho- od Action Strategy (NAS), Canada	Controlled pre-post	Residents (18+) in six intervention areas or control	76.5% born in Canada	Description of each intervention area eg. Rolston - high rates of poverty and child poverty compared to the City of Hamilton, and has the highest poverty rate on Hamilton's Mountain	People living control areas neighbourhoods with similar socio-economic & demographic characteristics as those in the intervention group	MHI5		Baseline (2011 to 2014); Follow up (2013-2016)

ID	Author/ Intervention type	Intervention name/ Country	Design	Population	Largest Ethnic group	Definition of deprivation	Comparison group	Outcome measure	Measure of Engagement	Times taken
N	Jalaudin et al. 2012	Urban Renewal project, Australia	Pre-post	Residents (18+) in households in two streets in a fringe suburb of Sydney	79% Australian	Area Compared to Sydney -Unemployment (8% vs 5%) -Owns a car (8% vs 13%) -Social housing (12% vs 5%) - tertiary qualification (31% vs 43%)	Pre and post only	K10		Baseline and 8 months follow- up
O	Jongeneel- Grimen et al. 2016	Dutch District Approach, Holland	Controlled pre-post (cross- sectional)	Adults (18+) living in area	Dutch Intervention 64%	40 most deprived districts in Netherlands.	Broad and narrow comparator	MHI5		Baseline (2004- 2008) and (2008-2011)



ID	Author/ Intervention type	Intervention name/ Country	Design	Population	Largest Ethnic group	Definition of deprivation	Comparison group	Outcome measure	Measure of Engagement	Times taken
P	Mohan, Longo & Kee 2017	Neighbourho- od renewal, UK	Controlled pre-post (cross- sectional)	Residents (16+) living in area	Control groups 80%	Neighbourhoods fell in the 10% most deprived urban wards in Northern Ireland on NIMD	Two control groups of comparable deprivation and the rest of NI as 3 <sup>rd</sup> control	GHQ12		Baseline (2001- 2008) and follow up (2009-12)
Q	Ruijsbroek et al. 2022	Healthy Districts Experiment, Holland	Controlled pre-post (cross- sectional)	Adults (18+) plus and lived in target or control district	59.6% Western	The HDE was implemented in 19 of the 40 most deprived urban districts in 18 large Dutch cities.	Non HDE-target districts in Dutch District Approach	MHI5		Baseline and 6 month and 12- month post randomisation follow up

ID	Author/ Intervention type	Intervention name/ Country	Design	Population	Largest Ethnic group	Definition of deprivation	Comparison group	Outcome measure	Measure of Engagement	Times taken
R	Ruijsbroek et al. 2017	Dutch District Approach, Holland	Controlled pre-post (cross- sectional)	adults (18+) who lived in the 40-target district or the control areas at January 1st 2008.	Western Intervention 64.7% Control 82.2%	the 40 most deprived districts located in 18 large cities using data on physical and socio-economic deprivation, physical and social problems	Comparator area with similar neighbourhood and individual characteristics.	MH-5		Baseline (2004- 2008) and follow up (2009-2013)
S	Stafford et al. 2014	New Deal for Communities, UK	Controlled pre-post	Residents (16+) over in NDC or comparator area	White Intervention 77.1% Control 90.1%	29/39 NDC areas fall within the 10% most deprived wards in England (IMD) and a further eight are within the 20% most deprived wards.	Comparator area	MHI5		Baseline (2002) and every two years till 2008

ID	Author/ Intervention type	Intervention name/ Country	Design	Population	Largest Ethnic group	Definition of deprivation	Comparison group	Outcome measure	Measure of Engagement	Times taken
T	Stafford et al. 2008	New Deal for Communities, UK	Controlled pre-post (cross- sectional)	One adult from each household in area.	% White Intervention 79% Control 83%	All put 2 areas in 2 <sup>nd</sup> highest quintile, all areas had IMD2004 scores in the highest quintile.	Local deprivation matched comparator, high, medium, low deprivation comparator	MHI5 (Intervention and NDC comparator) GHQ12 (HSE)		Baseline (2002), 2-year, 4 year and 6 year follow up.
U	Timmermans et al. 2020	Dutch District approach, Holland	Controlled pre-post	random sample of older men and women (55– 85 years),	Not reported	40 most deprived districts	The districts that were unaffected by the Dutch District Approach	MHI-5		Baseline (2001) and 2008 follow up

ID	Author/ Intervention type	Intervention name/ Country	Design	Population	Largest Ethnic group	Definition of deprivation	Comparison group	Outcome measure	Measure of Engagement	Times taken
V	Walthery et al. 2014	New Deal for Communities, UK	Controlled pre-post	Residents (16+) living in area	White Intervention 70.6% Control 45.9%	39 of the most deprived areas of England between 1998 and 2011	Comparator non-intervention areas	MHI5		Baseline, 2 year, 4 year, 6 year follow up
W	White et al. 2016	Communities First, UK	Controlled pre-post	Adult residents of Caerphilly County Borough, Wales	Not reported	Compared to Welsh average -unemployment (8.5% vs 5.4%) -Public housing (17% vs 13%) it ranked fourth out of 22 local authorities in Wales in the	Control neighbourhoods	MH-5		Baseline and 7 year follow-up

ID	Author/ Intervention type	Intervention name/ Country	Design	Population	Largest Ethnic group	Definition of deprivation	Comparison group	Outcome measure	Measure of Engagement	Times taken
						proportion of LSOAs that were in the 10% most deprived (27).				
X	Mercer 2019	The Glasgow Deep End Links Worker Programme, UK	CRCT	Adult patients who were registered with an intervention practice	Not reported	Practices with a high percentage of registered patients in practices living in the 15% most-deprived postcodes in Scotland	8 practises in deprived areas who did not implement intervention	HADS		Baseline and 9 month follow up
Y	Wiggins et al. 2004	Social Support and Family Health Study, UK	RCT	Women living in in selected London boroughs who	57% non- ethnic minority groups	Average Jarman underprivileged area scores for the two boroughs were 40	Usual care	EPDS GHQ12	18% of assigned women engaged	Baseline, 12 and <b>18 months</b> <b>follow up post</b> GHQ12 18

ID	Author/ Intervention type	Intervention name/ Country	Design	Population	Largest Ethnic group	Definition of deprivation	Comparison group	Outcome measure	Measure of Engagement	Times taken
				gave birth between 1 January and 30 September 1999.		and 49, considerably greater than the national average of zero.			with the organisation s	month follow up only
<b>Z</b>	<b>Training</b>									
	Baruch et al. 2021	Parenting With Love and Limits (PLL), UK	Pre-post	Parents of 10- 17year olds with behavioural problems, attended training	Non ethnic minorities 73.2%	About 83% of participants lived in the London Boroughs which are among the 20% most deprived boroughs in the country (IMD)	Pre-post only	Child Behaviour Check List (CBC)- internalising problems		Baseline and 3 to 6 weeks after final session



### 2.4.2 Definitions of deprived area

Studies defined deprivation differently, highlighting the lack of consensus around this term (Table 2). Most frequently interventions used established classification tools like the English Indices of Multiple Deprivation (IMD) (Noble et al., 2019), Scottish Indices of Multiple Deprivation (SIMD) (Fraser, 2020), Northern Ireland Multiple Deprivation Measure (NIMDM) (Ijpelaar et al., 2019) and Jarman Index (Main and Main, 1991). Most papers only recruited participants from the area they defined as deprived, with 20% of papers including a percentage of individuals outside of these areas. Studies using the IMD used this tool differently. Some reported deprivation using a percentage (with a range of 10-30% most deprived in England) and others reported quintiles, typically focusing on the two most deprived quintiles. Two interventions defined deprived area by comparing the characteristics of this area to the entire country or a less deprived area. One study used this method in combination with a validated measure. Four interventions quantified deprivation, without making it clear what validated measure they used (e.g., “40 most deprived areas in the Netherlands”).

### 2.4.2 Intervention and outcomes

Seven categories of intervention were identified: Community engagement, Food interventions, Green Space interventions, Peer mentoring, Signposting, Regeneration, and Training. These categories were loosely based on a mapping exercise by Duncan et al. (2021). Table 3 shows the characteristics of the different interventions, with blank squares indicating where a category was not applicable.

### 2.4.3 Measures of mental health

Across studies, 11 self-report measures of mental health and well-being were used. Measures of general mental health (GHQ-12 (Williams & Goldberg, 1988), SF-36 (Ware John Ware et al., 1996), MHI5 (Berwick et al., 1991)) were used in 14 studies. Well-being measures were used in six studies (SWEMBS (Stewart-Brown et al., 2009) and WHO-5 (Topp et al., 2015)). EPD was used to measure post-natal depression in three studies (Cox et al., 1987). Anxiety/depression measures were used in three studies (CESD (Radloff, 1977),



HADS (Zigmond & Snaith, 1983)). Two papers used measures of emotional problems in children (CBC (Achenbach, 1992), SDQ (Goodman, 1997)) and one measure of distress (K10 (Kessler et al., 2002)). Zero studies used measures designed for serious mental illnesses like psychosis (SMI)

#### **2.4.4 Quality appraisal**

Quality varied between papers with eight studies receiving a weak rating, seven moderate and 11 strong as indicated in Table 4. All papers used validated and reliable measures of mental health, except Froswick et al., (2017) where reliability of the SDQ was difficult to determine. Limitations were generally due to selection bias, (whereby under 60% of the population agreed to take part) or high levels of withdrawal. In the quasi-experimental controlled pre-post studies, it was difficult for the research team to be blinded to who was in the intervention and control group. Several papers used different participants (from the same community) at each time point, making these papers non-applicable for withdrawal. =

Table 3

## Intervention characteristics

	Community Engagement		Exercise		Green interventions		Food	Peer mentoring			Regeneration					Signposting		Training			
	Salford Health Improvement Service	We'll London	PAM-PeRS	Exercise intervention	Residential garden	DDA Green intervention	WIAT	Large scale food retailing	peARS	MOMENTS study	Being a Parent Course	urban renewal- Sydney	Hamilton' s NAS	Dutch District Approach	Healthy Districts Approach	New Deal for Communities	Neighbourhood renewal	Communities First	Link worker programme	community group support	Parenting With Love
Target																					
Facilitator																					
Delivery																					
Measured engagement?	X	X	√	√	√	X	√	√	√	√	√	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	√	√	X
Measured intensity												X	X	√	X	X	X	X			
Length (M)	1.84	42.03	6	2.76	3	24	21	10	11	16	1.84	12	72	48	48	144	108	84	9	12	1.38

Key:



= Whole community



= Individual in community



= Peer facilitator



= Non-peer facilitator



= Community building.



= Telephone



= Home visit



= GP surgery

**Table 4**

## EHPP Quality ratings

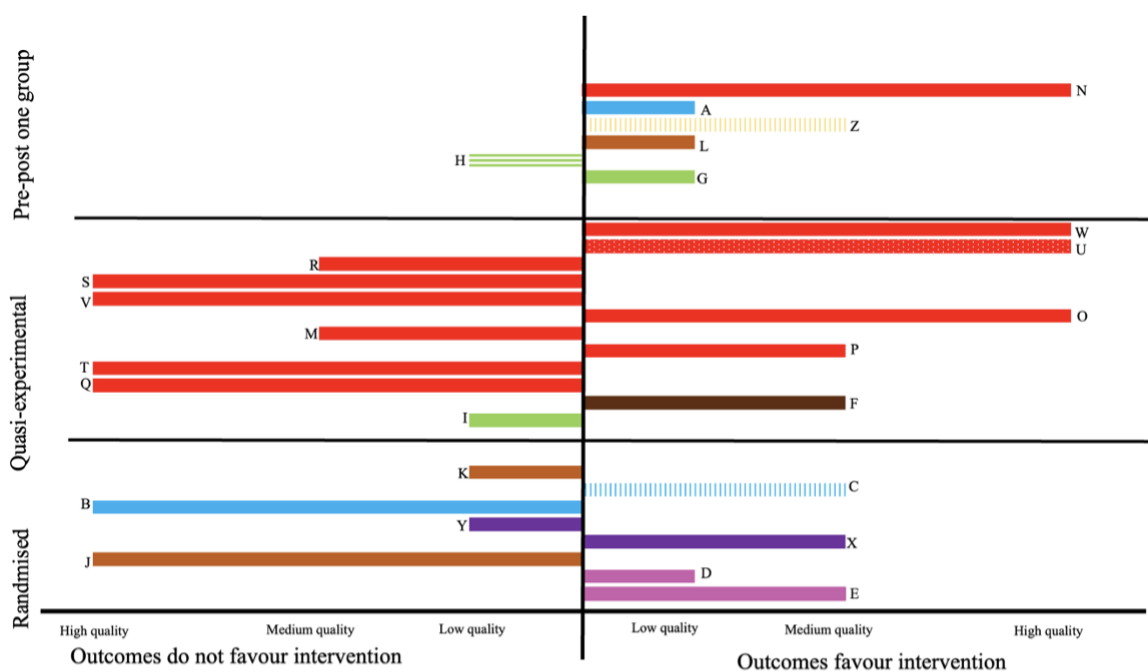
	Eden 2013	Frostick 2017	Phillips 2014A	Daley 2015	Daley 2008	Cummings 2005	Chalmin-Pui 2021	Gubbles 2016	Thompson 2019	Cupples 2010	Slade 2021	Day 2022	Jalaudin 2012	Dunn 2023	Jongeneel-Grimen 2016	Mohan 2017	Ruijsbroek 2022	Ruijsbroek 2017	Stafford 2008	Timmermans 2020	Stafford 2014	Walthery 2014	White 2016	Baruch 2011	Wiggins 2004	Mercer 2019
Selection Bias	W	W	M	W	W	W	W	W	W	M	W	W	M	M	M	S	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	S	W	W
Study design	M	S	S	S	S	M	M	M	M	S	S	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	S	M
Confounders	S	S	S	S	W	S	S	M	S	S	S	S	S	M	S	S	M	S	M	S	S	S	S	M	S	S
Blinding	W	M	M	S	S	M	W	M	M	M	M	W	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	W	M
Data collection methods	S	M	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
Withdrawal	W			S	S	M	M	W	W	S	W	M		W		W		S						W	S	M
<b>Total rating</b>	<b>W</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>S</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>W</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>W</b>	<b>W</b>	<b>W</b>	<b>S</b>	<b>W</b>	<b>W</b>	<b>S</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>S</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>S</b>	<b>S</b>	<b>S</b>	<b>S</b>	<b>S</b>	<b>S</b>	<b>S</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>W</b>	<b>M</b>

W=Weak, M=Moderate, S=Strong

### 2.4.6 Narrative synthesis

Figure 2 shows a harvest plot of community-based interventions on mental health outcomes. Papers to the right reported outcomes in favour of the intervention, while papers to the left favoured the control group or reported no between group or pre-post differences. This was based on the direction of change, rather than statistical significance. The length of the bar depicts study quality, with longer bars being higher quality. Intervention category is shown by the colour of the bar. Study ID is indicated by the letter.

**Figure 2:** Harvest plot of all papers



Key: ■ = regeneration, ■ = food, ■ = green space, ■ = exercise,  
 ■ = training, ■ = peer mentoring, ■ = Community engagement  
 ■ = signposting/info, dots = children and adults strips = children

Alphabet = Study ID (matching up to study ID in Table 2).

### 2.4.7 Community engagement

Two community engagement interventions focused on developing community capacity through the creation of community groups and resources (e.g., exercise and gardening groups). The WellLondon RCT was reported in two papers focusing on different age groups. In adults, the intervention group had lower well-being scores at

follow-up (Phillips et al., 2014), whereas in children intervention group were found to have slightly higher well-being scores compared to the control group (Frostick et al.2017). A second community engagement intervention, The Salford Health Improvement Service, used a pre-post design and found positive changes in well-being scores for adults after the intervention (Eden and Lowndes, 2013). Comparing withdrawal across the two interventions is difficult because The WellLondon intervention used different participants (from the same community) at each time point, whereas the Salford Health Improvement Service suffered from high withdrawal rates in the same participants contributing to its overall weak quality rating. The two interventions differed in terms of length, with WellLondon taking significantly longer to deliver.

#### **2.4.8 Exercise**

An RCT (Daley et al., 2015) and a feasibility RCT (Daley et al., 2008) measured the impact of interventions promoting physical activity in new mothers with post-natal depression. These were the only studies in this review to include participants with existing mental illness. Both interventions included telephone and home visit consultations delivered by a professional to promote exercise uptake. Being a feasibility trial Daley et al. 2008 had a weaker quality rating, compared to the later full RCT, largely due to controlling for fewer cofounders. The studies differed in terms of intervention length (six months vs 12 weeks) and follow-up periods (six and 12 months vs 12 weeks). Both papers found the mean difference between the intervention and control group differed, favouring the intervention, but this was only significant in the RCT study at six months follow-up.

#### **2.4.9 Food intervention**

Only one study of moderate quality measured the impact of large-scale food retailing on changes in mental health outcomes of residents who lived near the supermarket, compared to those who lived 5km away (Cummins et al., 2005).

Psychological health improved in the intervention area at 10-month follow-up, though this change was only significantly different to the control area in individuals who switched to the new supermarket. While it was difficult to understand the potential for selection bias as the paper did not report what percentage of eligible participants agreed to take part in the study, withdrawal throughout the study was only moderate.

#### **2.4.10 Green space**

Three weak-quality studies examined the effect of green space interventions on mental health outcomes in deprived areas, with inconsistent results. One focused on improving residents' front gardens and the other two on the regeneration of green areas in the community. The residential gardening intervention used a pre-post design, providing residents with gardening materials and access to horticultural experts to improve their front gardens (Chalmin-Pui et al. 2021). This study found a non-significant small mean increase in well-being scores after the intervention. This study had the shortest follow-up period in this category (three months). The two studies focusing on larger green-area regeneration found a detrimental intervention impact with green space interventions being associated with non-significant increases in depression (Gubbels et al., 2016) and a significant reduction in well-being (Thompson et al., 2019). They differed from Chalmin-Pui et al. (2021) as they used a controlled pre-post design to measure the impact of regeneration to larger community areas like woodlands (Thompson et al. 2019) and across district areas (Gubbels et al. 2016). These interventions focused on physical regeneration as well as community engagement activities such as photography walking groups and sporting events, whereas the first paper did not. These interventions took longer to implement (21 versus three months) and had longer follow-up periods (two years versus three months). All three studies suffered from high levels of selection bias, meaning findings are likely to be less generalisable.

#### **2.4.11 Peer mentoring**

The impact of peer mentoring interventions on changes in mental health was measured in 3 papers of varying quality. Two papers focused on individual mentoring for new mothers at risk of poor mental health (Cupples et al., 2011; Slade et al., 2021) and one paper on a peer-led group parenting course on parental well-being (Day et al., 2022). The number of interactions with the peer was similar across studies (average 8.5, 4 and 8 contacts), however, these interactions were delivered over a longer period in the two individual mentoring interventions compared to the group intervention (12 months and 8 months versus 8 weeks, respectively). Outcomes of the group intervention only favoured the interventions' ability to have a positive change on mental health (Day et al., 2022), however, this study suffered from higher withdrawal rates compared to the other two studies.

#### **2.4.12 Regeneration**

All regeneration studies involved varying degrees of physical regeneration (to buildings and green spaces), community events and engagement, which naturally made these some of the longest interventions in this review. No papers in this category measured individual engagement with regeneration elements. All interventions briefly mentioned an element of community- consultation or involvement in intervention planning, but none quantified this, meaning we cannot be sure how this may influence intervention outcomes. Focusing on specific interventions, the outcomes of two papers reporting on the DDA were found to favour the intervention in adults (Jongeneel-Grimen et al., 2016, Timmermans et al., 2020). A third found a comparable reduction in the percentage of residents with fair mental health in the intervention and control areas (Ruijsbroek et al., 2017). These studies measured the intensity of regeneration in each target district (based on the number of residents reached or the magnitude of environmental change achieved), finding positive non-significant trends in mental



health in high-intensity districts, compared to low. Outcomes did not favour the intervention when comparing Health District areas which focused specifically on public health additions to other DDA areas (Ruijsbroek et al. 2022). Jongeneel-Grimen et al. (2016) paper used multilevel logistic regression models, this is a different approach to many of the other papers which typically used difference-in-difference models. Focusing on NDC interventions, all study outcomes did not favour the intervention (Stafford et al., 2014, 2008; Walthery et al., 2015). Outcomes of neighbourhood renewal projects in Wales, (White et al. 2016), Northern Ireland (Mohan et al., 2017) Australia were found to favour the intervention. (Jalaudin et al. 2012). Regeneration projects in Hamilton, Canada were found to produce a small improvement in mental health, but only in two of the six intervention neighbourhoods (Dunn et al., 2023). All papers in this category were of high quality (and were not applicable for withdrawal), '(Frostick et al. 2017). A' which was of moderate quality due to high levels of withdrawal.

#### **2.4.12 Signposting**

The impact of signposting interventions was measured in two RCTs of differing quality. The higher-quality paper, focused on community-link workers based in GP practices who support referrals to and ongoing contact with local community resources (Mercer et al., 2019). There was a small reduction in anxiety levels and a small increase in depression scores, with those who met with the link worker once or three times appearing to benefit most. For this reason, this paper was considered to favour the intervention. The lower-quality intervention focused on referrals to different community-based organisations for new mothers who offered advice and group activities (Wiggins et al., 2004). The intervention group had lower though not statistically significantly different depression scores at 12 months follow-ups compared to the control group, however, general mental health outcomes at 18 months and self-reported feelings of depression favoured the control group, making this paper overall not favour the intervention. This paper had a second intervention which was excluded for

not meeting our criteria for community-based interventions.

#### **2.4.14 Training**

One moderate-quality pre-post study measured the impact of a group parenting training programme called Parenting with Limits delivered in community venues by a voluntary organisation for children with conduct disorder (Baruch et al., 2011). The group followed a manual, involving role plays and DVDs to teach strategies for managing challenging behaviour. Changes in internal emotional problems like anxiety in the child were measured. Post intervention there was a significant decrease in internalising problems in children.

### **2.5 Discussion**

This systematic review is the first to our knowledge to explore the impact of community-based interventions on mental health and well-being outcomes in deprived communities. Findings were mixed across and sometimes within the seven identified intervention categories.

#### **2.5.1 Interpretation of findings and recommendations**

A harvest plot approach allowed for a broader understanding of the impact of different community-based interventions. In line with our review, skills-based interventions appear promising in targeting mental health and other public health outcomes in disadvantaged groups. (McGrath et al., 2021; O'Mara-Eves et al., 2015). Individuals facing economic hardship have identified developing agency as a feature of positive interventions (Bernard et al., 2023). Developing agency is arguably a key feature of skills-based interventions, which teach individuals the necessary skills to achieve their daily functions and make choices about their mental health (Drake et al., 2004). Services may benefit from constructing community-based interventions that promote agency through the development of skills, encouraging the individual to play an active role in their recovery. This feels particularly important when working with residents of deprived areas who typically feel their ability to exercise agency is

restricted due to their social and structural context (Rikala, 2020).

Notably, skills-based interventions also had higher levels of engagement compared to less favourable interventions such as community group support for new mothers or large green space regeneration. Interventions targeting new mothers, with less favourable outcomes allowed individuals to decide how often they engaged in the intervention (Cupples et al. 2010, Slade, et al. 2021, Wiggins et al. 2004). After birth mothers can experience a period of adjustment, stress, and pressure (Asadi et al., 2020), especially mothers from deprived communities who may have limited social support to assist with this transition (Offer, 2012). Wiggins et al. (2004) found nearly a quarter of women reported not engaging in community groups due to lack of time. This highlights the need for community-based interventions to develop interventions alongside experts by experience who can provide insight into potential barriers to engagement and can think with services about how community-based interventions can be accessible to residents of deprived areas.

Engagement in larger regeneration interventions were lower in some interventions (Thompson et al. 2019). Despite this, Cummins et al. (2005) found residents who did engage by switching where they shopped benefitted most, and in the DDA residents living in more intensely regenerated areas were more likely to benefit (Jongeneel-Grimen et al. 2016, Timmermans et al. 2016). This suggests living in regeneration areas alone is not enough for change to occur. Involving residents in the design and implementation of community-level interventions has been identified as key to their potential success (Blakeley et al. 2009), however, willingness to engage in community engagement can be low due to consultation fatigue and feelings of disappointment (Attree et al. 2010). No regeneration studies quantified this in our

review, meaning we were unable to ascertain if the degree of community engagement influenced study outcomes. Nonetheless, developers of regeneration interventions should prioritize encouraging sustainable engagement from communities. This should be done in a genuine, not tokenistic way that encourages a sense of agency and ownership within communities.

Similarly, to O'Mara-Eves et al., 2015 we found that more focused interventions (with fewer components or targeting specific mental health difficulties) generally had more favourable outcomes. In narrative synthesis, interventions which measured post-natal depression had a favourable impact compared to interventions targeting more broad mental health difficulties in new mothers. Moreover, other interventions where outcome measures aligned closely with aims and design (e.g. use of a Child Behaviour Checklist in a parenting course) were also found more favourable. Longer interventions such as regeneration are arguably less focused in their target as they target multiple characteristics of deprived communities, which can have unintended consequences as residents experience the implementation of multi-components as unpredictable and unsettling (Lewis, 2017). In this review, few studies measured the impact of components separately (Gubbels et al., 2016, Ruijsbroek et al., 2017). Without doing this there is a risk that conclusions are drawn about the entirety of the intervention's effectiveness when it may be one component limiting or enhancing its ability to create change. Though this poses challenges, research may benefit from attempting to measure different intervention components' impact. From a cost-effectiveness point of view, this will allow interventions to only include elements that are likely to lead to positive changes in mental health, reducing the financial cost of healthcare.

Understanding the current state of wider research in this area is important for contextualising this review's findings and recommendations. Evidence is sparse within

each intervention category and research designs typically do not use randomisation, often considered unfeasible in public health interventions where it may be considered unethical to deny individuals an intervention believed to be beneficial (Bonell et al., 2011). There was a trend for pre-post (non-controlled) designs to have outcomes favouring the intervention's ability to positively change mental health outcomes, even when studies from the same intervention category using controlled designs did not. Higher-quality studies were less likely to have favourable outcomes, whereas most moderate-quality study had favourable outcomes and there was an even split in low-quality studies. This may be because almost all high-quality studies used different participants (from the same communities) at different time points meaning they were not rated on withdrawal which was something almost all the weak studies were rated down on. Ideally, more high-quality studies which used a randomised approach would be designed to contribute to future reviews enabling us to develop a fuller understanding of the potential effect of community-based interventions.

No papers were found including individuals with severe mental illness (SMI). This is surprising given deprivation is associated with a higher prevalence of SMI (Cruz et al., 2022) and previous reviews found support for the effectiveness of some community-based interventions on social outcomes in this population (Killaspy et al., 2022). The lack of papers in this area may reflect the typical treatments for SMI in high-income countries (e.g. medication and therapy) (Ride et al., 2020). More community-based interventions need to be targeted at this group to investigate whether the types of intervention found to create change in this review will have a similar effect on individuals with SMI in deprived areas.

In our review, 26% of papers did not report ethnicity data. Baskin et al., 2020 found few high-quality studies exist on community-based interventions for mental

health outcomes in ethnic minorities more broadly. Individuals from ethnic minority backgrounds are more likely to live in deprived areas (Baker et al., 2013) and experience difficulties with their mental health (Proto & Quintana-Domeque, 2021), but are less likely to take part in research (Brown et al., 2014). Evaluations of community-based interventions should consider the barriers to the recruitment of ethnic minority individuals in their protocol to ensure findings are representative of the make-up of deprived communities.

### **2.5.2 Strengths and Limitations**

This review was compressive, including 26 papers across seven intervention categories, employing narrative synthesis, however, it is important to consider the limitations of this review when considering the findings.

This review synthesised data from a range of heterogeneous studies investigating the impact of different community-based interventions, meaning caution should be applied in any conclusions drawn. This also means that only narrative synthesis (and not meta-analysis) was appropriate for synthesising all papers. The heterogeneity of interventions identified represents the wide range of interventions taking place in deprived communities, however, this posed a challenge when trying to understand which elements of interventions were accountable for the benefits observed. Interventions also used a range of outcome measures ranging from specific mental health difficulties to general mental health and well-being. While the range of measures highlights the many potential benefits of community-based interventions, it also highlights the further complexities this review faced in drawing comparisons between papers. More strict inclusion criteria could restrict future reviews to specific categories of community-based interventions, making comparisons easier.

Studies also used a range of definitions to define an area as deprived. While a global definition of deprivation is unlikely to be achieved, it may be possible for future reviews to explore the common features of how areas are defined as deprived within a single country. By identifying these common features, we may be able to work towards

a shared understanding of how deprivation is conceptualised within a single country, making it easier to then make comparisons between interventions undertaken in deprived communities.

This review focused on high-income countries only. While this was done to limit the likely differences between countries in terms of factors such as expenditure on mental health, this approach limits our understanding of community-based interventions in deprived areas of middle or low-income countries. Further reviews should focus on deprived areas in middle or low-income countries to establish how effective community-based interventions are in these communities. If future reviews identify a scarcity of research in these countries, researchers may wish to consider adapting effective community-based interventions from high-income countries and evaluating their effectiveness in this context. Even between high-income countries, there are likely cultural differences which may impact the effectiveness of community-based interventions; therefore, researchers may wish to evaluate the effectiveness of the interventions this review found to be effective in their own contexts.

While using a harvest plot approach was well suited to synthesising data from clinically heterogeneous studies, the plot itself does not consider effect size, significance, or the relative size of studies, only the direction of impact.

This review could have benefited from a blind second assessor of study outcomes. While a consensus discussion was had when the direction of change was difficult to determine, having a second independent reviewer assess all studies would ensure the reliability of synthesis.

### **2.4.3 Conclusion**

Findings on the impact of community-based interventions were mixed, with a need for more high-quality randomised control trials to improve our confidence in any potential impact they may have. Currently, it appears that skills-based and more focused (in their delivery and target audience) interventions hold the most promise for impacting

the mental health of deprived communities. There is an indication that those who can engage in community-based interventions benefit the most, however, services need to consider how to make interventions accessible to residents of deprived areas as they may experience greater barriers to engagement.

### **Highlights**

- Findings on the impact of Community-based interventions are mixed, with a need for higher-quality studies.
- Skills-based training has the potential to have a positive impact on the mental health of deprived communities.
- Interventions more focused on their delivery and their target audience were also more promising.

### **Author contributions**

**Charlotte Humphreys:** Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - original draft, Visualization, Project Administration. **Charlotte Humphreys and Sheri Oduola:** Conceptualization, Methodology. **Sheri Oduola and Joanna Hodgekins:** Writing - review & editing, Supervision.

### **Systematic review registration**

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### **Declaration of interests**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.



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### Chapter three- Extended results

Using Meta-Essentials (Suurmond et al., 2017), meta-analysis was undertaken on 6 papers with a randomised design and had available data on mental health outcomes for adults. Where information was available standardised mean difference scores (SMD) (between intervention and control group at last or only follow-up) were calculated, using Hedges G which corrects for small or inconsistent sample sizes (Lin and Aloe, 2021). SMD is a summary statistic that represents the size of the intervention effect in a study relative to the variability observed. For scales where a higher score indicates higher mental well-being or lower mental illness symptomatology, mean scores were inverted (multiplied by -1) before calculating the SMD (Deeks et al., 2023). Given some studies used multiple mental health outcomes, the following order: depression, anxiety, general mental health then well-being was used to decide which outcome measure (with the necessary data to calculate SMD) from each paper was included. Two meta-analyses were conducted: (1) all outcomes at last or only follow-up, (2) synthesising only papers which used the Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale (EPDS) (Cox et al., 1987), which was the most frequently used measure in randomised studies. A fixed-effects model was chosen as is this a convincing model for meta-analysis with too few studies to acquire accurate estimates of between-study variance and when studies share common effects (Dettori et al., 2022).

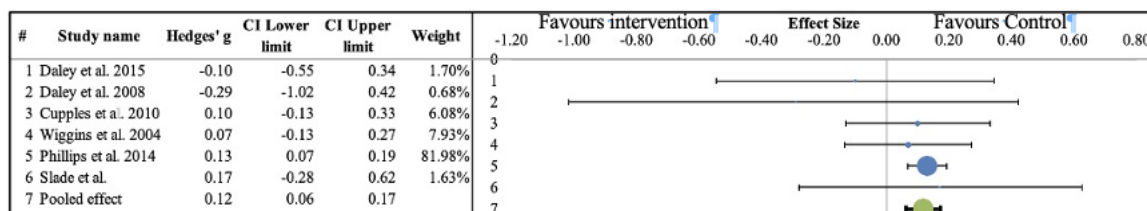
Six studies were eligible for meta-analysis: two exercise interventions, two peer mentoring, one training and one community engagement. The remaining studies were excluded for the following reasons: (1) the design and methodology were not compatible with the meta-analytic methodology, (2) the published article did not include sufficient information to calculate SMD and (3) contacted authors did not provide additional data.

A fixed-effect meta-analysis was run on six studies (total sample size=4778). This was done at the last (or only) follow-up time provided in the study using mental health outcomes highlighted in bold in Table 2. Our analysis showed a significant, yet negligible difference in mental health outcomes at the end of the community-based intervention, favouring the control group (Hedge's  $g = 0.12$ , 95% CI 0.06 to 0.17,  $p < .005$ ). Heterogeneity between studies was low ( $Q = 2.73$ ,  $P = 0.74$ ,  $I^2 = 0.00$ ). A sensitivity analysis was completed including only studies which included multiple follow-ups. Analysis suggested no significant difference in mental health outcomes at last follow-up, though the



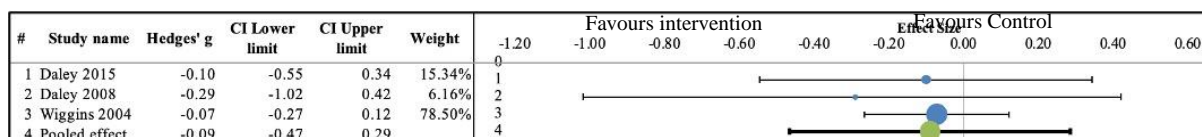
difference did favour the control group (Hedge's  $g = 0.07$  95% CI -0.15 to 0.30,  $p < 0.15$ ). Publication bias was found to be low through visual inspection of funnel plots (Appendix B) and Egger's Regression ( $p = 0.08$ ).

**Figure 3:** Meta-analysis of all 6 randomised studies at last or only follow up



A separate analysis focused only on studies (total sample size = 110) which used the EPDS as an outcome measure, as this was the most frequently used measure across the eligible randomised studies. It should be noted that for Wiggins et al. 2004, EPDS was only used at 12-month follow-up and not 18 months, thus in the first meta-analysis GHQ-12 scores were used at 18 months as this analysis used the latest follow-up. Analysis suggested no significant difference in EPDS scores, though the difference did favour the intervention group (Hedge's  $g = -0.09$ , 95 CI% -0.47 to 0.29). Heterogeneity between studies was low ( $Q=0.36$ ,  $P=0.84$ ,  $I^2= 0.00$ ). Publication bias was found to be low through visual inspection of funnel plots (Appendix C) and Egger's Regression ( $p = 0.31$ ). Running a sensitive analysis including only the two papers by Daley which included only women who met the threshold for postnatal depression did not change these results (Hedge's  $g = -0.15$ , 95 CI% -2.55 to 2.45).

**Figure 4:** Meta-analysis for papers only using EPDS



## Chapter four- Bridging chapter

This chapter aims to summarise the systematic review and provides a background for the empirical paper.

In the previous chapter, we sought to synthesise the available literature on the impact of community-based interventions on mental health outcomes, specifically in deprived areas. This systematic review found promise for certain community-based interventions such as those with a skills-based focus (e.g. parenting courses), interventions which were more focused in their delivery (e.g. had fewer components) and had more targeted audiences (e.g. targeting individuals with post-natal depression versus individuals at-risk of poor mental health generally). Moreover, there was a trend for residents to benefit from community-based interventions most when they could engage in them, emphasising the need for services to make interventions accessible to these communities. This review highlighted the importance of targeting social stressors in deprived areas via community-based interventions to improve residents' mental health.

Our review only identified papers which used measures of well-being and common mental illness, however, based on our findings, it is plausible that addressing stressors in the social environment of individuals with psychotic disorders, could also improve their mental health. There is a wealth of research highlighting the social determinants of psychosis including adverse childhood experiences (e.g. bullying and child abuse), experiences of migration, discrimination, and characteristics of deprived areas such as poverty and food insecurity (Jester et al. 2023). Exposure to these individual-level and ecological-level social factors may place individuals with an inherited vulnerability at greater risk of developing psychotic disorders (Shah et al. 2011). They are also at greater risk of experiencing worse outcomes such as relapse and increased negative symptoms (Jester et al. 2023). Therefore, it could be hypothesised that using community-based interventions to address the social stressors present in

deprived communities has the potential to also protect residents more vulnerable to psychotic disorders from reaching crisis point which requires more restrictive interventions such as psychiatric inpatient admission.

The paucity of research on community-based interventions for psychosis in deprived areas is surprising given deprivation is associated with a higher prevalence of psychotic disorders (Cruz et al., 2022). One possible explanation for this is the beliefs held about the causes of psychosis and how these causal beliefs impact the type of treatment individuals with psychotic disorders are offered, and the likelihood of adherence to different treatments by the individual themselves (Carter et al. 2017). A scoping review by Rosenthal et al. (2021) found that most papers suggested that mental health professionals endorsed more biogenetic beliefs about the causes of psychotic disorders compared to psychosocial causes. Clinicians who hold biogenetic causal beliefs may be more likely to endorse biological interventions like medication as a treatment option compared to psychosocial-based interventions such as talking therapies (Carter et al. 2017b). This suggests that individuals with psychotic disorders may be less likely to be offered community-based interventions if clinicians favour organic causes for psychosis and fail to recognise the role social stressors play in increasing residents of deprived communities' vulnerability to experiencing psychotic disorders.

We know that help-seeking is also more difficult for residents of deprived communities due to structural and psycho-social barriers such as inaccessibility, concerns around confidentiality and stigma (Doornbos et al. 2013). Individuals who do not seek help in the prodromal stages of psychosis are more likely to experience severe psychopathology (Bottlender et al. 2003). Therefore, failing to offer these residents

community-based interventions could be seen as counterproductive as it could be hypothesised that residents of deprived areas with psychotic disorders may be more likely to seek help via community-based interventions which take place in non-clinical settings compared to traditional mental health services. This is because the interventions take place in settings familiar and accessible to the individual (Baskin et al., 2023) and are often delivered by peer or lay workers who may have experienced psychosis themselves, which has been shown to decrease stigma (Evans et al. 2021).

Without addressing the social stressors residents of deprived areas experience there is a risk those with a genetic vulnerability to psychosis will go on to experience severe psychotic symptomatology which requires treatment in psychiatric inpatient hospital wards. Therefore, it is hoped that chapter four will develop a better understanding of the current treatment experiences of patients from deprived communities with psychosis, focusing on inpatient admission-related outcomes including compulsory admission, length of stay and admission to a Psychiatric Intensive Care Unit. This will allow us to develop a better understanding of the potential consequences of failing to offer residents of deprived communities with psychotic disorders community-based interventions in terms of an increased use of inpatient admission, which is considered a more restrictive intervention.

Most studies focused on a singular element of residents' identity (that they lived in deprived communities) in their design and analysis. Just over a quarter of all papers failed to report ethnicity data for their samples, limiting our understanding of whether individuals from different ethnic groups experience similar or different outcomes in deprived areas. Most research focusing on inpatient-related factors such as use of compulsory admission, length of stay or admission to a PICU have also typically focused on singular socio-demographic factors such as deprivation (Croudace et al.,

2000, Hodgson et al. 2000), gender (Rieke et al. 2015) or ethnicity (Bruce and Smith, 2020, Freitas et al. 2023).

However, we know that unpicking health inequalities is complex, involving the interplay of different parts of our identity (DeLuca et al., 2022). Despite ethnic minority groups being more likely to reside in the most deprived areas of the UK (Tinsley & Jacobs, 2006), and at greater risk of debilitating mental health difficulties (Baily et al., 2019), in our systematic review just over a quarter of papers failed to report ethnicity data for their samples. This limited our understanding of whether individuals from different ethnic groups experience the same outcomes from community-based interventions in deprived areas. In a similar vein to those from deprived communities, it has also been found that individuals from ethnic minority groups are at increased risk of receiving a diagnosis of a psychotic disorder (Oduola et al., 2021), and experiencing inpatient admission (Gajwani et al., 2016). This has been associated with reduced help-seeking linked to fear of punitive treatments (Keating and Robertson, 2004), cultural and spiritual interpretations of illness (Jacobs & Pentaris, 2021) and experiences of exclusion (Morgan et al., 2008). Therefore, it is important to consider the additional stressors that ethnic minority residents of deprived areas may experience which can increase their vulnerability to experiencing psychotic disorders. This highlights how we cannot simply focus on singular elements of individuals' identities when trying to understand mental health outcomes for interventions, such as inpatient use or community-based interventions.

Healthcare providers generate and store vast amounts of clinical data in electronic health records (Coervits et al., 2013). The use of anonymised electronic clinical records has been used previously to explore the association between area-level socio-environmental factors and inpatient use (Heslin et al., 2018) and in research

exploring the intersectionality concerning cancer diagnosis (Mkuu et al. 2023), and *Without incentives for clinicians to improve the recording of other sociodemographic factors*. This is because the secondary data captured in these records can drastically increase the breadth and depth of information available about a defined population with little cost to the researcher (Werbelloff et al. 2018). This allows researchers to develop samples large enough to answer questions regarding intersectionality quantitatively which typically requires stratification of data (Guan et al. 2021). A large sample is required to ensure the number of groups investigated are large enough to achieve power, whilst not making them so reductionist that findings tell us little meaningful information (e.g. comparing people from white groups to non-white groups). This is because collapsing smaller socio-demographic groups (e.g. deprivation levels or ethnic groups) into larger ones can have implications on the perceptions of the group under study and influence resource allocation and policy implementation based on research findings (Gennaro et al. 2013). Achieving a sufficiently large sample without the use of electronic health records would be time- consuming and costly to follow up, particularly as recruitment in epidemiological studies has dropped significantly in recent years (Toledano et al. 2015). This also prevents disruptions to services as information is automatically extracted reducing the need for researchers to use services as gatekeepers for recruitment.

While electronic health records can be seen as an asset when investigating intersectionality quantitatively, they have some limitations which must be considered. As clinical health records are completed by health care professionals, researchers are reliant on them to ask and accurately record socio-demographic data. A systematic review by Cook et al. 2022 highlighted that problems with the quality of socio-demographic data are rarely random, with certain ethnic minority groups being more likely to be misclassified. Misclassification can lead to certain groups being excluded

from clinical research. Linked to this Harari and Lee (2021) found that most studies exploring intersectionality quantitatively focused on three social characteristics (ethnicity, gender, and socio-economic status), neglecting other characteristics such as religion, sexual orientation, and disability. This may reflect the availability of information recorded in electronic health records. Jain et al. (2017) found deprivation and ethnicity data were the most complete in records, particularly following the introduction of incentives for clinicians to ask and record patient's ethnicity in 2006. In comparison, they found immigration status and religion were only recorded in around 2% of records. Without incentives for clinicians to improve the recording of other sociodemographic factors, the use of electronic health records may be more useful when exploring the intersection of certain sociodemographic factors over others.

In chapter four we made use of the Clinical Record Interactive Search (CRIS) system (Stewart et al. 2009) which was developed between 2007-2008. CRIS contains the fully de-identified electronic health records of South London and Maudsley (SLaM) National Health Service Foundation Trust who provide mental health services to four London Boroughs. CRIS contains over 300,000 patient records, with an average of 20,000 new cases added each year (Perera et al. 2016). The inclusion of anonymised structured and unstructured data (free text) makes CRIS unique compared to other some case registries, which may focus more on data in structured fields (Tayefi et al. 2021). The inclusion of unstructured data allows researchers to manually search clinical notes for variables of interest, which can be coded into numeric form for analysis.

Using CRIS, the following chapter aims to first better understand the relationship between area-level deprivation and inpatient use in people with psychotic disorders and then the relationship between ethnicity and inpatient use in people with psychotic disorders. However, the main aim of this paper is to explore the intersection

between area-level deprivation, ethnicity and how patients with psychotic disorders use inpatient psychiatric services. This has the potential to inform our understanding of the social determinants that make individuals more vulnerable to severe psychotic symptomatology leaving them at risk of inpatient admission.



## Chapter four

### **Understanding the intersections between ethnicity, area-level deprivation, and psychiatric inpatient use amongst patients with psychotic disorders: a mental health electronic records analysis.**

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Key words: Deprivation, Ethnicity, Health inequalities, Intersectionality, Psychiatric inpatient admission, Serious mental illness

### **Abstract**

Ethnic and area-level deprivation disparities in psychiatric inpatient outcomes amongst patients with psychotic disorders have been reported. However, how these two variables intersect to produce health inequalities is unclear. Using data of inpatient services at South London and Maudsley NHS trust linked to the Clinical Record Interactive search a large sample of patients with psychotic disorders who were admitted between 2016-2019 (n=6767) was identified. Separate logistic and negative binomial regressions were used to examine the relationships between ethnicity (and then deprivation) with inpatient-related outcomes (compulsory admission, psychiatric intensive unit admission, length of stay and number of admissions). The sample was then stratified by area-level deprivation to understand the intersection of ethnicity, and inpatient outcomes. Patients from all areas except the least deprived were at greater risk of compulsory admission, admission to Psychiatric Intensive Care Units and more frequent admissions. All ethnic minority groups were more likely to be compulsorily admitted compared to white British patients. Living in the least deprived areas appeared to offer protection against increased risk of compulsory admission for some ethnic minority groups, but not black British or Asian patients. This study highlights the importance of addressing stressors present in social environment of deprived areas and ethnic minority patients which could in turn reduce the need for inpatient admissions.

Key words: Psychotic Disorder, Deprivation, Ethnicity, Inpatient, Compulsory Admission, Intersectionality

## 5.1 Introduction

Psychotic disorders refer to mental health diagnoses including schizophrenia and delusional disorder which significantly impact a person's ability to engage in functional and occupational activities (Drake and Whitley, 2014). Around 1% of the UK population receives a diagnosis of a psychotic disorder each year (Bebbington and McManus, 2020), however, the burden of these diagnoses extends beyond the individual to their families and wider society (Drake and Whitley, 2014; Fekadu et al., 2019; Ride et al., 2020).

Individuals living in deprived communities are at greater risk of Psychotic disorder diagnosis (et al., 2007). Anderson et al. (1997) defines area-level deprivation as the ecological concentration of poverty, unemployment, economic disinvestment, and social disorganisation. The social causation hypothesis suggests that residents of deprived communities experience conditions of poverty and increased exposure to crime resulting in increased stress, reduced social capital and social exclusion, linked with an increased risk of paranoia and later psychosis (Bebbington et al., 2004, Newbury et al., 2018). Black African, black Caribbean and other ethnic minority groups are also at an elevated risk of psychosis (Oduola et al., 2021). The social defeat hypothesis suggests ethnic minority groups are more likely to experience exclusionary experiences (Selten and Cantor-Graae, 2005) such as pervasive experiences of discrimination (Pearce et al., 2019), a personal or family history of migration (Cantor-Graae and Selten, 2005) and trauma (Berg et al., 2015). These experiences increase an individual's risk of psychosis by influencing changes in the sensitivity of the mesolimbic dopamine system (Selten et al., 2013). Traumatic events can also negatively alter schemas, influencing how individuals interpret intrusions in their environment, partially accounting for the relationship between these experiences and paranoia (Hardy 2016).

Psychiatric inpatient admissions have frequently been used as a treatment approach for psychotic disorders (White et al., 2014). Admission is used to stabilise those with debilitating symptom severity, marked functional impairment and who pose significant risks to the safety of themselves or others (Nuernberg et al., 2016, Rozalski & McKeegan, 2019). Patients with particularly difficult-to-treat symptoms may be moved to psychiatric intensive care units (PICU) (Cullen et al., 2018). Inpatient admissions can therefore crudely resemble a measure of symptom severity in this population. Hospital admissions aim to comprehensively assess patient's mental health difficulties and provide treatment, including medication and safety management (Bowers et al., 2009).

In the UK patients can be admitted on a voluntary or involuntary basis. The Mental Health Act (Department of Health, 1983) is used to compulsorily admit individuals when there are significant concerns about risk or functioning. Approved Mental Health Professionals consider this when alternative less restrictive options in the community have been discounted (Stone et al 2019). Individuals can be admitted under Section 2 for up to 28 days of assessment, Section 4 for an emergency 72-hour assessment, or under Section 3 for treatment (initially for 6 months, but renewable) (Laing, 2021). Compulsory admission has been linked with the increased use of seclusion and mechanical restraint, and greater lack of independence compared to voluntary admissions (Maina et al. 2021). These admissions can be traumatic, harming patients' relationships with healthcare professionals, and engagement with treatment, and delaying recovery (Akther et al., 2019).

The MHA has been disproportionately applied to black Caribbean and black African people who are more vulnerable to psychotic disorders (Freitas et al. 2022, Gajwani et al., 2016; Oduola et al., 2019). The use of secondary data analysis of

patients' records has facilitated access to rich data on clinical samples, allowing exploration of other factors associated with the inpatient experience of different ethnic groups. Individuals from black ethnic groups are more likely to have a longer length of stay (LOS) (Bruce and Smith, 2020), experience seclusion (Pedersen et al. 2022), be re-admitted (Osborn et al., 2021) and be admitted to PICUs compared to white patients (Bowers et al., 2008). This suggests that patients from these groups are more likely to experience severe psychotic symptomatology, restrictive practices during admission, and are at greater risk of relapse.

There is less consensus about the nature of the relationship between deprivation and inpatient use. Patients with psychotic disorders living in more deprived areas have higher admission rates compared patients in less deprived areas (White et al. 2014). However, in terms of LOS Abas et al. (2006) and Jacobs et al. (2015) found a longer LOS for residents of the least deprived areas and Hodgson et al. (2000) the opposite. Focusing specifically on psychotic disorders Croudace et al. (2000) found a strong non-linear relationship between deprivation and admission prevalence and Heslin et al. (2018) found no relationship. This highlights the need for further research to strengthen our understanding of the link between deprivation and LOS, and to explore the link with other inpatient-related outcomes.

The UK government had planned to reform the current MHA to address ethnic disparities in compulsory admission (Dyer, 2022). Little progress has been made towards this, therefore, developing a more nuanced of understanding which individuals with psychotic disorders are at greater risk of admission and its associated negative outcomes is crucial to ensure reforms or resources used to reduce vulnerability to admission are targeted appropriately and effectively. Research has typically focused on a single sociodemographic factor such as ethnicity, area-level deprivation or gender and

inpatient use, however unpicking these health inequalities is a complex task characterised by the interplay of the different elements of our identity (DeLuca et al., 2022). Intersectionality acknowledges everyone's unique experience of discrimination and oppression, but research incorporating this in its design and analysis is limited likely due to the complex nature of this relationship and the lack of large data sets to address these questions (Bowleg, 2012). It is essential to consider how ethnicity and deprivation intersect concerning inpatient use, given ethnic minority groups are overrepresented in deprived areas (Tinsley & Jacobs, 2006) and inpatient settings (Freitas et al. 2023).

This study aims to build on Chow et al. (2003) who completed a stratified analysis concerning ethnicity and likelihood of admission in low versus high-poverty areas. Dichotomising deprivation may make data analysis easier, but arguably oversimplifies its complexity (Kyzyma, 2020). Therefore, this study aims to operationalise area-level deprivation into quintiles according to the English Indices of Deprivation (Noble et al. 2019), to give a richer description of the relationship between ethnicity, area-level deprivation, and inpatient use in individuals with psychotic disorders.

The research questions are:

1. What is the relationship between ethnicity and inpatient use in people with SMI?
2. What is the relationship between area-level deprivation and inpatient use in people with SMI?
3. How do ethnicity and area-level deprivation impact on inpatient service use among people with SMI?

## **5.2 Methods**

### **5.2.1 Study design, setting and data source**

Using a cross-sectional design, this study used data from the fully de-identified

electronic health records of South London and Maudsley (SLaM) National Health Service Foundation Trust. SLaM is a large mental health trust, providing inpatient care for approximately 5,300 people each year across 52 inpatient wards (Care Quality Commission, 2023). SLaM covers four inner city areas of London; Croydon, Lambeth, Lewisham, and Southwark, with a substantially higher proportion of residents from ethnic minority backgrounds, compared to the average in England and varying degrees of deprivation (Perera et al., 2016) as shown in Table 1. Clinical records were accessed via the Clinical Record Interactive Search (CRIS) system (Stewart et al. 2009). Information in CRIS is documented in two forms i.e. structured fields (e.g. dates and demographics) and unstructured free-text fields (e.g. case notes and correspondence).

**Table 1**

*Comparing ethnicity and deprivation in SLaM areas with England. Data taken from English Census 2011.*

	Lambeth	Lewisham	Croydon	Southwark	England
<b>Ethnicity</b>					
White	55%	51.5%	48.4%	51.4%	81.0%
Mixed	8.1%	8.1%	7.6%	7.2%	3.0%
Asian	7.3%	9.0%	17.5%	9.9%	9.6%
Black	24%	26.8%	22.6%	25.1%	4.2%
Other	5.7%	4.7%	3.9%	6.3%	2.2%
<b>Deprivation</b>					
Unemployed	4.6%	4.9%	4.1%	4.6%	2.9%
Social renting	33.6%	29.2%	17.9%	39.7%	17.1%
No qualifications	13.1%	14.6%	16.1%	13.9%	18.1%

### **5.2.2 Ethical issues**

CRIS was granted ethical approval for secondary research by the South Central-Oxford C Research Ethics Committee (23/SC/257). Approval was also obtained from the service-user-led Oversight committee (CRIS Reference: 22-033). Patients are provided with information about the CRIS dataset, emphasising their right to withdraw. Access to and analysis of our data set was available remotely within the SLaM firewall using a secure virtual private network, with no unaggregated data exported outside of this.

### **5.2.3 Case Identification and inclusion criteria**

Information from structured fields was used to identify patients who met the following inclusion criteria: (a) aged 18-64 (inclusive), (b) had a recorded primary or secondary diagnosis of a psychotic disorder (ICD-10: F20-29) and (c) had a hospital admission to any adult inpatient services in SLaM during 2016-2019. This duration is in line with previous research using CRIS to investigate inpatient use and sociodemographic factors (Heslin et al. 2018), allowing for the identification of a sufficient sample size. This period was chosen as the most recent timeframe avoiding the COVID-19 pandemic, where there were changes in the use of admission (overall admissions declining and involuntary admissions increasing (Davies & Hogarth, 2021)).

### **5.2.4 Data extraction and collection**

#### **5.2.5 Sociodemographic data**

Socio-demographic data i.e., age, gender and ethnicity were initially extracted from CRIS structured fields, supplemented by a bespoke natural language-processing application using General Architecture for Text Engineering software (Cunningham, 2002). Data extraction was guided by an adapted Medical Research Council Socio-demographic schedule (MRC-SDS) (Mallet 1997).



### **5.2.6 Deprivation**

Deprivation was extracted from structured fields showing participants' first recorded postcode in the study period. Within CRIS individual patient residential postcodes are linked with area-level deprivation data using the 2019 English Indices of Deprivation (IMD) (Noble et al. 2019). This study utilised IMD decile scores as a measure of deprivation, collapsed into quintiles from one (most deprived) to five (least deprived) in line with Reichert and Jacobs (20118).

### **5.2.7 Ethnicity**

Ethnicity was self-ascribed by patients and recorded in structured fields. Where this was missing (n=343), the researcher manually ascribed ethnicity through the unstructured fields. This was done using a structured language query to identify and extract ethnicity-related data. Search terms were “Black”, “White”, “Mixed” and “Asian” to highlight where clinicians documented patients’ ethnicity in case notes. Ten per cent of cases where ethnicity was assigned from free text searches were checked by independently by SO, with an agreement rate of 91.43% (K=0.90). Ethnicity was coded according to the UK census ethnic classifications. These categories were collapsed into seven larger ethnic groups: white British, white non-British (white Irish, white Gypsy, white Other), black Caribbean, black African, black British, Asian (Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi), Mixed (all mixed ethnic groups) and Other (Arab, Chinese, any Other Ethnic group). This process considered guidelines by Ross (2020) and followed methods used by Oduola et al. (2021), determining the number and composition of ethnic groups based on sample size and descriptive statistics.

### **5.2.8 Inpatient use**

Longer length of stay (LOS) (Colasanti et al., 2010), compulsory admission (Gannon et al. 2023), PICU admission (Cullen et al. 2016), and use of seclusion (Chieze

et al. 2021) were used as indicators of symptom severity. Length of stay (LOS) was extracted as the number of days taken from the date of admission to the date of discharge, cumulative across all admissions in the period. Compulsory admission was coded as a binary variable. Yes, indicated any admission over the study period had involved the use of the MHA. PICU admission was a binary variable. Yes, indicated any admission over the study period was to a PICU. Use of seclusion was a binary variable. Yes, indicated seclusion occurred in any admission during the period. The number of admissions was totalled over the study period to give a single value and was chosen as a crude measure of relapse (Bhattacharyya et al., 2023). Admission to the Forensic Ward was coded as binary with Yes indicating any admission over the period was in a Forensic Ward. This was chosen as the needs of patients on Forensic wards differs from those on non-forensic wards. (Rogerson et al. 2021).

### **5.2.9 Statistical analysis**

Data were analysed using STATA version 15.1 (StataCorp, 2017). Descriptive statistics and regression analysis were used. The assumption of multi-collinearity was confirmed using VIF (1.03). Negative binomial regression models were used to overcome the over-dispersion of zero (Pearson goodness-of-fit  $X^2 = 1418377$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ). Given only 12.43% of the sample had experienced a PICU admission (see Appendix\_) we omitted this outcome variable from the stratified analysis to reduce the risk of type one errors. Benjamini and Hochberg's (1995) correction for False Discovery Rate was applied to control for multiple comparisons, however, as all  $p$ -values were still significant after this correction unadjusted  $p$ -values are reported.

#### ***5.2.9.1 What is the relationship between ethnicity and inpatient use in people with psychotic disorders?***

Separate regressions with ethnicity and each inpatient outcome, and repeated including a priori confounders (age, gender, and deprivation IMD). For categorical outcomes (compulsory admission and PICU admission) Logistic regression was used and Negative binomial regressions for count variables (LOS and number of admissions).

***5.2.9.2 What is the relationship between area-level deprivation and inpatient use in people with psychotic disorders?***

Separate regressions were then run for deprivation and each inpatient outcome, and repeated including a priori confounders (age, gender, and ethnicity), with logistic regressions for compulsory admission and PICU admission and Negative Binomial regressions for LOS and number of admissions<sup>1</sup>.

***5.2.9.2 How do ethnicity and area-level deprivation impact on inpatient service use among people with psychotic disorders?***

Data was stratified by area-level deprivation, with associations between ethnicity and compulsory admissions estimated within each stratum, with white British patients living in the same quintile as the comparison group. Separate regressions were run for ethnicity and each inpatient outcome and repeated adjusting for age and gender, with logistic regressions used for compulsory admission and PICU admission and Negative Binomial regressions for LOS and number of admissions.

## **5.3 Results**

### **5.3.1 Descriptive statistics**

In total 6767 eligible participants were identified, of these, 6,095 patients had complete data and were included in all analyses after demographic descriptive statistics. Table 2 shows the sample demographic and clinical characteristics stratified by IMD quintile. Appendix F shows these characterises stratified by ethnicity and Appendix G

for the whole sample. In summary, the mean age was similar across IMD quintiles, however older patients [Mean 38 (SD = 12.04) years] resided in the second most deprived area and younger [Mean 35 (SD = 12.61) years] patients were mostly represented in the least deprived areas. Across all IMD quintiles, the largest ethnic group was white British and made up the highest proportion in the least deprived quintile ( $n = 137$  (71.35%)). Black Caribbean and black British patients mostly resided in the two most deprived areas. Men were mostly represented in the three most deprived quintiles, whereas in the two least deprived quintiles most patients were female. Across all deprivation levels, a diagnosis of schizophrenia was common. There was a trend for the percentage of participants admitted to the PICU ward to decrease as deprivation decreased. This was similar but not as strong for admission to forensic wards and the use of seclusion. Use of the MHA appeared higher in quintiles one, two and five.

**Table 2**

*Demographic variables, stratified by deprivation.*

<i>N</i> (%)	1 Most deprived <i>n</i> =1,565	2 <i>n</i> =2,796	3 <i>n</i> =1,204	4 <i>n</i> =393	5 Least deprived <i>n</i> =196
<b>Ethnicity<sup>1</sup></b>					
White British	502 (32.24)	868(31.27)	512(43.17)	231(59.84)	137(71.35)
White non-British	146(9.38)	311(11.20)	113(9.53)	37(9.59)	8(4.17)
Mixed	55(3.53)	134(4.84)	47(3.93)	17(4.40)	5(2.60)
Asian	114(7.32)	184(6.63)	80(6.75)	28(7.25)	18(9.38)
Black African	150 (9.63)	260(9.37)	95(8.01)	14(3.63)	2(1.04)
Black Caribbean	232 (14.90)	412(14.84)	120(10.12)	24(6.22)	8(4.17)
Black British	304(19.52)	522(18.80)	185(15.60)	32(8.29)	11(5.73)
Other	54(3.47)	85(3.06)	34(2.87)	3(0.78)	3(1.56)
<b>Gender<sup>2</sup></b>					

Female	718 (45.88)	1,241 (44.40)	580 (48.21)	207 (52.67)	110 (56.12)
Male	847 (54.12)	1,554 (55.60)	623 (51.79)	186 (47.33)	86 (43.88)
<b>Age M(SD)</b>	37 (12.08)	38 (12.04)	37 (12.26)	36 (12.38)	35 (12.61)
<b>Primary Diagnosis</b>					
Substance- induced psychosis	2 (0.13)	10 (0.36)	4 (0.33)	1 (0.25)	8 (4.08)
Schizophrenia	398 (25.43)	677 (24.21)	266 (22.09)	49 (12.47)	1 (0.51)
Delusional disorder	26 (1.66)	43 (1.54)	14 (1.16)	4 (1.02)	6 (3.06)
Acute psychosis	52 (3.32)	138 (4.94)	50 (4.15)	14 (3.56)	6 (3.06)
Schizo-affective	148 (9.46)	236 (8.44)	88 (7.31)	21 (5.34)	8 (4.08)
Unspecified psychosis	204 (13.04)	339 (12.12)	140 (11.63)	36 (9.16)	11 (5.61)
other	15 (0.96)	18 (0.64)	11 (0.91)	6 (1.53)	2 (1.02)
Psychosis as secondary diagnosis	720 (46.01)	1,335 (47.75)	631 (52.41)	262 (66.67)	160 (81.63)
<b>Admission to PICU</b>					
No	1,361(86.9 6)	2,403(85.94)	1,065(88.460)	370(94.15)	191(97.45)
Yes	204(13.04)	393(14.06)	139(11.54)	23(5.85)	5(2.55)
<b>Admission to Forensic</b>					
No	1,529(97.7 0)	2,718(97.21)	1,171(97.26)	387 (98.47)	193(98.47)
Yes	36(2.30)	78(2.79)	33(2.74)	6 (1.530)	3(1.53)
<b>Use of MHA</b>					
No	446(28.50)	797(28.51)	425(35.30)	178(45.29)	168(27.45)
Yes	1,119(71.5 0)	1,999(71.49)	779(64.70)	215(54.71)	444(72.55)
<b>Number of Sections Mdn(IQR) Experienced Seclusion</b>	1 (0-3)	1(0-3)	1(0-2)	1(0-2)	0(0-1)

No	1,524(97.38)	2,711(96.96)	1,181(98.09)	389(98.98)	194(98.98)
Yes	41(2.62)	85(3.04)	23(1.91)	4(1.02)	2(1.02)
<b>LOS Mdn(IQR)</b>	38 (14-103)	40 (15-105)	40(13.5-105.5)	48(15-119)	66.5(24-129.5)
<b>No. admissions Mdn(IQR)</b>	2(1-3)	2(1-3)	1(1-2.5)	1(1-2)	1(1-2)
Missing records: <sup>1</sup> 69 participants, <sup>2</sup> 3 participants, IMD 613 participants					

### 5.3.2 Association between deprivation and inpatient use

Focusing on deprivation, we estimated the unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios for compulsory admission and then admission to a PICU ward (Table 3). Second, we estimated the unadjusted and adjusted incidence rate ratios for the LOS and number of admissions (Table 4). Quintile five was the comparator group.

#### 5.3.2.1. Compulsory admission

We found strong evidence that patients living in all other deprivation quintiles were at increased risk of compulsory admissions, however, this association was not maintained for patients living in deprivation quintile four after controlling for confounders (ethnicity, age and gender) as shown in Table 3.

#### 5.3.2.2 PICU admission

In both the unadjusted and adjusted model there was strong evidence that patients living in quintiles one, two and three were more likely to be admitted to a PICU as shown in Table 3.

#### 5.3.2.3 LOS

Patients living in all deprivation quintiles were more likely to have shorter LOS as shown in Table 4

#### 5.4.2.4 Number of admissions

There was strong evidence that patients living in the first four quintiles were more likely to have a higher number of admissions, even after controlling for cofounders as shown in Table 4.

**Table 3**

*Unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios of associations between deprivation and compulsory admission and admission to PICU.*

Deprivation quintile	Detained under MHA		PICU	
	Unadjusted ORR	Adjusted OR	Unadjusted OR	Adjusted OR
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
1 Most deprived	3.12(2.30-4.23) ***	1.20(1.45-2.75) ***	5.64(2.30-13.87) ***	3.78(1.52-9.45) **
2	3.15(2.34-4.23) ***	1.20(1.47-2.72) ***	6.13(2.51-15.01) ***	4.20(1.69-10.43) **
3	2.35(1.72-3.20) ***	1.72(1.25-2.37) **	4.92(1.99-12.19) **	3.73(1.49-9.36) **
4	1.47(1.05-2.10) *	1.32(.92-1.89)	2.37(.89-6.33)	2.17(.80-5.89)

\*<0.05, \*\*<0.01, \*\*\*<0.001    Comparison group = quintile 5    Model 2: adjusted for age, gender, ethnicity



**Table 4**

*Unadjusted and adjusted Incidence Rate Ratios of associations between deprivation and length of stay and number of admissions.*

Deprivation quintile	LOS		Number of admissions	
	Unadjusted IRR	Adjusted IRR	Unadjusted IRR	x
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	
1Most deprived	.75(.62-.90) **	.64(.53-.78) ***	1.59(1.38-1.83) ***	1.45(1.26-1.67) ***
2	.74(.62-.89) **	.62(.52-.74) ***	1.59(1.39-1.83) ***	1.46(1.27-1.67) ***
3	.70(.58-.85) ****	.62(.51-.75) ***	1.50 (1.30-1.73) ***	1.41(1.22-1.63) ***
4	.78(.63-.96) *	.75(.61-93)**	1.21(1.03-1.43) *	1.19(1.01-1.39) *

\*<0.05, \*\*<0.01, \*\*\*<0.001 Comparison group = quintile 5. Model 2: adjusted for age, gender, ethnicity

### **5.3.3 Association between ethnicity and inpatient use**

First, we estimated the unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios for compulsory admission and then admission to a PICU ward (Table 5). Second, we estimated the incidence rate ratios for the LOS and the number of admissions (Table 6). White British ethnicity was the comparator group.

#### ***5.3.3.1 Compulsory admission***

We found strong evidence that all minoritized ethnic groups were at increased risk of compulsory admissions, independent of co-founders as shown in Table 5.

#### ***5.3.3.2 PICU admission***

In the unadjusted odds ratio, all ethnic minority groups except ‘other’ ethnic group patients were more likely to be admitted to PICU. However, after controlling for cofounders, the strength of this association remained for black African, black Caribbean, black British and Mixed ethnic group patients only as shown in Table 6.

#### ***5.3.3.3 LOS***

In both the unadjusted and adjusted odds ratio black African, black Caribbean and black British patients were more likely to have a longer LOS. White non-British and patients from other ethnic groups had a shorter LOS.

#### ***5.3.3.4 Number of admissions***

Mixed ethnicity, black African, black Caribbean and black British patients were more likely to experience multiple admissions. However, we found evidence that patients from ‘Other’ ethnic groups were admitted less frequently.

**Table 5**

*Unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios of associations between ethnicity and compulsory admission and admission to PICU.*

Ethnicity	Detained under MHA		Admission to PICU	
	Unadjusted OR	Adjusted OR	Unadjusted OR	Adjusted OR
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
White non-British	1.92(1.59-2.32) ***	1.85(1.53-2.34) ***	1.51(1.08-2.01) *	1.32(.94-1.84)
Mixed	1.90(1.45-2.51) ***	1.90(1.44-2.51) ***	2.96(2.03-4.31) ***	2.48(1.69-3.65) ***
Asian	2.31(1.84-2.91) ***	2.29(1.82-2.89) ***	1.54(1.06-2.24) *	1.36(.93-2.00)
Black African	4.07(3.20-5.43) ***	3.61(2.83-4.60) ***	3.18(2.36-4.24) ***	3.18(2.37-4.29) ***
Black Caribbean	4.43(3.61-5.43) * **	4.18(3.40-5.15) ***	3.94(3.01-5.03) ***	3.53(2.75-4.5) ***
Black British	3.99(3.34-4.77) ***	3.78(3.15-4.53) ***	4.49(3.58-5.63) ***	3.68(2.92-4.64) ***
Other	1.61(1.17-2.21) **	1.54(1.17-2.12) **	.93(.48-1.79)	.74(.38-1.44)

\*<0.05, \*\*<0.01, \*\*\*<0.001. Comparison group = white British      Model 2: adjusted for age, gender, deprivation IMD

**Table 6**

*Unadjusted and adjusted Incidence Rate Ratios of associations between ethnicity and length of stay and number of admissions.*

Ethnicity	LOS		Number of admissions	
	Unadjusted IRR Model 1	Adjusted IRR Model 2	Unadjusted IRR Model 1	Adjusted IRR Model 2
White non-British	.813(.73-.91)***	.86(.77-.96)**	1.01(.93-1.04)	.97(.90-1.05)
Mixed	1.11(.95-1.30)	.115(.98-1.35)	1.223(1.11-1.37) ***	1.18(1.07-1.32) *
Asian	1.00(.88-1.14)	1.03(.91-1.17)	1.0(.92-1.09)	.98(.90-1.07)
Black African	1.61(1.43-1.81) ***	1.59(1.41-1.78) ***	1.30(1.21-1.41) ***	1.27(1.18-1.37) ***
Black Caribbean	1.27(1.12-1.39) ***	1.31(1.18-1.45) ***	1.35(1.27-1.45) ***	1.30(1.22-1.39) ***
Black British	1.329(1.21-1.45) ***	1.38(1.26-1.51) ***	1.44(1.36-1.53) ***	1.38(1.30-1.47) ***
Other	.579(.47-.69) ***	.62(.52-.75) ***	.89(.78-1.02)	.85(.74-.98) *

\*<0.05, \*\*<0.01, \*\*\*<0.001. Comparison group = white British. Model 2: adjusted for age, gender, deprivation IMD

### **5.3.4 Intersection between ethnicity, deprivation, and inpatient use**

Comparator group for all analyses was white British patients in the same quintile.

#### **5.3.4.1 Compulsory admission**

In quintile one white non-British Asian, and black (African, Caribbean, and British) patients were around 2-4 times more likely to be compulsorily admitted as shown in Figure 1 and Appendix H. In quintile two white non-British, Asians, patients with Other and Mixed ethnicities were around 1.5 more likely to experience compulsory admission, while black (African, Caribbean, and British) patients were 4 times. In quintile three white non-British, Asian, black (African, Caribbean, and British) and patients with Mixed ethnicity were between 2.6-3.7 times more likely to be compulsorily admitted. In quintile four white non-British, Asian, and black (African, Caribbean, and British) patients were between 3-5 times more likely. In quintile five black British and Asian patients were 3 to 6 more likely to be compulsorily admitted.

#### **5.3.4.2 LOS**

In quintile one LOS was around 1.5 times higher in black (African, Caribbean, and British) patients as shown in Figure 2. In quintile two LOS was between 1.3-1.5 times higher in black (African, Caribbean, and British) patients and was shorter in patients with Other ethnicities. In quintile three LOS for black (African, Caribbean, and British) patients was between 1.3-1.7 higher, with patients from Other ethnicities having a shorter LOS. No associations between ethnicity and LOS was found in deprivation quintiles four and five.

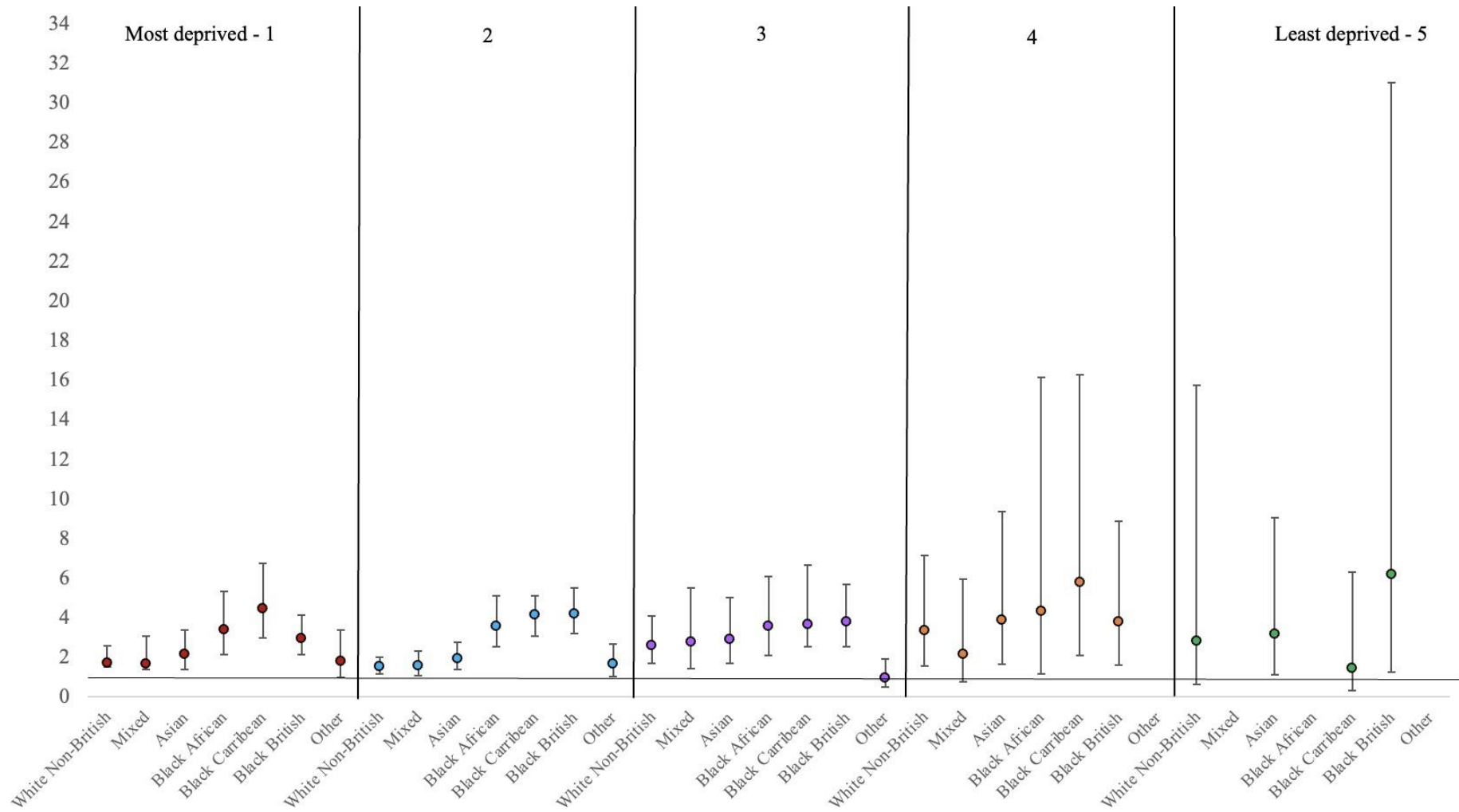
#### **5.3.4.3 Number of admissions**

In quintile one Black (African, Caribbean, and British) were between 1.2-1.4 times more likely to experience multiple admissions as shown in Figure 3. In quintile two Black (African, Caribbean, and British) and patients with Mixed ethnicity were between around 1.2 times more likely, with patients with Other ethnicities being admitted less frequently. In quintile three black (African, Caribbean, and British)

patients were around 1.3 times more likely to have multiple admissions. In quintile four black (African, Caribbean, and British) patients were between 1.5-1.8 times more likely. In quintile five black British patients were 2 times more likely to be admitted frequently, expect for shorter Los for Other ethnic group in quintile 4.

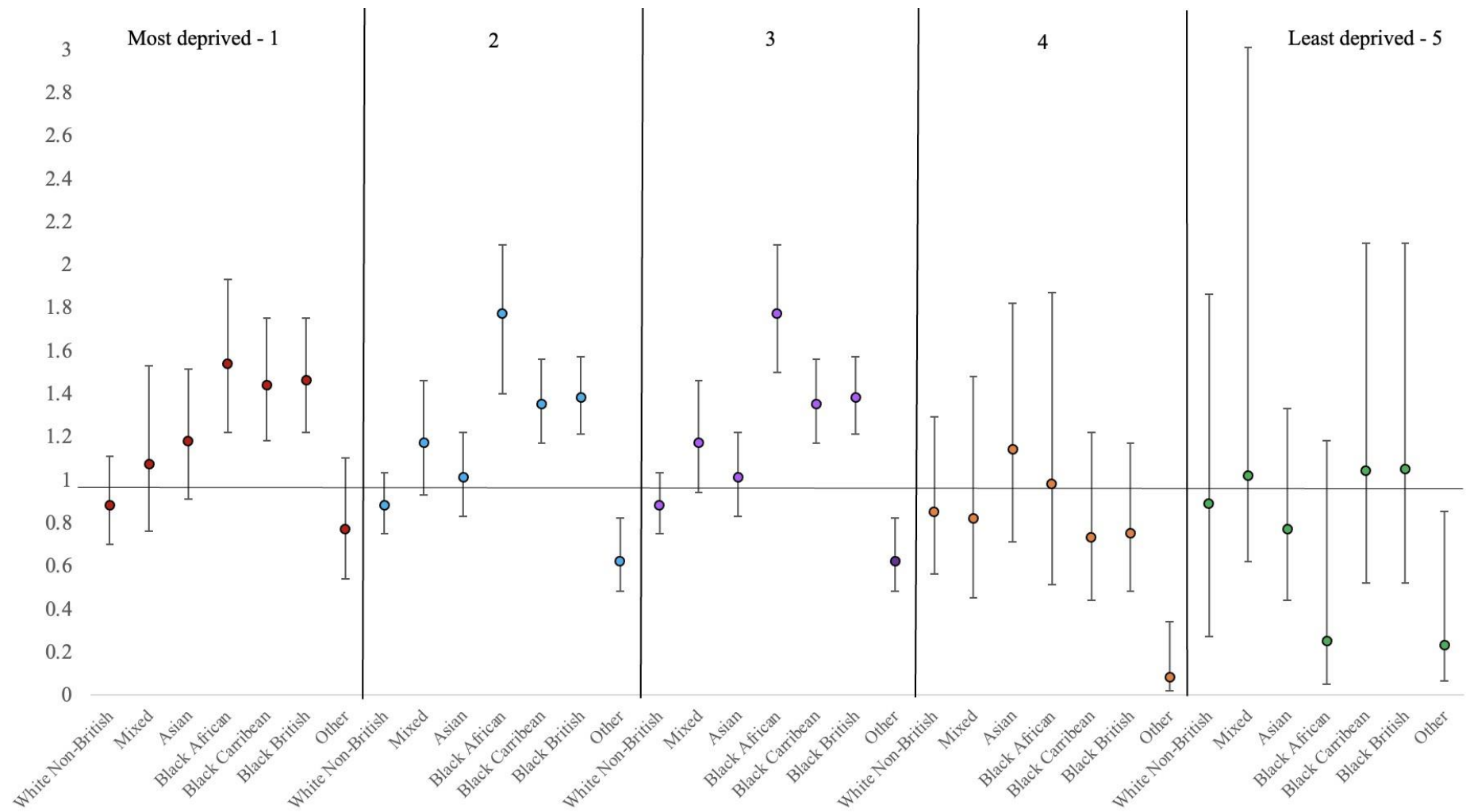
**Figure 1**

*Adjusted Odds ratio (OR) and their corresponding 95% confidence intervals (CI) from logistic regressions looking at the association between ethnicity and compulsory admission, stratified by deprivation.*



**Figure 2**

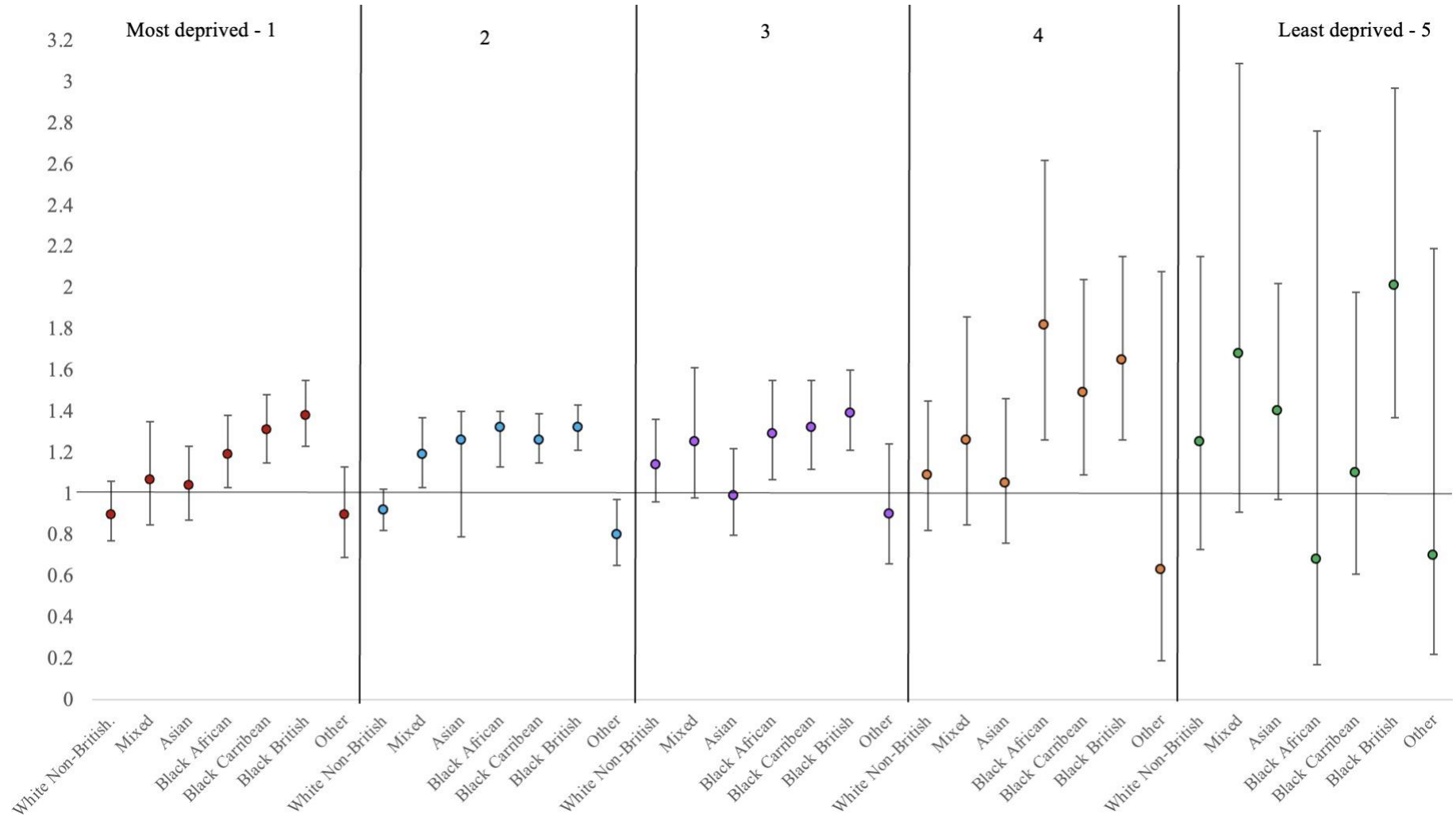
Adjusted incidence rate ratios (IRR) and their corresponding 95% confidence intervals (CI) from negative binomial regressions looking at the association between ethnicity and LOS, stratified by deprivation.





**Figure 3**

*Adjusted incidence rate ratios (IRR) and their corresponding 95% confidence intervals (CI) from negative binomial regressions looking at the association between ethnicity and number of admissions, stratified by deprivation.*



### **5.4.1 Main findings**

This study aimed to understand the relationship between ethnicity, deprivation, and inpatient use in adults with psychotic disorders. Patients living in more deprived areas (quintiles one, two and three) were more likely to experience all outcomes, except longer LOS, compared to patients living in quintile 5. Living in a less deprived area (quintile 4) reduced the risk of compulsory admission and admission to PICU. All ethnic minority groups were more likely to be compulsorily admitted. Black ethnic patients (African, Caribbean, and British) were also at increased risk of all other outcomes (PICU admission, longer LOS, and a higher number of admissions).

Living in the least deprived areas (quintile 5) did reduce the risk of compulsory admission for some ethnic minority groups, but not Asian or black British patients. However, the small sample and wide confidence intervals within this quintile limits the conclusions we can draw. Ethnic minority patients, except black British patients, from quintile five were no more likely to experience frequent readmission compared to white British patients. All ethnic minority patients from quintiles four and five had no longer LOS compared to white British patients.

### **5.3.3 Explaining the findings.**

Our findings highlight the protective nature of living in the least deprived areas for all outcomes except longer LOS. Our findings echo those of Hodgson et al. (2009), whereby patients living in less deprived areas were more likely to experience a longer LOS. This finding was surprising given the social causation hypothesis would assume residents of more deprived areas experience greater social stressors contributing to severe symptomatology requiring longer inpatient treatment (Colasanti et al. 2010). This finding could be associated with multiple reasons which require further investigation. Research in U.S has found patients with psychotic disorders who live in areas with the lowest household income have shorter

admissions compared to patients from higher-income areas (Bessaha et al. 2017). Within the NHS it has been found that patients from the three most deprived quintiles are more likely to self-discharge against medical advice, thus having a shorter LOS (Alagappan et al. 2023). While there are not treatment costs in the UK, residents from more deprived areas where household income is likely lower may worry about the indirect costs of inpatient care such as a reduction in earnings due to statutory sick pay, however this has yet to be investigated specially for patients with psychotic disorders in psychiatric wards. In our stratified analysis, we also found that the association between ethnicity and LOS was only evident in quintiles 1-3, however as it is likely at least some of the stratified analysis in these quintiles are likely underpowered future studies may wish to attempt to identify an even larger sample to increase our confidence in this finding.

We also found all ethnic minority groups were more likely to be compulsorily admitted versus white British patients. Interestingly, studies focusing on first-episode psychosis only did not find this in black Caribbean patients (Oduola et al., 2019, Mann et al. 2014). This difference may be because first-episode psychosis patients are unlikely to have been admitted before, whereas we found black Caribbean patients were at risk of frequent admissions. Our findings show compulsory admission is ubiquitous for all ethnic minority groups, suggesting these individuals are very unwell or are perceived to be a higher risk. The nature of compulsory admissions means individuals are treated against their will, sometimes requiring physical restraint (Paye-Gill et al. 2021). We found that patients from black (African, Caribbean, and British) and mixed ethnic groups were at increased risk of PICU admission, typically associated with symptom severity and greater use of manual restraint and seclusion (Bowers et al. 2012). These restrictions on freedom fuel the inherent power differences between service users and the mental health system (Lawrence et al. 2021). As such, patients who have had negative

inpatient experiences may be less likely to engage with mental health services (either in the community or hospital) increasing their risk of relapse and possibly compulsory admission, hence a vicious cycle emerges (Chakraborty et al. 2010).

A previous stratified analysis by Chow et al. (2003) found ethnic minority patients in living low-poverty areas of New York only, were more likely to be admitted compared to white patients. This contradicts our finding that the likelihood of compulsory admission was raised for some ethnic minority groups across all deprivation quintiles. This discrepancy could be explained by differences between American and UK healthcare systems in terms of cost of treatment. In America, ethnic minority patients and patients living in deprived areas are more likely to rely on Medicaid public health insurance, leaving them vulnerable to co-payments when admission is required (Magge et al. 2013). Patients are less likely to seek mental health treatment (such as inpatient admission) if their Medicare plan requires them to share more of the treatment cost (Trivedi et al. 2008). This could explain the contrasting findings as UK patients in deprived areas may not experience financial worries associated with admission to the same extent as treatment is free.

Strikingly, we found there were still disparities in compulsory admission for black British and Asian patients living in the least deprived areas (quintile five), though there is a need to interpret these findings cautiously. In our sample ethnic minority groups were less concentrated in quintile five, reflecting previous research (Tinsley & Jacobs, 2006). Ethnic density can be protective against compulsory admission for some ethnic minority groups (McBride et al., 2023), with experiences of racism lower in areas with high ethnic density (Astell-Burt et al. 2012). Racism can shape the schemas individuals have about themselves, the world, and others (Hardy, 2016). Individuals may develop a tendency to experience their physical and sociocultural environment as hostile, fuelling persecutory paranoid delusions (Lazaridou et al. 2023). Black ethnic groups can find access to treatment as

discriminatory and stigmatising, perhaps making them reluctant to voluntary admission when experiencing psychotic symptomatology (Henderson et al. 2013). This suggests that the protection living in the least deprived areas offers against compulsory admission fails to buffer the increased experiences of racism black British and Asian patients are likely to experience in these areas.

We did not find disparities in compulsory admission for white non-British patients in quintile five. The varying levels of racism different ethnic minority groups report experiencing could partially explain this. Individuals from black 'Other' ethnic groups have more frequently reported experiences of racism compared to most white non-British individuals (Finney et al., 2023). This links to a specific type of discrimination called Colourism, whereby those with lighter skin are privileged (Hunter, 2007). Colourism has been found to contribute to individuals with lighter skin having greater opportunities in areas like employment (Stockstill & Carson et al. 2021) and in the rental market (Brangian et al., 2023). This suggests that white non-British patients face fewer barriers in accessing the beneficial characteristics of least deprived areas, like increased employment opportunities, compared to black British patients. Therefore, white British residents could benefit more from the buffering effects living in the least deprived areas offers as they appear to experience less (though likely still some) social stressors relating to their skin colour.

#### **5.4.3 Strengths and limitations**

There are several methodological strengths in this study. First, the data source (CRIS) allowed access to a large diverse sample representative of the population of Southeast London which would have been inaccessible otherwise. This allowed us to disaggregate ethnicity according to the census categories. This also enabled us to stratify by more groups than in previous studies and maintaining statistical power in most analyses (Chow et al.

2003). Second, the use of text mining algorithms to capture ethnicity-related data from free-text fields allowed us to identify ethnicity for an additional 343 patients, who would have been excluded otherwise.

Despite our large sample size, fewer ethnic minority patients were living in the least deprived quintile. This could explain why in quintile five no patients in certain ethnic minority groups experienced compulsory admission or admission to a PICU and why there were larger confidence intervals in groups that did. It should be noted that data on CRIS is recorded by clinicians for clinical, not research purposes, therefore the availability and accuracy of information will depend on the questions asked by clinicians and the quality of their documentation. Given the cross-sectional nature of this study, we did not account for changes in address. Our study used patients' first address in the study period to calculate IMD, though it is likely some patients moved during this time possibly to other deprivation quintiles. This limits our ability to infer causality. Future studies will benefit from taking a longitudinal approach to provide temporal insight into when patients experience admission-related outcomes.

#### **5.4.4 Directions of future research**

This study can be considered London-centric, with a patient sample likely to be more diverse compared to other areas of the UK. Researchers should therefore seek anonymised datasets from NHS trusts in different parts of the country to see if findings would differ in less diverse areas. This may be particularly important given this study found disparities in compulsory admission for black British and Asian patients living in the least deprived areas (quintile five), with are also likely to have fewer ethnic minority residents (Tinsley & Jacobs, 2006).

This study also used operationalised area-level deprivation using the IMD (Noble et al. 2019), which is a measure of relative deprivation at a small local area level. While small-area measures are typically used in research, these can be subject to

ecological fallacy. For example, one might assume that if an area is deprived, all residents living in that area will be deprived or 'poor' themselves. It is likely that residents living in deprived areas who identify as deprived themselves may be affected more by the characteristics of their community compared with residents who identify as less deprived. For example, research has found that there can be differences between an individual's actual financial resources and an individual's concern about their relative deprivation (Kim et al. 2017). Residents who identify as less deprived may feel they have better access to resources which allows them to mitigate some of the characteristics of their community, such as having resources to travel to areas with more green space. Future research should therefore consider additional individual-level co-founders such as education level or employment status. Considering these may give a better understanding of the intricacies of the data.

#### **5.4.5 Implications of findings**

Our findings highlight the potential consequences of not addressing inequalities in the social determinants of health, leaving individuals from deprived areas and ethnic minoritized groups with psychotic disorders more vulnerable to compulsory inpatient admission. The introduction of Integrated Care Systems holds promise for greater collaboration between health services, local authorities, and voluntary third-sector partners (van der Feltz-Cornelis, et al. 2023). This study has implications for how these systems could target their attempts to reduce the inequalities we found. This approach will require policymakers and service providers to shift the focus away from individual-focused to evidence-based community-level interventions. Evidence suggests that community-based interventions, such as community support for parents (Day et al. 2022, Gray, 2003) and improved access to exercise facilities (Garner-Purkis et al. 2020, Rabiee et al. 2015), benefit common mental health outcomes in deprived areas and among ethnic minority groups. However, more evidence for these interventions is needed for individuals with psychotic disorders from these communities.

We found that in the least deprived areas, some ethnic minority residents are still at greater risk of admission. This supports recommendations by the Fair Society, Healthy Lives Review (Marmot, 2010) which emphasised that focusing solely on the most disadvantaged areas will not reduce health inequalities sufficiently. Instead, resources should be targeted with a scale and intensity proportionate to the level of disadvantage residents face (Marmot, 2010). For example, resources aimed at enhancing community cohesion and addressing experiences of racism may be most effectively targeted across the spectrum of deprivation. Additional resources aimed at addressing the characteristics of deprived areas, such as poor living conditions, may be best targeted at more deprived areas. It is hoped this approach will begin to reduce the increased risk of compulsory admission some ethnic minority patients with psychotic disorders face across the deprivation spectrum.

#### **5.4.6 Conclusion**

Pervasive inequalities in compulsory admission for psychosis exist for almost all minoritized ethnic groups and in the most deprived areas, though less frequently in the least deprived areas. However, black British patients in the least deprived areas were not protected from compulsory admission, or higher admission rates. Evidence-based community-level interventions to tackle health inequalities should be a priority for future research, policy makers and service providers.

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## **Chapter six- Discussion and Critical Evaluation**

This chapter provides a summary of both the systematic review and the empirical paper. It considers how these both contribute to our understanding of mental health outcomes across the continuum of reduced well-being and mental health difficulties (MHD), both common MHD and psychotic disorders, with a focus on community-based interventions and inpatient admissions in residents of deprived areas.

Implications for clinical practice, research and theory are considered such as the responsibility services, researchers and policy makers have to address these health inequalities by working at the community-level to target the stressors residents of deprived areas face. A review of the overall research's strengths and limitations are also provided.

### **6.1 Summary of findings**

The systematic review of the impact of community-based interventions on mental health outcomes in residents of deprived communities found 26 papers meeting the inclusion criteria, Interventions used measures of well-being, general mental health and common MHD, with none focusing on outcomes in residents with severe mental illnesses like psychotic disorders. Findings on the impact of community-based interventions were mixed

However narrative synthesis (taking a harvest plot approach) found promise for interventions which were skill-focused, were more focused in their delivery (e.g. has fewer components or where their components mapped more directly onto their outcome measures) and target (e.g. focusing on post-natal depression versus general mental health). There was a trend for residents to benefit most from these interventions when they were able to engage.

The empirical paper used anonymised electronic patient records from the South London and Maudsley NHS Foundation Trust (SLaM) Biomedical Research Centre (BRC) Clinical Records Interactive Search (CRIS) (Stewart et al., 2009) to

explore the relationship between ethnicity, deprivation, and inpatient-related outcomes. We identified a cohort of 6767 patients (6,095 with complete data) with a diagnosis of a psychotic disorder who were admitted to a psychiatric inpatient ward between the years 2016-2019 in South London. The results indicated that ethnic minority patients were largely over-represented in less deprived areas. Patients residing in more deprived areas (quantiles 1-3) had a higher likelihood of experiencing all negative outcomes, in comparison to those residing in the least deprived areas (quintile 5), except for longer length of stay (LOS). Living in a less deprived area (quintile 4) offers protection against the increased likelihood of compulsory admission and admission to PICU only. Patients from all ethnic minority groups were more likely to experience compulsory admission compared to white British patients, with patients from black ethnic (African, Caribbean, British) and mixed ethnicity groups also being more likely to be admitted to a Psychiatric Intensive Unit (PICU) and experience more frequent admissions. Black patients (African, Caribbean, British) were also more likely to experience a longer length of stay (LOS). Stratified analysis highlighted that living in the least deprived quintile (five) may offer protection against the increased likelihood of compulsory admission for some ethnic minority groups, but not for Asian or black British patients. Patients from all ethnic minority groups, except black British patients, who reside in the least deprived areas (quintile five) seem to be protected against increased risk of frequent readmissions compared to white British patients. However small sample sizes and large confidence intervals in this quintile limit the strength of conclusions we can draw. Also, ethnic minority patients living in less deprived areas (quintiles four and five) may have a lower likelihood of experiencing LOS.

Together, the findings of these studies provide evidence for the social determinants of mental health inequalities and highlight the importance of addressing the social stressors present in deprived areas. These social stressors can leave

residents more vulnerable to experiencing poor well-being (Bezzo et al. 2021), common MHD, (Remes et al. 2019) and psychotic disorders (O'Donoghue et al. 2016). The systematic review provided evidence for the benefit of addressing these social stressors through community-based interventions targeting general mental health or common MHD in deprived communities. In comparison the findings of the empirical paper highlight the potential consequences of not addressing these social stressors, leaving residents of deprived areas with psychotic disorders at increased risk of severe symptomatology and thus possible compulsory admission. Both chapters therefore provide further evidence of the social determinants of MHD. The systematic review also highlighted that some papers reporting on outcomes for community-based interventions in deprived areas fail to report other sociodemographic characteristics for these residents that may place them at greater risk of MHD, with around a quarter of papers failing to report ethnicity data. The empirical paper found that some ethnic minority patients seem to benefit from living in the least deprived areas, while others continue to face a higher risk of being compulsorily admitted for severe psychotic symptoms. This highlights that various aspects of an individual's identity can intersect playing a role in their increased vulnerability to severe psychotic symptoms that require inpatient treatment. This has implication for clinical practise, research and theory.

## **6.2 Implications**

### ***6.2.1 Clinical implications***

Findings from both the systematic review and empirical paper have implications for how the Integrated Care Systems could target their resources to improve mental health outcomes at the population level. Our systematic review highlights the types of community-based interventions which are likely to benefit residents of deprived areas. The systematic review found some promise for community-based interventions which focused on skills development, such as

exercise consultations (Daley et al. 2008, 2015) or parenting groups (Baruch et al. 2021, Day et al. 2022), which could be seen to develop a resident's sense of agency (Bernard et al., 2023). This may be particularly important for these residents who feel restricted in the amount of agency they have other elements of their lives (such as their living conditions) due to economic situations (Rikala, 2020). By providing residents with the necessary skills, these interventions could empower them to perform daily tasks and make decisions about their mental well-being (Drake et al., 2004).

However, our empirical paper shows that focusing solely on the most disadvantaged areas will not reduce health inequalities sufficiently. We found some ethnic minority patients (black British and Asian) living in the least deprived areas did not appear to benefit from the buffering effects of these areas, possibly due to the social stressors they experience relating to their ethnicity or skin-colour such as experiences of racism. This could provide support for a proportionate universalism approach, whereby resources are targeted with a scale and intensity proportionate to the level of disadvantage residents face to reduce inequalities in mental health (Marmot, 2020). For example, resources for improving community cohesion and addressing racism should be targeted across different levels of deprivation, with additional resources for tackling social stressors in deprived areas like poor living conditions, should be focused on the most deprived areas.

This portfolio also highlights the importance of services addressing barriers to engagement in community-based interventions for residents of deprived areas and ethnic minority patients. In our empirical paper, residents of all deprivation quintiles (except the least deprived) and ethnic minority patients were more likely to be compulsorily admitted, suggesting they are perhaps more reluctant to voluntary admission or even other offers of interventions in the community. This could be due to several reasons including ethnic minority groups finding access to treatment as

discriminatory and stigmatising (Henderson et al. 2015) or residents of deprived areas feeling like they do not have enough time to engage in these interventions (Wiggin et al., 2004). The systematic review found a trend for residents of deprived areas to benefit most when they could engage in the community-based intervention offered such as when individuals swapped their shopping to the newly built large food store (Cummins et al, 2005). Based on this finding services should consider working with individuals from these communities to further understand the barriers to treatment engagement and to think about how they can make community-based interventions more accessible to residents of deprived areas. They may also benefit from including the communities they are targeting in the design and implementation of any intervention as previous research has highlighted that this is key to their success (Blakeley et al. 2008).

Services wishing to implement this should be aware of the potential reasons why deprived neighbourhoods may be reluctant to join community-engagement projects such as the drain this can place on resident's time and finances and disappointment with outcomes from previous engagement projects (Atree et al. 2010). Therefore community-engagement should be done in a genuine way that values the views of the community to develop their sense of agency and ownership.

Within the healthcare sector, the findings indicate a need to implement incentives for clinicians to ask and accurately record socio-demographic information for patients, particularly characteristics identified as placing individuals at greater risk of MHD. Following the introduction of incentives for recording patients' ethnicity in 2006 there was an increase in the number of records with this documented, however many other sociodemographic characteristics such as religion or immigration status are still poorly recorded today (Jain et al., 2017). Ethnic minority patients are likely to be immigrants themselves or have experiences of migration in their family history (Wiley et al. 2008). First and second- generation



immigrant status have been associated with an increased risk of psychotic disorders like schizophrenia (Tarricone et al. 2021). Having accurate records of patients' ethnicity, addresses (to determine the deprivation level of the area they live in), and other potential socio-demographic characteristics will help services identify who may be at more risk of developing severe psychotic symptoms which may require inpatient treatment.

Services may then be able to link these patients with voluntary or third sector organisations that may support the patient to navigate some of the potential social stressors they face that could be impacting on their mental health, perhaps alongside the services own offer.

Incentives for clinicians may include making it easier for this information to be documented using structured fields, the use of reminders for completion, setting targets for completion rates with financial incentives and providing additional funding to educate clinicians about the social determinants of health to highlight the importance of recording this data.

### **6.2.2 Research**

The systematic review highlighted the variety of definitions used to define a deprived area in the current literature. We chose to focus on high-income countries in the hope to reduce the variability in definitions of deprived areas, as deprived areas in low- or middle-income countries are likely to see very different. In the review, some studies used classification tools such as the English Indices of Multiple Deprivation (IMD) (Noble et al. 2019) and others compared characteristics of the area to the entire country or a less deprived area. Moreover, 15 papers in this review were excluded for not providing details of how they operationalised the deprived area their sample was from. The empirical paper used IMD quintiles to classify deprivation, with quintile one representing the 20% most deprived areas in England and quintile five the 20% least deprived. In the systematic review, papers which used IMD to define deprived

areas used different cut-offs, with some reporting findings in the 10% most deprived areas and others the 20 or 30% most deprived. This highlights the importance of researchers clearly describing how they operationalise an area as deprived so researchers can better understand the potential external validity of the research they are reading. While achieving a global consensus on how to define a deprived area would be unexpected, within single countries future research may wish to focus on understanding the common features used to define a deprived area by other research, services and government. Without a clearer consensus on how to define or identify deprived areas in research, it can be difficult to make comparisons across studies. Moreover, if services conceptualise deprivation differently from the evidence base then interventions or policy may be ineffective as they are then based on research completed in groups that differ from those the service wishes to target.

In line with the current evidence base both the systematic review and empirical paper operationalised deprivation at the small area-level. For example, the empirical paper used the IMD measure (Noble 2029). This approach can be praised for considering multiple domains of deprivation beyond income and for not reducing deprivation to a binary (e.g. deprived or not deprived). However, there is a risk that conclusions drawn at the area level will be generalised to all residents living in that area, including those who do not identify as deprived themselves. While ecological fallacy is difficult to overcome, it is important future research attempts to address this. Research may benefit from trying suggested methods like supplementing ecological data with a sample of individual-level case-control data (Haneuse & Wakefield, 2008) to reduce this bias.

Qualitative approaches to research may provide us with a rich understanding of the social stressors which can make residents of deprived areas and ethnic minority patients more likely to experience MHD. For example, previous qualitative studies found that while black African and Caribbean patients with psychotic disorders are less

likely to ascribe perceived discrimination to their MHD, compared to white non-British patients (Chakraborty et al. 2009). Qualitative approaches may also help us to understand residents of deprived areas experience of community-based interventions. For example, in depth semi-structured interviews have found residents of deprived areas may disengage from community- engagement projects due to distrust of those running the projects (Romeo-Velilla et al. 2018). This could provide greater insight into the potential barriers to engagement and what elements of these interventions contribute to their possible success.

### **6.2.3 Theory**

This portfolio has theoretical implications for our understanding of MHD aetiology, providing evidence for social determinant models of MHD. In this thesis, we conceptualised residents' vulnerability to MHD and inpatient admission through the Social Causation hypothesis (Johnson et al., 1999). Our findings support this highlighting that residents of all deprivation quintiles are more vulnerable to compulsory admission and admission to PICU compared to residents of the least deprived quintiles, which we used as a measure of symptom severity. Several potential mechanisms have been identified in the causal pathway between characteristics of deprived communities and MHD (both common MHD and psychotic). Living in deprived areas can shape the schemas residents have about themselves (as a failure), others (as being better than them) and the world (as being unfair) which can make residents more vulnerable to common MHD like depression (Remes et al. 2019). Residents of deprived areas experience exposure to crime (Bebbington et al. 2004), long-term unemployment (Cotter et al. 2017) and poor living conditions such as overcrowded housing (Sideli et al. 2020) which have all been associated with psychotic symptoms. The systematic review highlighted the benefit of addressing the

social stressors present in deprived communities through community-based interventions in terms of mental health outcomes in deprived communities. This can be seen to provide further support for the Social Causation theory.

Another theory which considers the social determinants of health is the Social Stress Theory (Aneshensel, 1992). The Social Stress Theory argues that an individual's social location, such as their ethnicity and their neighbourhood's deprivation level affects how they perceive, experience, and respond to stress. Ethnic minority group patients living in more deprived areas are thought to experience a combination of stressors relating to the different parts of their identity such as discrimination (Pearce et al. 2019) and poor living conditions (Karlsen et al. 2002). This theory may suggest that ethnic minority patients residing in less deprived areas are less likely to experience severe MHD, as the benefits of living in these areas could help mitigate the effects of social stressors related to ethnicity. Our findings partially support this theory for some ethnic minority groups. We found white non-British patients living in the least deprived quintile were no more likely to be compulsorily admitted compared to white British patients living in the same quintile, however black British patients in the least deprived areas were more likely to be compulsorily admitted. We made sense of these findings by considering the impact of ethnic density and colourism, whereby black British patients may face greater barriers in accessing the greater opportunities less deprived areas provide due to the colour of their skin.

### **6.3 Strengths and limitations**

A key strength of this portfolio is its contributions to the current evidence base on the social determinants of MHD, by advancing our understanding of mental health outcomes in deprived communities concerning community-based interventions and psychiatric inpatient admissions in individuals with psychotic disorders.

To the author's knowledge, the systematic review was the first to synthesise findings from a large range of community-based interventions on well-being and

mental health outcomes in deprived areas. This review was comprehensive involving narrative synthesis and meta-analysis across a wide range of interventions spanning seven categories. Previous have only focused on co-location interventions situated in primary care (Tanner et al., 2023). This review included 26 papers from across high-income countries, suggesting we were able to uncover most available papers relating to our research question. However, we know that many community-based interventions are run by third-sector organisations which often have little funding or resources to evaluate their interventions and can receive time-limited funding, meaning there is uncertainty if their interventions will be funded in the long term (Duncan et al, 2021). This means despite the comprehensive nature of this review, there could be other community-based interventions being delivered in deprived communities, perhaps even those targeted at individuals from deprived areas with severe mental illnesses such as psychotic disorders.

While not the first paper to explore the intersection between deprivation, ethnicity and inpatient use the empirical paper was able to advance our understanding of this intersection by stratifying deprivation and ethnicity into more groups compared to previous research. This was enabled by using anonymised electronic health via the South London and Maudsley Clinical Record Interactive Search, whereby we were able to identify a large diverse sample of 6767 patients (6,095 with complete data with complete data). The use of structured language query allowed us to identify and extract ethnicity-related data for 343 patients from clinical notes allowing us to maintain this large sample size. Previous research categorized deprived individuals into low and high-poverty groups (Chow et al. 2003), which can be problematic as it fails to capture their complexity (Kzyna, 2020). It is hoped that by stratifying by more groups we have developed a more nuanced and richer understanding of the relationship between ethnicity, deprivation, and inpatient use while minimising the risks associated with dichotomisation. These include increased risk of type one errors

(Altman & Royston, 2006) and the risk of categorising individuals on either side of the deprivation cut- as being excessively different when they are likely to be more similar.

Despite the large overall sample size, as consistent with existing literature ethnic minority groups were less represented in the least deprived areas (quintile five) (Tinsley & Jacobs, 2006). This meant that in our stratified analysis for some outcomes, odds ratios could not be calculated due to a lack of data. This was particularly true for binary variables (compulsory admission and PICU admission). Moreover, for analysis where odds ratios were calculated larger confidence intervals were present in quintile five. Although we found strong associations between black British and Asian ethnicity and compulsory admission in this quintile, the wide confidence intervals suggest that these findings should be interpreted with caution.

## **6.5 Philosophical standpoint**

This thesis was guided by positivist principles, aligned with the hypothetico-deductive model whereby hypotheses are generated from a theory and are then tested to see if they are correct. This assumes that a single tangible reality exists that I as the researcher can identify and measure (Park et al. 2020).

## **6.6 Dissemination**

The findings of the systematic review are due to be presented at 2024 Congress of the Schizophrenia International Research Society. Both papers aim to be submitted for publication to journals.

## **6.7 Conclusions**

In conclusion, this thesis contributes to our understanding of mental health outcomes across the continuum of reduced well-being and mental health difficulties (MHD), both common MHD and psychotic disorders, with a focus on community-based interventions and inpatient admissions in residents of deprived areas. It highlights the benefits of addressing social stressors for residents of deprived areas

through community-based interventions, which have a focus on skill development and are more focused in their delivery and target audience. The empirical paper highlights the potential consequences of failing to address these social stressors by highlighting the inequalities residents of deprived areas and ethnic minority patients experience in relation to a range of inpatient outcomes (compulsory admission, LOS, number of admissions and PICU admission). Most importantly this thesis highlighted the importance of considering intersectionality by considering the relationship between ethnicity, deprivation, and inpatient admissions. We found that for black (African, Caribbean and British) ethnic minorities disparities relating to inpatient use were seen across most of the deprivation spectrum, except the least deprived areas, where only black British and Asian ethnic minority groups were at greater risk of compulsory admission. This thesis portfolio has implications for the design, delivery and evaluation of mental health interventions targeting residents of deprived communities, highlighting the importance of addressing the social stressors residents face at the community-level to minimise risk of increased symptom severity and thus inpatient admission.

## Chapter seven - References for additional chapters

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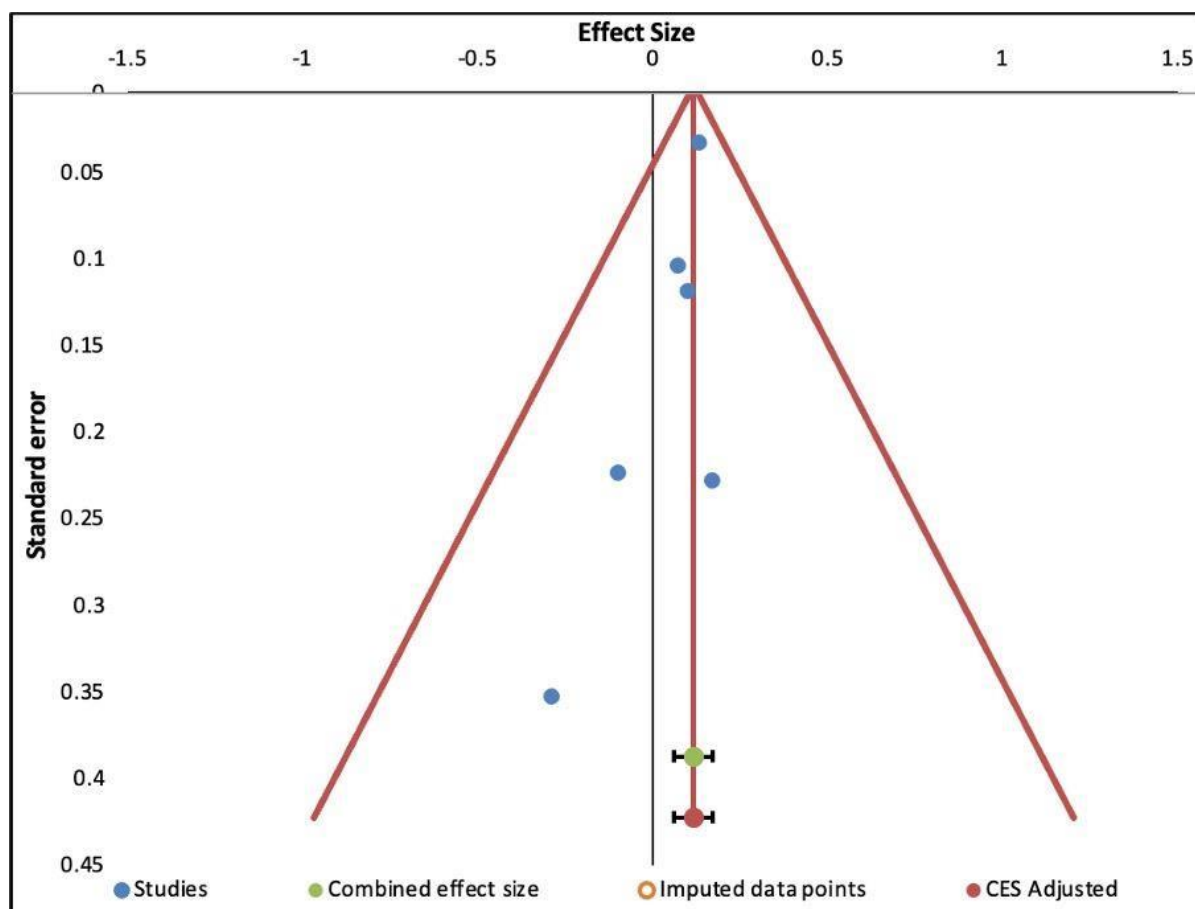
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## Appendix A

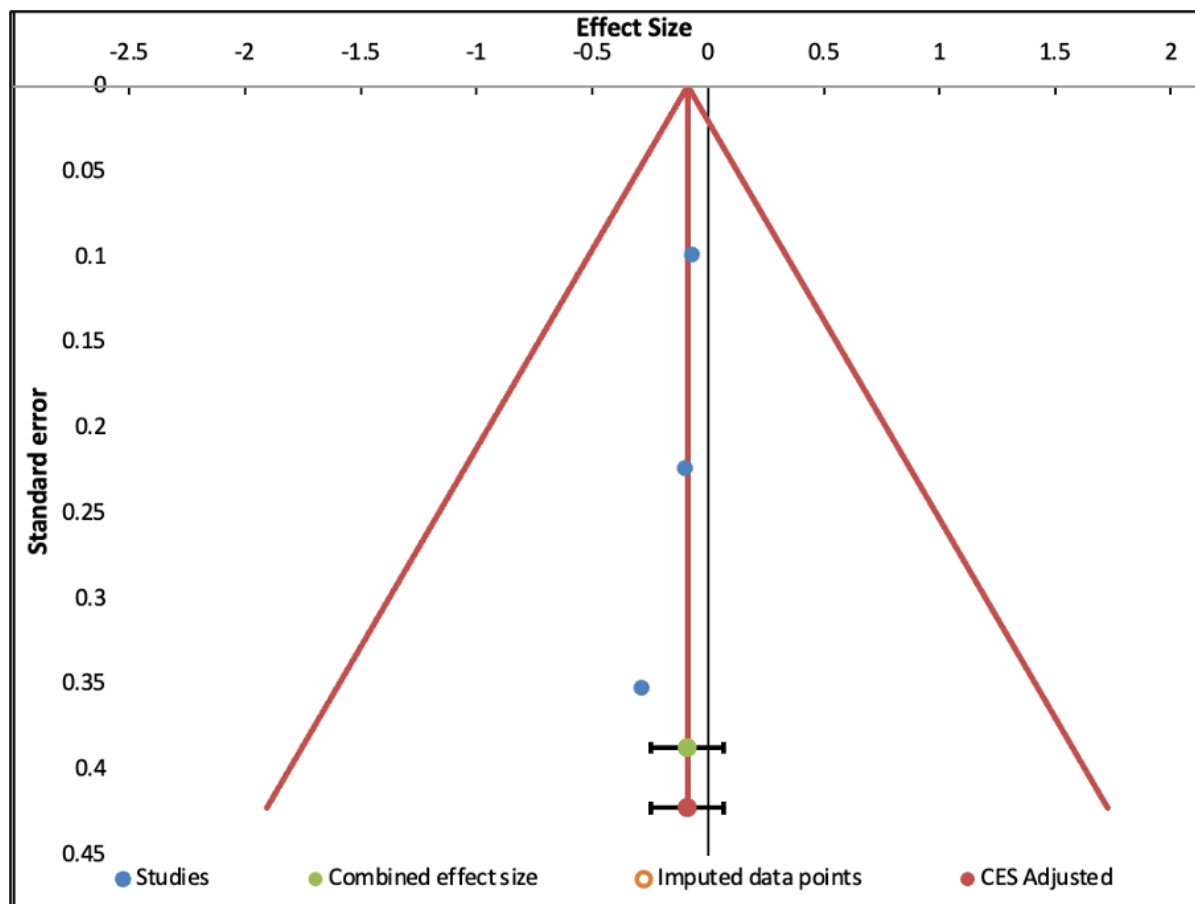
**Funnel plot for publication bias for meta-analysis of all mental health outcomes at last  
or only follow-up**





## Appendix B

**Funnel plot for publication bias for meta-analysis of studies which used EPDS.**



## Appendix C

### Additional findings to support narrative synthesis.

	Effect on mental health	SMD (95% CI) at first or only follow up	Standardised mean (95% CI) at last follow up	Odds ratio of having poor mental health) at last or only follow-up
<b>Green Space</b>				
Chalmin-Pui et al. 2021	Wellbeing scores increased post-intervention, $t(27) = 0.256$ , $p = 0.7999$ . Estimated MD = 0.146.			
Thompson et al. 2019	A similar pattern of decrease in well-being scores over time in intervention and in the control. Cross-sectional intervention group, $\beta = -0.57$ , 95% CI [-1.10 to -0.03], $p < 0.05$ and longitudinal intervention group, $\beta = -1.65$ , 95% CI [-2.73 to -0.57], $p < 0.01$ .			
Gubbles et al. 2016	Green interventions were associated with increases in depression scores in both adults, $\beta = 0.10$ , $p > 0.05$ , and Adolescents, $\beta = 0.05$ , $p > 0.05$ .			
<b>Exercise</b>				

Daley et al. 2015	At 6 months 46.5% of the intervention group were considered 'recovered' from depression compared with the 23.8% group receiving usual care, $p=0.03$ . At 12 months, 51.2% of the intervention group had recovered, compared with 36.8% of the comparator group, $p > 0.05$ . At 6 months difference in adjusted difference scores was $-2.04$ , 95% CI $[-4.11$ to $0.03]$ , $p=0.053$ and at 12 months. $-2.04$ ( $-4.11$ to $0.03$ ), $p = 0.40$ .	-0.41 (0.22 to -0.83) EPDS	-0.10 (-0.54 to 0.34) EPDS	0.5401 (0.23 to 1.27)
Daley et al. 2008	EPDS scores exercise group baseline, $M = 17.7$ , $SD = 5.2$ , follow-up, $M = 13.1$ , $SD = 5.2$ . Usual care group baseline., $M = 19.2$ , $SD = 4.7$ , follow-up, $M = 24.3$ , $SD = 5.4$ . The difference at follow-up favoured the intervention group $MD= 1.2$ , 95% CI $[-5.2$ to $2.8]$ , $p > 0.05$ .	-0.29 1.00- 0.41) EPDS		
<b>Food security</b>				
Cummins et al. 2005	Intervention group prevalence of poor psychological health baseline was 38.6%, and at follow-up 26.5%, representing a change of $-12.13\%$ , $p = 0.017$ . For poor psychological health there was a protective effect of switching to the new store after adjustment, $OR = 0.24$ , 95% CI $[0.09$ to $0.66]$ .			0.57 (0.29 to 1.11).
<b>Peer mentoring</b>				
Cupples et al. 2010	SF-36 mental health scores intervention group, $M = 70.3$ , $SD = 17.7$ , Control group, $M = 72.1$ , $SD = 19.6$ . The difference favoured control group, $MD = -1.8$ , 95 CI $[-6.1$ to $2.6]$ , $p = 0.43$	0.10 (0.14 to 0.33) SF-36		
Slade et al. 2021	No significant interaction between study condition and time point on wellbeing scores, $F(1.67,71.68) = 0.08$ , $p = 0.89$ , depression scores, $F(2,82) = 0.426$ , $p = 0.655$ , or anxiety scores, $F(1.67,70.06) = 0.89$ , $p = 0.399$ . There was no significant difference in wellbeing,	Depression 0.17 (-0.28 to 0.615) HADS		

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$F(1,43) = 2.67, p = 0.11$ , depression,  $F(1,41) = 1.54, p = 0.221$  or anxiety scores,  $F(1,42) = 3.99, p = 0.052$  between intervention and control group participants.

Anxiety  
0.27 (-18 to  
0.72)  
HADS

Wellbeing  
0.14 (0.39  
to 0.59)  
WEMBS

Day et al.  
2022  
Parents' wellbeing improved following the course Time 1  $M = 20.5, SD = 3.5$ , Time 2  $M = 22.8, SD = 3.8, t(347) = -11.0, p < 0.001, d = 0.6$

**Signposting/  
information**

Mercer 2019  
Small difference between intervention and control in terms of anxiety (favouring the intervention),  $MD = -0.41$  95% CI [-0.99 to 0.18]. Small difference in terms of depression (favouring the control),  $MD = 0.09$  95% CI = 0.49 to 0.68. Patients who consulted with a Practitioner 3+ times had anxiety  $MD = -1.380$  95% CI [-2.339 to -0.421],  $p = .005$ , and depression  $MD = -1.280$ , 95% CI [-2.209 to -0.352],  $p = .007$ .

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Wiggins et al. 2004	At 12 months the intervention group had lower depression mean compared to the control , <i>MD</i> = -0.48, 95% CI [-1.59 to 0.61]. At 18 months the intervention group had higher depression mean compared to the control, <i>MD</i> = 0.38, 95% CI [-0.87 to 1.61) .	-0.07 (-0.33 to 0.18) EPDS	0.07 (CI - 0.14- 0.27) GHQ12	1.06 (0.67 to 1.51)
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### Training

Baruch et al.  
2021

There was a decreases post-treatment in internalising problems,  $t(122) = 6.8, p < .00.5$ .  
54.5% of all young people reported a reliable improvement in internalising scores.

### Community

#### Engagement

Eden &  
Lowndes 2013

Pre-intervention well-being score,  $M = 14.85, SD = 5.9$ , with a transformed percentage of  
57.5%. Post intervention well-being score  $M = 17.7$ , representing an increase of 23%. Over  
65% of participants with increased well-being reported a difference in scores of 10% or more  
at follow up, which is considered a significant change.

Phillips et al. 2014	Intervention group post GHQ12, $M = 0.7, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.5 \text{ to } 0.8]$ . Control group $M = 0.7, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.6 \text{ to } 0.8]$ . Mean difference favoured control, adjusted $MD = -0.001, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.15 \text{ to } 0.12], p = 0.4$ . No indication of differential effects in subgroups defined by age, gender, ethnicity, educational attainment, or employment status.	0.13 (-0.20 to -0.07) WEMBS	1.19 (0.9207 to 1.5423)
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Frostick et al. 2017 Intervention group SDQ,  $M = 12.17$ , 95% CI [12.07 to 12.27]. Control group  $M=12.20$ , 95% CI [12.04 to 12.37]. Mean difference favoured Adjusted  $MD = 0.03$ ,  $SE = 0.09$ ,  $p = 0.69$ . No indication of differential effects in subgroups defined by age, gender, ethnicity, educational attainment, or employment status. -0.01(-0.12 to 0.11) SDQ

### Regeneration

Dunn et al. 2023 Royston vs control difference in difference =  $-.16$  ( $-.60, .28$ ),  $p = .56$  Keith vs control difference in difference =  $-.24$  ( $-.68, .20$ ),  $p = .47$  McQueen vs control difference in difference =  $-.38$  ( $-.80, .04$ ),  $p = .26$  Rolston vs control difference in difference =  $-.46$  ( $-.86, -.06$ ),  $p = .12$  Stinson vs control difference in difference =  $-.26$  ( $-.72, .19$ ),  $p = .47$  Stiplely vs control difference in difference =  $-.08$  ( $-.35, .50$ ),  $p = .78$

Jalaudin et al. 2012 Fewer households reported 'high/very high' psychological distress pre=41%, post=26%,  $p=0.39$ .

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Ruijsbroek et al. 2022	Percentage of people with fairly good or good mental health, intervention group pre-intervention = 80.9%, late-intervention = 81.2%, $p = 0.95$ . Comparator group, pre = 83.5%, late = 89.7%, $p = 0.17$ . Difference in difference = -5.9, 95% CI [-18.8;6.9], $p=0.37$ , appeared to favour the control group.	1.99 (1.3524 to 2.9177)
Stafford et al. 2008	New Deal for Communities intervention area mean change, MD = 0.52, SE = 0.31. Comparator area mean change, MD = 1.08, SE = 10.3. The difference between the improvements in these two areas was $p > 0.05$ .	
Mohan, Longo & Kee 2017	The adjusted difference in the difference between intervention and control pre-launch and post-launch of regeneration on mental distress appeared to favour the intervention group. Difference in difference = 0.03, 95% CI [-0.42 to 0.48], $p= ns$ .	
<b>Walthery et al. 2014</b>	The overall change in mental health between 2002 and 2008 was 0.07 SDs (95% CI -0.18 to 0.32). The slope coefficient of the mental health outcome was not statistically significant, indicating no overall change between 2002 and 2008 among residents of NDC areas. Similarly, the slope regression coefficient indicated no change over time in comparator areas. However, we found a weakly significant gap in mental health between high and low socioeconomic status individuals in comparator areas which widened over time to a greater extent than in NDC areas.	

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Jongeneel- Grimen et al. 2016	The difference between the relatively stable trend in the deprived target districts and the negative trend in the control districts was not statistically significant (eg, $\Delta$ slope 0.06 (-0.08 to 0.20) ‘broad definition’ group. A similar pattern was found for the comparison group ‘rest of the Netherlands’. Residents of the intense intervention areas reported a sharp decrease in the prevalence of fair or good mental health in the preintervention period, followed by an improvement in the intervention period. The trend change was more positive than in comparably deprived areas (( $\Delta$ slope 0.19 (0.01 to 0.38) ‘broad definition’)) and the rest of the Netherlands ( $\Delta$ slope 0.18 (0.01 to 0.36)). In contrast, in the 17 ‘low intensity’ target districts, the prevalence of fair or good mental health declined in the intervention period (from 80.5% to 76.9%).	0.065 (0.9894 to 1.2788)
Stafford et al. 2014	Small improvements in mental wellbeing was seen in intervention NDC areas but similar improvements were also seen in comparator areas. NDC MD(SE) = 0.52(0.31), Comparator MD(SE)= 1.08 (1.03), $p= ns$ .	1.27 (1.0931 to 1.46830)
Ruijsbroek et al. 2017	Changes in fair/good mental health from pre-intervention to the intervention period were about equally large in the target and control districts and the DiD impact estimates were inconsistent and non-significant, though appeared to favour the intervention group DID 0.7 (CI-5.3;6.7) $p= 0.8$ . For female residents, a tendency to more favourable changes in mental health between the pre-intervention and intervention period in the target districts compared with the control areas was found, which was not found among men. Female: Did -2.3 (-9.8;5.2) $p=0.55$ . Male Did 3.4 (-5.7;12.4) $p=0.4$ . No significant effects of the regeneration	

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	programme (compared to control areas) in either high intensity or low intensity areas (though DID favoured both intervention areas).	
Timmermans 2016	Intervention pre/post anxiety $MD = -0.4$ , depression $MD = -0.8$ . Control areas pre/post anxiety $MD = 0.00$ , depression $MD = 0.6$ . The difference in difference between intervention and control pre-launch and post-launch of regeneration on anxiety was $-0.5$ , 95% CI $[-1.5-0.6]$ , $p = 0.38$ and on depression was $-1.4$ , 95% CI $[-3.7-0.8]$ , $p = 0.38$ . The DiD for higher intensity districts versus control favoured and low-intensity districts versus control are favoured the intervention area for anxiety and depression, except depression in low-intensity areas.	Anxiety 0.03 (-0.29 to 0.22) HADS  Depression 0.07 (0.13 to -0.33) HADS
White 2016	Regeneration was associated with an improvement in the mental health of residents in intervention areas compared with control neighbourhoods, $\beta = 1.54$ , 95% CI $[0.50, 2.59]$ . Intervention areas pre $M = 22.3$ , $SD = 66.6$ , post $M = 19.9$ , $SD = 66.3$ , $MD = -0.4$ . Control areas pre $M = 20.8$ , $SD = 71.0$ , post $M = 18.3$ , $SD = 70.8$ , $MD = -0.2$ .	-0.023 (- 0.062 to 0.02)

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## Appendix D

### Journal for systematic review (health and place)

#### Introduction

The journal is an interdisciplinary journal dedicated to the study of all aspects of health and health care in which place or location matters.

Recent years have seen closer links evolving between medical geography, medical sociology, health policy, public health and epidemiology. The journal reflects these convergences, which emphasise differences in health and health care between places, the experience of health and care in specific places, the development of health care for places, and the methodologies and theories underpinning the study of these issues.

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## Appendix E

Demographic data from empirical paper stratified by ethnicity

<i>N</i> (%)	White British <i>n</i> =1,565	White Non- British <i>n</i> =2,796	Mixed <i>n</i> =1,204	Asian <i>n</i> =393	Black African <i>n</i> =196	Black Caribbean	Black British	Other
<b>Deprivation<sup>1</sup></b>								
1	502(22.31)	146(23.74)	55(21.32)	114(26.89)	150(28.79)	232(29.15)	304(28.84)	54(30.17)
2	868(38.58)	311(50.57)	134(51.94)	184(43.40)	260(49.90)	412(51.76)	522(49.53)	85(47.49)
3	512(22.76)	113(18.37)	47(18.22)	80(18.87)	95(18.23)	120(15.08)	185(17.55)	34(18.99)
4	231(10.27)	37(6.02)	17(6.59)	28(6.60)	14(2.69)	24(3.02)	32(3.04)	3(1.68)
5	137(6.09)	8(1.30)	5(1.94)	18(4.25)	2(0.38)	8(1.01)	11(1.04)	3(1.68)
<b>Gender<sup>2</sup></b>								
Male	1,271(52.65)	432(55.74)	143(51.44)	261(55.77)	323(58.09)	455(52.72)	662(58.90)	120(55.05)
Female	1,143(47.35)	343(44.26)	135(48.56)	207(44.23)	233(41.91)	408(47.28)	462(41.10)	98(44.95)
<b>Age M(SD)</b>	38(12.44)	36(11.42)	34(10.87)	36(11.85)	43(12.33)	37(11.23)	35(11.59)	34(11.22)
<b>Primary Diagnosis</b>								



No	2,377(98.39)	758(97.81)	268(96.40)	459(98.08)	520(93.53)	828(95.94)	1,062(94.48)	215(98.62)
Yes	39(1.61)	17(2.19)	10(3.60)	9(1.92)	36(6.47)	35(4.06)	62(5.52)	3(1.38)
<b>Use of MHA</b>								
No	1,113(53.93)	237(30.58)	85(30.58)	128(27.35)	97(17.45)	142(16.45)	200(17.79)	71(32.57)
Yes	1,303(53.93)	538(69.42)	193(69.42)	340(72.65)	459(82.55)	721(83.55)	924(82.21)	147(67.43)
<b>Number of sections</b>								
	1 (2)	1(2)	1(3)	1(2)	2(2)	2(2)	2(2)	1(2)
<b>Mdn(IQR)</b>								
<b>Experienced Seclusion</b>								
No	2,401(99.38)	768(99.10)	266(95.68)	460(98.29)	537(96.58)	823(95.37)	1,062(94.48)	213(97.710)
Yes	15(0.62)	7(0.90)	12(4.32)	8(1.71)	19(3.42)	40(4.63)	62(5.52)	5(2.29)
<b>LOS</b>								
	34.5(91)	30(63)	36.5(90)	38(87)	64(149)	55(112)	54.5(112)	26.5(46)
<b>Mdn(IQR)</b>								
<b>No. admissions</b>								
	1(3)	1(1)	2(2)	1(1)	2(2)	2(2)	2(3)	1(1)
Missing records: <sup>1</sup> 69 participants, <sup>2</sup> 3 participants, IMD 613 participants								

## Appendix F

Table \_Sociodemographic variables for whole sample from empirical paper

<b>Ethnicity</b>	<b>Number(%)</b>
White British	2,416 (36.07)
White non-British	775 (11.57)
Mixed	278(4.15)
Asian	468 (6.99)
Black African	566 (8.30)
Black Caribbean	863(12.88)
Black other	1,124(16.78)
Other	218 (3.25)
<b>Gender</b>	
Female	3,061(45.25)
Male	3,7061(54.75)
<b>Age M(SD)</b>	37(12.06) mean (SD)
<b>IMD quintile</b>	
1 Most	1,565 (25.43)
2	2,796 (45.43)
3	1,204 (19.56)
4	393 (6.39)
5 Least	196 (3.18)
<b>Primary Diagnosis</b>	
Substance-induced psychosis	17(0.25)
Schizophrenia	1,529(22.60)
Delusional disorder	95(1.40)
Acute psychosis	291(4.30)
Schizo-affective	535(7.91)
Unspecified psychosis	812(12)
other	58(0.86)
Not stated	3,2429(50.68)
<b>PICU</b>	

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No	5,925(87.57)
Yes	841(12.43)
<b>Forensic</b>	
No	
Yes	
<b>MHA</b>	
No	2,123(31.38)
Yes	4,643(68.62)
<b>MHA number</b>	
Seclusion	
No	1,524(97.38)
Yes	41(2.62)
<b>Length of stay Mdn(IQR)</b>	41(15-109)
<b>Number of admissions Mdn(IQR)</b>	1(1-3)

---

**Appendix G**  
Odds ratios and Incident rate ratio for intersectionality analysis

		LOS		MHA		Number of admissions	
1Least	White non-British mixed	.89(.70-1.11)	.88(.70-1.11)	1.72(1.16-2.56)**	1.71(1.15-2.55)**	.90(.77-1.06)	.90(.77-1.06)
		1.01(.76-1.52)	1.07(.76-1.53)	1.66(.91-3.02)	1.66(.912-3.04)	1.09(.86-1.37)	1.07(.85-1.35)
	Asian/south Asian	1.19(.92-1.54)	1.18(.91-1.512)	2.17(1.38-3.44)**	2.13(1.35-3.38)**	1.93(.87-1.22)	1.04(.87-1.23)
	Black African	1.57(1.25-1.97)***	1.54(1.22-1.93)***	3.29(2.15-5.32)***	3.38(1.35-3.38)***	1.12(1.01-1.36)*	1.19(1.03-1.23)*
	Black Caribbean	1.46(1.20-1.78)***	1.44(1.18-1.75)***	4.48(2.98-6.74)***	3.38(2.14-5.33)***	1.31(1.24-1.56)***	1.31(1.15-1.48)***
	Black British	1.43(1.20-1.71)***	1.46(1.22-1.75)***	2.96(2.12-4.12)***	4.46(2.96-6.71)***	1.39(1.24-1.56)***	1.38(1.23-1.55)***
	Other	.74(.52-1.05)	.77(.54-1.10)	1.76(.96-3.25)	1.81(.98-3.35)	.90(.71-1.16)	.89(.69-1.13)
2	White non-British mixed	.83(.71-.97)*	.88(.75-1.03)	1.48(1.13-1.95)**	1.53(1.16-2.001)**	.92(.83-1.03)	.92(.82-1.02)
		1.08(.87-1.36)	1.42(.98-1.05)	1.45(.99-2.13)	1.57(1.062-2.31)*	1.21(1.05-1.39)**	1.19(.103-1.37)*
	Asian/south Asian	.96(.79-1.16)	.99(.74-1.31)	1.86(1.32-2.64)***	1.93(1.36-2.74)***	.92(.80-1.05)	.90(.79-1.04)
	Black African	1.88(1.59-2.26)****	1.42(1.08-1.86)***	3.70(2.600-5.27)***	3.57(2.50-5.09)***	1.26(1.3-1.40)***	1.26(1.13-1.40)***
	Black Caribbean	1.31(1.14-1.51)***	1.31(1.03-1.67)***	3.70(2.60-5.28)***	4.14(3.06-5.08)***	1.27(1.16-1.39)***	1.26(1.15-1.39)***



3	Black British	1.37(1.20-1.56)***	1.54(1.25-1.89)***	4.05(3.08-5.33)***	4.18(3.17-5.51)***	1.34(1.23-1.46)***	1.32(1.21-1.34)***
	Other	.56(.43-.74)***	.53(.35-.82)**	1.58(.98-2.54)	1.64(1.02-2.64)*	.81(.67-.99)*	.80(.65-.97)*
	White non-British	.90(.70-1.15)	.88(.75-1.03)	2.46(1.57-3.84)***	2.60(1.66-4.09)***	1.16(.97-1.38)	1.41(.96-1.36)
	mixed	1.64(1.14-2.37)**	1.17(.94-1.46)	2.71(1.37-5.34)**	2.78(1.40-5.47)**	1.26(.98-1.62)	1.25(.98-1.61)
	Asian/south Asian	.99(1.14-2.37)	1.01(.83-1.22)	2.78(1.63-4.76)***	2.90(1.70-4.98)***	.99(.81-1.23)	.99(.80-1.22)
	Black African	1.58(1.21-2.07)**	1.77(1.50-2.09)*	3.71(2.18-6.32)***	2.91(1.70-4.98)***	1.27(1.06-1.53)**	1.29(1.07-1.55)**
	Black Caribbean	1.37(1.07-1.75)*	1.35(1.17-1.56)*	3.52(2.20-5.66)***	3.56(2.09-6.08)***	1.33(1.13-1.57)***	1.32(1.12-1.55)**
	Black British	1.61(1.31-1.98)***	1.38(1.21-1.57)***	3.59(2.42-5.34)***	3.78(2.53-5.65)***	1.43(1.24-1.64)***	1.39(1.21-1.60)***
4	Other	.57(.37-.87)0.010**	.62(.48-.82)**	.923(.46-1.86)	.94(.469-1.89)	.91(.67-1.26)	.90(.66-.124)
	White non-British	.79(.52-1.21)	.85(.56-1.29)	3.21(1.5-6.80)**	3.32(1.55-7.12)**	1.10(.82-1.46)	1.09(.82-1.45)
	mixed	.88(.48-1.59)	.82(.45-1.48)	1.94(.713-5.27)	2.14(.77-5.94)	1.24(.85-1.83)	1.26(.85-1.86)
	Asian/south Asian	1.22(.76-1.96)	1.14(.71-1.82)	3.39(1.43-8.021)**	3.89(1.62-9.36)**	1.04(.75-1.44)	1.05(.76-1.46)
	Black African	1.07(.56-2.07)	.98(.510-1.87)	4.98(1.35-18.31)*	4.31(1.15-16.12)*	1.86(1.29-2.68)**	1.82(1.26-2.62)**
	Black Caribbean	.72(.43-1.21)	.73(.44-1.22)	5.16(1.86-14.29)**	5.77(2.06-16.23)**	1.48(1.09-2.03)*	1.49(1.09-2.04)*

	Black British	.75(.48-1.18)	.75(.48-1.17)	4.07(1.75-9.45)**	3.78(1.61-8.85)**	1.66(1.28-2.17)***	1.65(1.26-2.15)***
	Other	IRR = .64, CI = .51-.75,.095(0.22-.39)**	.08(0.20-.34)**			0.60(.18-2.01)	.63(.19-2.08)
5	White Non-British mixed	.71(.31-1.61)	.89(.40-1.99)	2.9(.66-12.65)	2.82(.61-12.90)	1.27(.74-2.18)	1.25(.73-2.15)
	Asian/south Asian	.65(.37-1.14)	.77(.44-1.33)	2.73(1.0-7.50)**	3.17(1.11-9.04)**	1.37(.95-1.97)	1.40(.97-2.02)
	Black African	.35(.07-1.74)	.25(.05-1.18)			.72(.18-2.92)	.68(.17-2.76)
	Black Caribbean	.589(.26-1.33)	1.04(.52-2.10)	1.74(.42-7.26)	1.43(.32-6.28)	1.09(.61-1.96)	1.10(.61-1.98)
	Black British	1.32(.65-2.67)	1.05(.52-2.10)	7.83(1.63-37.68)**	6.19(1.24-30.98)*	2.11(1.45-3.07)***	2.01(1.37-2.97)****
	Other	.30(.08-1.13)	.23(.064-.85)			.72(.23-2.27)	.70(.22-2.19)

## Appendix H

### Journal guidelines for empirical paper

Rapid publication is a priority; hence, authors are requested to pay close attention to the following instructions for the submission of manuscripts to the journal *Psychiatry Research*.

#### Preparation of manuscripts

**Title page.** The Title page should include the author byline, with names of authors on the same line(s). Superscript letters (a, b, c), not numerals, should be used to key institutional affiliation (if all authors are in the same department, the superscript letter should be omitted); an asterisk should be entered to designate the corresponding author. Underneath the byline, institutional affiliations should be listed (department, institution, city, state or province (if applicable) and country. Funding information should not be included on the title page but should instead be given following the Discussion section. In an asterisked Corresponding Author footnote at the bottom of the title page, telephone/fax numbers and e-mail address of the corresponding author should be provided; e-mail addresses, if desired, may also be provided for the co-authors (or co-corresponding author, if applicable).

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The abstract should be followed by up to seven key words which accord with the indexing conventions of Index Medicus.

Note that the keywords should not duplicate words used in the title of the article, which will be automatically indexed.

**Text.** Although exceptions will be considered, manuscripts should not exceed 5000 words, and shorter manuscripts (e.g., 3000 words) are preferred. Each article should contain the following major headings: Introduction (preceded by arabic number 1.), Methods (preceded by number 2.), Results (preceded by number 3.), Discussion (preceded by number 4.), Acknowledgment (optional section following the discussion, which should not be preceded by a numeral), and References (should not be preceded by a numeral).

Subheadings should follow the numbering system used in the major heading; for example, the subheading "Subjects" within the Methods section should be flush left on a separate line and designated 2.1., the subheading "Procedures" should be designated 2.2., etc.

Lower level headings, if required, should also be numbered (e.g., "2.1.1. Patients." as a lower order heading under "2.1. Subjects."). Only the first letter of the first word of each heading should be capitalized.

The use of abbreviations within the text should be minimized, and each abbreviation, when introduced, must be defined and used consistently thereafter. Systeme International measurements should be used. For products or instruments (do not abbreviate) used in the research reported, provide the name, city and country of the supplier in parentheses. All tables and figures must be referred to in the text.

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(preceded by number 4.), Acknowledgment (optional section following the discussion, which should not be preceded by a numeral), and References (should not be preceded by a numeral). Subheadings should follow the numbering system used in the major heading; for example, the subheading "Subjects" within the Methods section should be flush left on a separate line and designated 2.1., the subheading "Procedures" should be designated 2.2., etc. Lower level headings, if required, should also be numbered (e.g., "2.1.1. Patients." as a lower order heading under "2.1.Subjects."). Only the first letter of the first word of each heading should be capitalized.

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Strunk Jr., W., White, E.B., 2000. *The Elements of Style*, fourth ed. Longman, New York.

Reference to a chapter in an edited book:

Mettam, G.R., Adams, L.B., 2009. How to prepare an electronic version of your article, in: Jones, B.S., Smith, R.Z. (Eds.), *Introduction to the Electronic Age*. E-Publishing Inc., New York, pp. 281–304.

Reference to a website:

Cancer Research UK, 1975. Cancer statistics reports for the UK.

<http://www.cancerresearchuk.org/aboutcancer/statistics/cancerstatsreport/> (accessed 13 March 2003).

Reference to a dataset:

[dataset] Oguro, M., Imahiro, S., Saito, S., Nakashizuka, T., 2015. Mortality data for Japanese oak wilt disease and surrounding forest compositions. Mendeley Data, v1.

<https://doi.org/10.17632/xwj98nb39r.1>.

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Coon, E., Berndt, M., Jan, A., Svyatsky, D., Atchley, A., Kikinzon, E., Harp, D., Manzini, G., Shelef, E., Lipnikov, K., Garimella, R., Xu, C., Moulton, D., Karra, S., Painter, S., Jafarov, E., & Molins, S., 2020. Advanced Terrestrial Simulator (ATS) v0.88 (Version 0.88). Zenodo.

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