

1 Intersectoral and multisectoral approaches to enable recovery for people with severe mental  
2 illness in LMICs: A scoping review

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11 **Topic:** Policy and Systems

12 **Sub Topic:** Services Integration

13

14 **Impact statement**

15 Despite a large body of work on recovery for people living with severe mental illness, and its  
16 implicit embeddedness in collaboration across sectors, little systematic description has been  
17 undertaken of its implementation in low-and middle-income countries. Our review fills this  
18 gap by providing a synopsis of how multi- and intersectoral collaboration in supporting  
19 recovery occur in these contexts. It highlights examples that involve collaboration between  
20 healthcare and community support systems, collaboration in providing supported housing  
21 and supportive community spaces for recovery, and linkages between biomedical and social  
22 spheres of care. There are, however, barriers to collaborating across sectors, including the

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23 dominance of mental health professions in delivering care, community-based stigmatising  
24 attitudes towards SMI, and a discomfort of some healthcare workers to work beyond the  
25 professional boundaries of healthcare. Multi- and intersectoral collaboration for SMI recovery  
26 needs to be driven by formal structures and financing, including both on macro and micro  
27 levels of engagement.

28

## 29 Abstract

30 **Background:** The needs of people with severe mental illness are complex, and require a range  
31 of services embedded in well-coordinated systems of care to enable recovery, promote well-  
32 being and optimise social integration. The concept of recovery is strongly rooted in the  
33 centrality of multi and intersectoral systems of care, and, while multi and -intersectoral  
34 dimensions of mental health systems have been highlighted in analyses focusing on high-  
35 income regions, little has been elaborated in terms of these approaches in the recovery of  
36 people with severe mental illness in LMICs.

37 **Aim:** The aim of this review was to identify and describe multi and intersectoral approaches  
38 underpinning community-based SMI recovery interventions in LMICs.

39 **Methods:** A scoping review was carried out following the following steps: 1) Objectives for the  
40 review were developed and refined; 2) A systematic search of databases (EbscoHost, PubMed,  
41 Google Scholar) and previous reviews were undertaken from 2012-2022, where relevant  
42 papers were identified; 3) Papers with a focus on SMI and recovery, a specific description of an  
43 intervention, located in LMICs, with explicit linkages between sectors, and published in English,  
44 were selected for inclusion; 4) Data were extracted and charted; and 5) Findings were analysed  
45 and reported thematically. **Conclusion:** Thirty-six papers were included for analysis, from 18  
46 countries, including qualitative studies, trials, desktop and secondary data reviews, and case  
47 studies. Examples of multi- and intersectoral action included collaboration between healthcare  
48 and community support systems, collaboration in providing supported housing and supportive  
49 community spaces for recovery, and linkages between biomedical and social spheres of care.  
50 Barriers included the dominance of mental health professions in delivering care, community-  
51 based stigmatising attitudes towards SMI. Multi- and intersectoral collaboration for SMI  
52 recovery requires investments in financing, education, and coordination by a governing body.

## 53 Introduction

54 People living with severe mental illness (SMI) have substantially increased relative mortality  
55 risk compared to the general population, related to cardiovascular disease (Ali et al., 2022,  
56 Lambert et al., 2022), and in Low and Middle Income Countries (LMIC) particularly related to  
57 poverty that leads to poor health status (e.g. undernutrition) (Jenkins et al., 2011, Tirfessa et  
58 al., 2019). While symptoms of the illness play a role in course and outcomes, globally and in  
59 LMIC particularly, people with SMI may experience social and economic adversities and  
60 human rights abuses that can create a social environment that hampers clinical and personal  
61 recovery (Patel, 2015, Brooke-Sumner et al., 2014, Asher et al., 2017). Recovery, as it has  
62 been conceptualised in HIC settings, is described as an individual journey of transformation  
63 and personal growth moving from the distress of the acute experience of the condition  
64 towards finding meaning and purpose, a sense of belonging, forming or rebuilding  
65 meaningful relationships (Frost et al., 2017), bringing hope, empowerment, goal orientation  
66 and fulfilment (Warner, 2009, Whitley et al., 2015, Drake and Whitley, 2014). Recovery  
67 encompasses concepts of prosperity (legal, political and economic dimensions); individual  
68 recovery (dimensions of normalcy, knowledge, individuality, responsibility, and identity);  
69 clinical recovery (treatment and diagnosis dimensions); and social recovery (externally and  
70 internally derived notions of social awareness, being a part of society, functioning well within,  
71 groups, treated as an equal) (Vera San Juan et al., 2021). Biomedically-oriented health  
72 systems alone are inadequately configured to address the spectrum of these recovery needs  
73 which extend across intersecting social, economic, cultural and political spheres, beyond the  
74 health sector (Gamiendien et al., 2022). While many of the recovery concepts may be cross-  
75 cutting among HIC and LMIC, some concepts, developed in Western sociocultural contexts,  
76 may be limited in being rooted in economic environments and health and social welfare  
77 systems able to provide for people's material needs (Gamiendien et al., 2021). In LMICs there  
78 may be greater involvement of families in providing care and supportive environment, use of  
79 non-Western healing approaches (Onken et al., 2007), and a more important role of  
80 spirituality in recovery (Gamiendien et al., 2021).

81 Since its introduction into health policy discourse in the 1970s, "intersectoral action" has  
82 become a staple in framing responses to public health challenges. The need for the health  
83 sector to collaborate with a range of other sectors to improve health outcomes continues to

84 be highlighted (Sanni et al., 2019). More recent conceptualisations include “multisectoral  
85 action for health” which refers to the deliberate or collateral inclusion of different actors and  
86 sectors in health improvement, including initiatives such as “Whole of Government”, Joined-  
87 up Government” approaches, horizontal and integrated policymaking, and Health in All  
88 Policies. Despite the conceptual promise of inter-and multisectorality, and evidence of its  
89 implementation in HIC (Mondal et al., 2021, Jørgensen et al., 2021, Jørgensen et al., 2020,  
90 Diminic et al., 2015) this has not consistently translated into policy or services. For instance,  
91 neither the WHO’s Innovative Care for Chronic Conditions Framework (Nuño et al., 2012), nor  
92 its subsequent modification for LMICs or countries in health transition (Oni et al., 2014),  
93 adequately considers the role of sectors outside of health. A well-documented example of  
94 the costs of failure to approach community mental health from an intersectoral approach is  
95 the US deinstitutionalisation movement. Following the policy shifts towards  
96 deinstitutionalisation, financial costs and responsibilities were dispersed through various  
97 stakeholders and agencies. This led to a fractured system, inadequate to address the complex  
98 needs of people with SMI, leading to homelessness or incarceration when placed in  
99 community settings (Grazier et al., 2005). In order to develop more people-centred, humane  
100 and effective community mental health systems, recovery should be firmly couched in service  
101 and strategic collaboration across sectors (Drake and Whitley, 2014). Several examples of  
102 promising shifts towards intersectoral collaboration in community SMI services have  
103 emerged in high-income settings. Intersectoral service networks in Belgium (Nicaise et al.,  
104 2021) and Canada (Fleury et al., 2017) includes integrated, intersectoral collaboration in the  
105 form of housing, educational and employment support, beyond medical and psychiatric care.  
106 The Australian Partners in Recovery model is a good example of how care coordination can  
107 aid recovery for people living with SMI (Isaacs, 2022). A review of interventions that focus on  
108 system-level intersectoral linkages involving mental health services and non-clinical support  
109 services yielded forty examples from high-income countries, with various different  
110 collaboration modalities. Outcomes reported were largely positive, particularly regarding  
111 improved interagency communication, mutual understanding and empathy, cost efficiency,  
112 involvement of lay health workers, as well as various service user outcomes such as clinical  
113 functioning, employment prospects, and accommodation stability (Whiteford et al., 2014).  
114 This being noted, the connection between recovery and intersectoral care remains relatively  
115 ill-defined and several gaps remain in this body of evidence (Jørgensen et al., 2021). However

116 the relevance and need for development of this approach to recovery services is highlighted  
117 in the 2022 World Mental Health report (World Health Organization, 2022).

118 While there is much promise of inter- and multisectoral approaches to SMI recovery, there is  
119 paucity of reviews on the subject – particularly in LMICs, and a lack of systematised evidence  
120 on how to implement the approach. While the implementation of intersectoral collaborations  
121 to enable recovery of people living with SMIs have been well-described in HICs, it remains  
122 uncertain how intersectoral care is being pursued in contexts faced with a lack of resources  
123 and infrastructure, mental health system investment-to-population ratio, substantial  
124 geographical and cultural variation and underdeveloped welfare systems (Patel, 2016). The  
125 aim of this scoping review was therefore to identify and describe multi and intersectoral  
126 approaches underpinning community-based SMI recovery interventions in LMICs.

## 127 **Methods**

128 This scoping review was guided by the methodological steps outlined by Arksey and O'Malley  
129 (Arksey and O'Malley, 2005) and the Johanna Briggs Institute (JBI, 2015), following the  
130 following phases: 1) Objectives for the review were developed and refined among the  
131 authors, based on a brief, initial literature review; 2) A systematic search of databases was  
132 undertaken where relevant papers were identified; 3) Relevant papers were selected for  
133 inclusion; 4) Data were extracted from these selected studies, and were charted according to  
134 the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses Extension for  
135 Scoping Reviews (PRISMA-ScR) (Tricco et al., 2018); and 5) Findings were thematically  
136 analysed and reported.

137 The search was undertaken by the authors, with weekly discussions to compare results and  
138 discuss inclusions and exclusions. We applied search terms as used in a recent scoping review  
139 exploring recovery of people living with SMI in LMICs (Gamielidien et al., 2021), with updated  
140 time parameters to reflect our search scope of 2012-2022. This resulted in an additional 12  
141 papers added to their results (22 in total). We then conducted searches using key terms  
142 related to recovery, SMI, community settings, LMICs (see Addendum 1 for a full description  
143 of search terms), in EbscoHost (Academic Search Complete; APA PsycInfo; Health Source -  
144 Consumer Edition; Health Source: Nursing/Academic Edition; MasterFILE Premier; MEDLINE  
145 with Full Text), PubMed, and Google Scholar. In Google Scholar, the terms and related terms

146 “recovery”, “SMI”, “community settings”, and “LMICs” were included and results were  
 147 screened until two sequential pages did not yield any further papers that adheres to the  
 148 inclusion criteria. During the screening and review process, it became apparent that the  
 149 interchangeable and ambiguous application of complex terms such as recovery, multi-and  
 150 intersectoral approaches, may limit the number of papers found in databases. Therefore, an  
 151 additional review of the results of 11 systematic reviews on psychosocial interventions with a  
 152 focus on severe mental illness was undertaken (Al-Sawafi et al., 2020, Alhadidi et al., 2020,  
 153 Bighelli et al., 2021, Brooke-Sumner et al., 2015, Davies et al., 2018, Frederick and  
 154 VanderWeele, 2019, Lutgens et al., 2017, Morillo et al., 2022, Rodolico et al., 2022, Sin and  
 155 Spain, 2017, Solmi et al., 2022), while peer reviewers helpfully pointed out additional  
 156 omissions in the results. This underlines the importance of including an additional  
 157 consultation phase in scoping reviews, framed as an optional step in existing guidelines  
 158 (Levac et al., 2010). Inclusion and exclusion criteria are summarized in Table 1.

159 Table 1: Inclusion and exclusion criteria

Inclusion criteria	Exclusion criteria
A primary focus on people living with SMI, as defined by the National Institute for Mental Health (“severe” and “serious” were used interchangeably), i.e. “...a mental, behavioral, or emotional disorder resulting in serious functional impairment, which substantially interferes with or limits one or more major life activities. The burden of mental illnesses is particularly concentrated among those who experience disability due to SMI.” (National Institute of Mental Health, 2022). This includes specific ICD-10 diagnostic categories F20-29, F30-39, F30.2, F31.2, F31.5, F32.3, F33.3.	Primary focus not on people living with SMI
A description of a specific intervention, programme, or service	General overviews or descriptions of health systems or services, rather than a specific focus on an intervention aimed at recovery from SMI
A focus on community-based, outpatient settings	A focus on inpatient, institutionalised settings
A focus on the enabling of recovery as defined in the Introduction	No focus on dimensions of recovery
Adults (aged 18 years and above)	People under 18 years of age
Studies reported during the past decade (2012-2022)	Studies reported before 2012
Studies with a primary location in LMICs (World Bank, 2022)	Studies focusing on settings in HICs (World Bank, 2022)
Explicit description of intended linkages with sectors other than health	No apparent linkages of an intervention with sectors beyond health
Published in English	Full text not in English

160

161 **Findings**162 *Search results*

163 As shown in Figure 1, a total of 471 papers were initially identified through PubMed (n=336),  
164 EbscoHost (n=64), Google Scholar (n=38), results of other reviews (n=24) and peer reviewers  
165 (n=9). After duplicates were removed, 204 titles and abstracts were screened, where 100  
166 records were excluded based on the exclusion criteria. Two papers were excluded due to  
167 language, one was in Turkish, the other in Portuguese. Following a screening of 104 full text  
168 papers, an additional 67 papers were excluded due to not having a primary focus on SMI, no  
169 clear focus on recovery, and no apparent linkages with sectors other than health. This  
170 resulted in 37 papers being included for qualitative synthesis (Table 2).

171

172 *FIGURE 1 HERE*

173 Figure 1: PRISMA illustration of search and selection process

174

175 *Included studies*

176 An overview of included studies is presented in Table 2. Studies from an array of countries  
177 were included: Bosnia and Herzegovina (n=1); Egypt (n=1); Eswatini (n=1); Ethiopia (n=1);  
178 Ghana (n=1); Indonesia (n=1); Kenya (n=1); Kyrgyz Republic (n=1); Liberia (n=1); Nepal (n=1);  
179 Chile (n=1); Timor-Leste (n=1); Turkey (n=2); Brazil (n=3); China (n=4); South Africa (n=4); and  
180 India (n=12). A variety of study designs and methodologies were reported, including various  
181 qualitative studies, randomised control trials, desktop and secondary data reviews, quasi-  
182 experimental studies, and case studies.

183

184

185 Table 2: Overview of included studies

Citation	Country	Primary intervention	Dimensions of involvement of different sectors in recovery	Study type	Data type
1. Acebal et al. (2021)	Brazil	Psychosocial rehabilitation	Community-based Residential Therapeutic Services (SRT) in conjunction with routine medical care.	Cross sectional survey	Quantitative
2. Anish (2013)	India	Psychosocial rehabilitation	Collaboration between healthcare and agriculture industries to promote recovery through vocational activities in diary and farming, and horticulture.	Programme evaluation	Quantitative
3. Arahantabailu et al. (2022)	India	Assertive community treatment	Manipal Assertive Community Treatment (M-ACT) teams liaise with community resources to facilitate vocational rehabilitation and access to welfare benefits.	Quasi-experimental	Quantitative
4. Arias et al. (2016)	Ghana	Prayer camps	Collaboration between biomedical services and faith-based care delivered at prayer camps.	Exploratory qualitative study	Qualitative
5. Asher et al. (2015), Asher et al. (2022)	Ethiopia	Community-Based Rehabilitation Intervention for People with Schizophrenia	Using community-based rehabilitation workers as principal deliverers of the intervention allows networking and integration with NGOs and traditional health practitioners.	RCT	Quantitative and qualitative
6. Brooke-Sumner et al. (2016)	South Africa	Intersectoral psychosocial rehabilitation	Despite very little formal collaboration between government departments, singular examples emerged e.g. collaboration between social development and public works in placing people living with schizophrenia in an employment programme.	Exploratory qualitative study	Qualitative
7. Brooke-Sumner et al. (2018)	South Africa	Psychosocial rehabilitation (group based, psychoeducation)	Psychosocial rehabilitation programme delivered by auxiliary social workers via collaboration between the health and social development/welfare sectors.	Quasi-experimental	Mixed methods
8. Chatterjee et al. (2014)	India	Collaborative community-based care	Collaborative package of community-based care facilitated linkages between service users and a) user-led support structures, b) community support agencies to address social issues and improve social inclusion, and c) community agencies that provide legal and employment services.	RCT	Quantitative
9. Chen et al. (2020)	China	Psychosocial rehabilitation (clubhouse model)	The Clubhouse facilitates transitional employment and supported education programmes in collaboration with community partners.	RCT	Quantitative
10. de Menil et al. (2015)	Kenya	Mental Health and Development model	Collaboration between the Ministry of Health, NGOs, the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Services, and Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Fisheries, to provide a continuum of services including self-help groups and training in and support for livelihood and farming capacities.	Cost-effectiveness analysis	Primary and secondary quantitative data
11. Gamielidien et al. (2022)	South Africa	Perceptions on recovery	NGOs provide multisectoral services to aid recovery efforts, including basic needs, transportation, life skills, vocational training, and leisure and sport activities.	Exploratory qualitative study	Qualitative



12. Hall et al. (2019)	Timor-Leste	Intersectoral mental health service collaboration	Referral linkages between government health facilities, police, local authorities, private clinics, social sector service providers, and customary healers, forming a network of services that include health care, disability support, victimisation support, and residential support.	Case study	Mixed methods
13. İncedere and Yildiz (2019)	Turkey	Case Management for Individuals with Severe Mental Illness	A case manager liaises with employment sector to identify suitable candidates to undertake an examination and be positioned for an appropriate job.	Quasi-experimental	Quantitative
14. Janse van Rensburg et al. (2018)	South Africa	Service referrals between state and non-state actors	Government clinics and hospitals refer service users to NGOs for residential support and welfare grant application assistance.	Case study	Mixed methods
15. Kallivayalil and Sudhakar (2018)	India	Low-cost community psychosocial rehabilitation model	NGO has a candle-making unit where people living with severe mental illness can sell candles at nearby churches during holy days, while clothes manufacturing initiative linked service users up with retail outlets to sell clothes.	Quasi-experimental	Survey
16. Kohrt et al. (2015)	Liberia	Crisis Intervention Team (CIT) Model of Police–Mental Health Collaboration	The Carter Center Mental Health Program (TCC-MHP) facilitated partnerships to advance mental health policy, legislation, and funding, which included engaging with the Liberia National Police to identify spaces for collaboration on crisis intervention.	Programme development description	Narrative description
17. Li and Ma (2021)	China	National comprehensive management pilot project for integrated care for people with severe mental disorders through strengthened cooperation among government organisations and between government and other relevant social organisations	A quasi-governmental organisation establishes and coordinates community service organisations for people living with severe mental illness, with formal links between the ministries of health and social affairs. Through training and cooperation across a range of organisations and sectors, an integrated package of services is provided to be more responsive to individual needs.	Case study	Qualitative interviews
18. MacDougall et al. (2022)	Kenya	Community REcovery Achieved Through Entrepreneurship (CREATE)	An initiative that integrates elements of psychosocial rehabilitation (PSR), community-based rehabilitation (CBR), and work integration social enterprise (WISE).	Programme development description	Qualitative
19. Mascayano et al. (2022), Mascayano et al. (2019a)	Brazil & Chile	Critical Time Intervention with Task-sharing (CTITS)	Teams made up of auxiliary and peer workers supported service users following discharge from acute psychiatric hospitalisation, to facilitate linkages with a range of community-based support systems that included basic and specialist medical care, psychosocial rehabilitation,	RCT	Quantitative

			leisure and art-based activities, and basic needs.		
<b>20. Molchanova (2014)</b>	Kyrgyz Republic	Indigenous model of family rehabilitation	The development of family-driven NGOs led to the provisioning of a range of psychosocial rehabilitation activities to people living with severe mental illness in community settings.	Desktop review	Government documents
<b>21. Muhić et al. (2022)</b>	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Brief, multifamily group intervention for patients with schizophrenia and related disorders	Multifamily groups mobilised mutual support for people living with severe mental illness in community settings.	RCT	Survey and qualitative interviews
<b>22. Nxumalo Ngubane et al. (2019)</b>	Eswatini	Psychiatric outpatient care	People living with severe mental illness' engagement in community-based projects such as community kitchens for orphaned and vulnerable children aided in recovery efforts.	Interpretive phenomenological analysis	Qualitative interviews
<b>23. Padmakar et al. (2020)</b>	India	The Banyan's supported housing model	The Banyan organisation developed a supported housing programme where people living with severe mental illness can live independently, with an emergency care and recovery unit located in close proximity.	Mixed methods	Qualitative interviews, logbook notes, survey
<b>24. Pfizer and Kavitha (2018)</b>	India	Interdisciplinary recovery model of psychosocial rehabilitation	People living with severe mental illness were enrolled into a sheltered workshop, where their functionality, occupational skills and readiness was improved and evaluated, after which appropriate service users could be promoted to peer mentorship at a trial worksite, with the ultimate goal of securing competitive employment. The programme also included generating financial support for the building of houses on private owners' properties, as well as linkages with Alcoholics Anonymous to address substance abuse challenges.	Desktop review	Narrative description
<b>25. Raja et al. (2012)</b>	Nepal	BasicNeeds model of Mental Health and Development	Livelihood support was provided to people living with severe mental illness and their families through cash grants or supporting the setting up of businesses, as well as support for the setting up of self-help groups.	Case study	Project data
<b>26. Rao et al. (2022)</b>	India	SCARF Telepsychiatry in Pudukkottai (STEP) program	A range of community-based psychosocial rehabilitation activities were provided in a rural area, including facilitating access to disability and welfare benefits, supporting job-seeking efforts and facilitating placement in partner businesses, and supporting the obtaining of loans from banks to help set up small businesses.	Desktop review	Project data
<b>27. Rashed (2015)</b>	Egypt	Qur'anic healing	A duality of recovery care that consisted of psychiatric services delivered by medical doctors, and Qur'anic healing providing spiritual care.	Ethnography	Participant observation
<b>28. Saha et al. (2020)</b>	India	Non-governmental psychosocial rehabilitation	NGO that provided support for livelihood activities, access to government grant schemes, as well as a range of psychosocial therapies with service users and their	Secondary data analysis	Patient case records

		centers	families.		
29. Soygür et al. (2017)	Turkey	Therapeutic community and supported-employment setting where people living with schizophrenia work	Blue Horse Café provides a protective space where people living with schizophrenia can work, build skills and develop independence from medical institutionalisation, while still accessing medical care.	Phenomenological	Qualitative interviews
30. Subandi (2015)	Indonesia	Psychiatric outpatient care	In addition to outpatient community-based medical care, people accessed “natural therapy” in the form of spiritual guidance from mosques alongside neighbours and friends, which also allowed for community integration, while others accessed services from both biomedical and traditional health practitioners.	Ethnography	Participant observations
31. Vijayan (2021)	India	Recovery Oriented Services (ROSeS)	Community-based psychiatric rehabilitation programme aids in recovery efforts by acting as intermediary between service users and organisations that facilitate work placements.	Case study	Qualitative
32. World Health Organization (2021)	Brazil	Centro de Atenção Psicossocial (CAPS)	Drives recovery efforts by facilitating active citizenship, which includes helping service users to navigate government bureaucracies to obtain formal documentation and access benefits, and liaising with a range of community resources to support housing, employment and social life improvement.	Case study	Narrative description
33. World Health Organization (2021)	China	Phoenix Clubhouse	Clubhouse collaborates with business partners to facilitate placement for paid employment in the local labour market for its members.	Case study	Narrative description
34. World Health Organization (2021)	India	Naya Daur Community Outreach	A community outreach programme that refer people to temporary shelters, where they can access basic services such as hygiene materials, food, water, and a place to sleep.	Case study	Narrative description
35. World Health Organization (2021)	India	Atmiyatab primary care community outreach service	Mental health champions are instituted as intermediaries for people living with severe mental illness and their families to access disability certification, to access government benefits such as pensions, grants and disability benefits, as well as work schemes.	Case study	Narrative description
36. World Health Organization (2021)	Georgia	Hand in Hand supported living	An organisation providing employment support by collaborating with community social enterprises and employers.	Case study	Narrative description
37. World Health Organization (2021)	India	Home Again housing and supportive services	The Banyan organisation’s housing and supportive services initiative provides access to housing, establishing work placements, educational support, and linking with various community resources to promote recovery efforts.	Case study	Narrative description

187 *Overview of SMI recovery approaches*

188 Several different approaches to supporting recovery were highlighted. A common initiative  
189 was the establishment of community-based psychosocial rehabilitation centres, which were  
190 often run as a collaborative between family members, mental health professionals, and other  
191 community resources, to provide psychosocial, job and basic needs support to people with  
192 severe mental illness, described in India, Turkey and the Kyrgyz Republic (Soygür et al., 2017,  
193 Saha et al., 2020, Pfizer and Kavitha, 2018, Kallivayalil and Sudhakar, 2018, Molchanova,  
194 2014). Also, the clubhouse model for psychosocial rehabilitation was reported in China (Chen  
195 et al., 2020), one case describing linkages with a supported employment programme in  
196 surrounding communities (World Health Organization, 2021). Supported housing, especially  
197 focusing on those experiencing poverty and homelessness, was described in India, (Anish,  
198 2013, Padmakar et al., 2020, World Health Organization, 2021) and Brazil (Acebal et al.,  
199 2021). In some instances, mental health teams performed various services, for instance  
200 facilitating residential training and placement according to individual preferences and needs  
201 – an example is a Recovery Oriented Services (ROSeS) team in India facilitating placement at a  
202 rural development centre for an individual who was interested in agriculture and animal  
203 husbandry (Vijayan, 2021). Some teams, for instance a mental health outreach team in India,  
204 also facilitated service access through telepsychiatry (Rao et al., 2022), and others, like  
205 Atmiyata, facilitated access to government-based social benefits including pensions, rural  
206 employment grants, disability benefits and other financial assistance, through the  
207 establishment of mental health champions (World Health Organization, 2021). Recovery  
208 models that included task-sharing of services to non-specialist workers were reported in  
209 South Africa (Brooke-Sumner et al., 2018) and India (Chatterjee et al., 2014). A Critical Time  
210 Intervention with task-sharing (CTI-TS) was reported in Chile and Brazil, involving  
211 psychosocial support during the transition from psychiatric hospital discharge to community  
212 settings (Mascayano et al., 2022). A case describing a multifamily group intervention based  
213 on triadogue, psychosis seminars, and co-learning was described in Bosnia and Herzegovina  
214 (Muhić et al., 2022), with an NGO-delivered multicomponent intervention for people with  
215 severe mental illness and caregivers that included biomedical treatment and supporting  
216 economic independence in Nepal (Raja et al., 2012). The salience of integration with religious  
217 practices was described in Java (Subandi, 2015) and Egypt (Rashed, 2015). In China, a national

218 pilot programme was described that involved psychosocial rehabilitation through  
219 cooperation among government organisations and between government and other relevant  
220 social organisations (Li and Ma, 2021). A study in Ethiopia seeking to develop a community-  
221 based rehabilitation intervention for people with schizophrenia, focused on the development  
222 of a specific cadre of worker that would facilitate better networking with other NGO services  
223 and expand to other forms of disability as well (Asher et al., 2015, Asher et al., 2022).

224

### 225 *Dimensions of multi-and intersectoral collaboration in supporting recovery*

226 As suggested by the number of papers included in this synthesis, very few examples could be  
227 found that explicitly highlight the involvement of sectors other than health in recovery  
228 processes in community settings. Only one study described an intersectoral collaboration  
229 between health and other sectors in supporting SMI recovery on a national, policy-level scale,  
230 describing the formalising of governance and funding structures for better  
231 interorganisational collaboration and funding in China (Li and Ma, 2021). In terms of  
232 programmatic interventions, several dimensions of multi- and intersectoral collaboration  
233 emerged, described below in terms of Health and Housing, Health and Community Support  
234 Systems, Supportive Community Spaces for Recovery, and Bridging Biomedical and Social  
235 Spheres of Care through Lay Health Workers.

#### 236 *Health and housing*

237 There were instances of collaboration between the health sector and various actors involved  
238 in providing supported housing to people living with SMIs. The Phoenix Clubhouse in Hong  
239 Kong, China, put in place arrangements with housing partners, including public housing,  
240 supported hostels, halfway houses, long-stay care homes and residential respite services,  
241 which members can access (World Health Organization, 2021). An Indian study (Anish, 2013)  
242 reported that the majority of residential facilities for people with SMI were provided by faith-  
243 based organisations with funds from public donations. These faith-based organisations  
244 tended to collaborate with other sectors during the period when service users are admitted  
245 to the centre following referral by mental health professionals, family members, police, and  
246 social services.

247

248 An example of this kind of collaboration is the Banyan's supported housing model. The  
249 Banyan started out as a crisis intervention and rehabilitation centre for homeless women  
250 with mental illness in the city of Chennai, India, and has expanded its services to include  
251 emergency, open shelter and street-based services, social care, and long-term and  
252 alternative living. In support of living arrangements, the organisation entered into rental  
253 agreements with private property owners in order to secure housing for people with SMI,  
254 who were supported through stages of confrontation, adaptation, and stabilisation  
255 (Padmakar et al., 2020). A Brazilian study (Acebal et al., 2021) investigated service users'  
256 perspectives on the relationship between housing needs and mental health/illness. It  
257 highlighted the importance of the links between 'residential therapeutic services' (supported  
258 housing) and biomedical health facilities but details of the working relationships between  
259 health facilities and residential facilities were lacking.

#### 260 *Health and community support systems*

261 A key area for multi- and intersectoral collaboration is the setting up and strengthening of  
262 community-based support resources beyond the health sector. In the aforementioned CTI-TS  
263 model in South America, lay community mental health workers and peer support workers  
264 formed CTI teams that provided structured, time-limited support to people discharged from  
265 psychiatric hospitalisation. Working from community mental health centres, a key task in this  
266 initiative was to support beneficiaries through linking them to informal and formal support  
267 systems in communities (including local leisure clubs and community centres) after which a  
268 gradual withdrawal period would take place thereby lessening dependence on the CTI  
269 programme or institutional mental health services (Mascayano et al., 2022, Mascayano et al.,  
270 2019b, Silva et al., 2017). The multifamily support group model in Bosnia and Herzegovina  
271 served to mobilise mutual support in community settings (Muhić et al., 2022), Two studies  
272 described mental health service networks across sectors, that included support for people  
273 living with SMI. In Liberia, The Carter Center Mental Health Program (TCC-MHP) partnered  
274 with the Liberian police sector to develop Crisis Intervention Teams (CIT) to create more  
275 supportive services for people living with SMI (Kohrt et al., 2015). In Timor-Leste,  
276 collaboration and referral between mental health and social service delivery platforms were  
277 reported, that included referral from police, local authorities, private care and social services

278 to government health facilities for care, particularly those living with SMI. Government  
279 services in turn referred people to support organisations, including housing support for  
280 people living with SMI (Hall et al., 2019). In a similar study from South Africa, a range of NGO  
281 activities were described, where people living with SMI were sometimes referred to  
282 organisations for housing and basic needs support, as well as to a social services organisation  
283 that provided home-based psychotherapy, group therapy, social support, community  
284 awareness and education campaigns. There were also instances of collaborating with old-age  
285 facilities to provide housing support to people with SMI (Janse van Rensburg et al., 2018).

### 286 *Supportive community spaces for recovery*

287 Given the history and prevalence of stigma, discrimination, and structural barriers to social  
288 integration faced by people living with SMI, recovery processes require safe and supportive  
289 spaces in communities. The Centro de Atenção Psicossocial (CAPS) in Brazil is a network of  
290 community-based mental health centres, which promotes active citizenship through a range  
291 of services, including supporting people through the various bureaucracies of obtaining  
292 formal documentation and access social support, training and education, access to  
293 supportive housing, and supportive work placement, with collaborations across the sectors of  
294 health, education, justice, social assistance, and various non-governmental agencies (World  
295 Health Organization, 2021). The well-known clubhouse model of psychosocial rehabilitation,  
296 with its roots in the 1940s in New York, was applied in Chinese settings and involved non-  
297 residential services that included employment and supported education programmes, linked  
298 with private and education sectors (Chen et al., 2020, World Health Organization, 2021).  
299 Another example is the Blue Horse Café in Turkey, a therapeutic community and supported-  
300 employment setting where most services offered by the café are performed by people living  
301 with SMI, including food preparation and serving, reservation management, cleaning,  
302 management and organisation, and selling of second-hand goods. This provides a protective  
303 environment within which people with SMI can participate in the labour sector, while also  
304 receiving therapeutic support (Soygür et al., 2017). Another programme in Turkey assisted  
305 service users through case management, where people were supported in preparing CVs and  
306 job interviewing, interviews with labour agencies, and reviewing of vacancies. People were  
307 also accompanied during job interviews, and during their first days of employment, and  
308 relationships were established between case managers and line managers in work places

309 (Incedere and Yildiz, 2019). In India, the Rajah Rehabilitation Centre (RRC) collaborates with  
310 employers to secure employment for people with SMI, following a period of supported work  
311 and skills development. There is also collaboration with community-based Alcoholics  
312 Anonymous and Al-Anon support groups to support participants and their families who have  
313 to deal with challenges related to substance abuse, while legal services are made accessible  
314 through a collaboration with a Legal Aid clinic (Pfizer and Kavitha, 2018). The development of  
315 peer support networks in Kenya connected people living with SMI with skill-building in  
316 livelihood activities, such as drought-resistant farming and making detergent (de Menil et al.,  
317 2015). In Ghana, supportive spaces including housing was provided in prayer camps,  
318 overseen by local prophets (Arias et al., 2016).

319 *Bridging biomedical and social spheres of care through lay health workers*

320 Instances emerged where lay health workers were trained and supervised by mental health  
321 professionals to provide community-based services, thereby bridging the domain of  
322 healthcare within facilities with the social dimensions of recovery in community settings. In  
323 the community-based intervention for people with schizophrenia and their caregivers in India  
324 (COPSI), the programme included the linkage of people with SMI with community agencies  
325 and user-led self-help groups. This provided a support for seeking employment as well as to  
326 access social and legal benefits (Chatterjee et al., 2014). A similar intervention was described  
327 in South Africa, where a community-based psychosocial rehabilitation intervention was  
328 delivered in partnership with PHC health clinics and a local NGO by auxiliary social workers.  
329 Participants for the intervention were recruited through clinics and intervention conducted in  
330 clinic premises by auxiliary social workers (Brooke-Sumner et al., 2018). A Nepalese study of  
331 an NGO delivered multicomponent intervention for people with severe mental illness and  
332 caregivers (access to biomedical treatment and enabling service users and caregivers to  
333 develop a livelihood) recommended expanding scope of training of community health  
334 workers to include skills in delivering support for sustainable livelihood interventions (Raja et  
335 al., 2012).

336 *Barriers to multi- and intersectoral collaboration*

337 Though difficult to assess comprehensively due to the ambiguity of descriptions of multi- and  
338 intersectoral collaboration, limited barriers to such collaboration emerged. A key barrier



339 highlighted in the Chinese interorganisational collaboration case was differences in  
340 commitment and professional authority between organisations, both government and non-  
341 government. Specifically, there stronger institutional commitment of actors in the health  
342 sector were reinforced by the greater degree of professional authority wielded by  
343 psychiatrists (Li and Ma, 2021). The Blue Horse Café case in Turkey highlighted contrasts in  
344 relationships with healthcare workers versus relationships in a community-based therapeutic  
345 community, with descriptions of the former cold, indifferent, or lacking in sincerity, whereas  
346 the humanistic aspects of the latter were detailed in terms of equal power relations and  
347 mutual respect. The space was described as supportive of power sharing between health  
348 workers and people living with SMI (Soygür et al., 2017). However, not all healthcare workers  
349 might feel comfortable working outside the spheres of health facilities. In the reporting of the  
350 Banyan supported housing model, healthcare workers experienced challenges adapting to  
351 their roles in community settings and social rather than biomedical orientation. There was  
352 also a cultural dimension, in that unmarried female healthcare workers felt pressure to justify  
353 them living unmarried in the community where they worked (Padmakar et al., 2020). In the  
354 Chinese case, a lack of role clarification for frontline workers attending to multiple vulnerable  
355 populations and working across sectors resulted in them experiencing increased pressure to  
356 deal with SMI. Also, the dominance of the Chinese government resulted in cooperation  
357 between government and social organisations being driven by the willingness of government  
358 organisations to work with social organisations (and not vice versa), thereby skewing the  
359 power differential towards government departments rooted in psychiatric professional  
360 expertise (Li and Ma, 2021). Nonetheless, intersectoral working was codified in formal  
361 arrangements, which is not the case in many other settings. In South Africa, there is a  
362 recognized need for input from social services, education, labour into recovery programmes  
363 (Gamiieldien et al., 2022). Further, recommendations were made that the Department of  
364 Health, Department of Social Development and NGO sectors should improve communication  
365 between sectors, promote leadership from all levels and formalise intersectoral relationships  
366 through appropriate written agreements (Brooke-Sumner et al., 2016). The lack of formal  
367 agreements and intersectoral policy was also highlighted in Timor-Leste, which often  
368 translated into limited prioritising of mental healthcare (Hall et al., 2019). Finally, there are  
369 persistent structural barriers faced by organisations and individuals alike when pursuing SMI  
370 recovery in community settings. For instance, the Banyan model faced challenged from

371 private property owners when attempting to secure housing for their beneficiaries, which  
372 included stigmatising attitudes towards people living with SMI and enacting a preference for  
373 residents who are more functional and mobile (Padmakar et al., 2020).

## 374 Discussion

375 The aim of this scoping review was to identify and describe multi- and intersectoral  
376 approaches to enable SMI recovery in LMICs. The principal finding of this scoping review is  
377 that while such approaches have been widely supported in literature on developing  
378 appropriate and responsive support systems for SMI, very few studies operationalise and  
379 describe how multi-and intersectoral work is done in relation to recovery services in LMICs.  
380 This is in contrast to the comparatively vast body of work on multisectoral interorganizational  
381 collaboration and networks for community SMI care developed in HICs (Fleury and Mercier,  
382 2002, Jørgensen et al., 2020, Lorant et al., 2017, Morrissey et al., 2002, Nicaise et al., 2021,  
383 Rosenheck et al., 1998, Whiteford et al., 2014, Wiktorowicz et al., 2010). From its origins  
384 from a WHO technical working group who realised that optimal sanitation requires a  
385 coordination between traditional public health and infectious disease actors, and engineering  
386 and water management specialists (de Leeuw, 2022), intersectoral action has gained traction  
387 in global health discourse, though this has not been robustly translated to services supporting  
388 SMI recovery. Our review highlights several areas where multi-and intersectoral collaboration  
389 has been demonstrated in LMICs with respect to community support for people living with  
390 SMI, particularly in the areas of housing support, the development and sustainment of  
391 protective spaces where recovery can take place, and linkages between health facilities and  
392 community resources.

393 The Integrated Recovery Model posits that each individual has subjective recovery needs,  
394 centred around basic needs such as accommodation and employment, as well as less tangible  
395 needs such as coping skills and hope. Three core components interact with these needs:  
396 remediation of functioning (recovering mental and physical wellbeing), collaborative  
397 restoration of skills and competencies (building hope through collaborative restoration of  
398 agency, function, and participation), and active community reconnection (re-establishing a  
399 place in the community with a range of skills and supports). Importantly, these processes  
400 unfold in linear and overlapping fashion. During the critical period following deterioration of  
401 wellbeing, remediation comes into play, where collaboration between various community

402 actors and sectors and acute mental health services are critical. During the restoration  
403 period, psychosocial rehabilitation becomes central, which again necessitates the  
404 mobilization of collaborations and resources in LMIC settings. Finally, moving towards an  
405 achievement of a degree of recovery, various community-based actors including NGOs, faith-  
406 based actors and community members becomes key (Frost et al., 2017). Our findings here  
407 suggest that, in most settings, elements of this model can be found, addressing the key  
408 movements from psychiatric relapse to recovery and community integration – whether  
409 through initial referral for specialist care, fulfilling basic needs, or sustaining safe spaces and  
410 collaborations across sectors for people to recover.

411 Importantly, in many societies where tightly-knit families and high level of social cohesion are  
412 prevalent, especially in African and sub-Indian continental communities, the family has (and  
413 continues to be) a central locus of care beyond the boundaries of facility-based mental  
414 healthcare (Alem et al., 2008, Chadda, 2012). Family caregivers in LMIC are key to creating an  
415 environment that supports recovery but the burden of care is compounded by less  
416 developed community systems of care, marked social stigma and certain cultural practices  
417 (Karambelas et al., 2022). People with SMI and their caregivers face barriers to securing  
418 formal income or employment, food, housing, transport, and education (Addo et al., 2018).  
419 Holistic care for this vulnerable group is thus intricately linked with poverty alleviation,  
420 development, and working towards social inclusion (Plagerson, 2015, Jenkins et al., 2011a,  
421 Jenkins et al., 2011b, Jenkins et al., 2011c, Lund et al., 2011) all of which have been  
422 hampered by the impact of COVID-19 (Kola et al., 2021).

423 Several studies indicate the leading coordinating role of non-governmental or charitable  
424 organizations (e.g. BasicNeeds) in bringing together stakeholders from other sectors for  
425 recovery-focused work. While this may be effective, NGOs are commonly reliant on donor  
426 funding and programmes may not be sustained in the long-term and the corresponding  
427 influence in coordinating intersectoral action may be eroded. While a whole of government  
428 approach is indicated it is likely that one stakeholder or partner sector should take a leading  
429 coordinating role in sustaining intersectoral work and this need not be the health sector. In  
430 principle this involves moving away from a purely biomedical model of treatment and  
431 recovery for severe mental illness in which sectors other than the health sector recognize the  
432 role of the social environment in creating psychosocial disability associated with these

433 conditions (World Health Organization, 2019). The benefits of such a shift also include  
434 sharing of the economic burden of SMI across sectors, a critical step away from health  
435 facility-focused spending (OECD, 2021). Although the literature on operationalised  
436 intersectoral and multisectoral work for recovery is limited, findings of this review suggest  
437 overarching domains for action that may be pursued (in context-specific ways) to drive  
438 intersectoral work in LMIC. These are: (i) building relationships between key actors including  
439 people with lived experience and families (iii) prioritising supportive spaces for recovery that  
440 help with fulfilling basic needs; (iii) building leadership capacity among actors to solidify and  
441 formalise intersectoral work; and (iv) integrating resource allocation between actors to  
442 underpin these approaches. Country specific approaches to may also benefit from  
443 leapfrogging, that is, harnessing strategies previously used in intersectoral initiatives of  
444 disability movements and advocacy for treatment and care for HIV and TB in LMIC.

#### 445 **Limitations**

446 The main limitation of this scoping review was the exclusion of non-English language papers,  
447 and of grey literature. This approach was taken as a feasible first approach to scoping the  
448 literature on this topic. A future review should consider inclusion of grey literature, given the  
449 importance of the non-profit/non-government sector in provision of community-based  
450 services for recovery. This review also did not include searches specifically looking at social  
451 welfare payments and health insurance coverage for treatment costs (which are available in  
452 some LMIC and may be considered a form of intersectoral work). A further scoping review is  
453 in process that will cover this topic.

454

#### 455 **Conclusion**

456 Multi- and intersectoral collaboration lies at the heart of recovery – “medical solutions to  
457 social problems are expensive, ineffective, and inefficient”, and integration between the  
458 biomedical and the social is “humane, cost-effective, and truly recovery-oriented” (Drake and  
459 Whitley, 2014). In this review, we have described limited, though promising, examples of  
460 such action. This hopefully serves as a call for researchers, policymakers and service providers  
461 to both work more deliberately with other sectors and to strive to be more strategic in doing  
462 so, while keeping the recovery needs of the individual at the centre of actions.

463

464 **Considerations for the future**

465 As the barriers outlined in the findings suggest, these are often piecemeal and relatively  
466 uncoordinated ventures, and require more deliberate, strategically coordinated actions.  
467 Multi- and intersectoral action for health and wellbeing involve strategies and action plans;  
468 long-term multisectoral and intersectoral initiatives; permanent structures; projects;  
469 legislative or parliamentary decisions; and tools (World Health Organization, 2018). The  
470 following five recommendations have been suggested to facilitate intersectoral action for  
471 mental health in LMICs (Skeen et al., 2010) which align with the four domains for action  
472 described above:

- 473 1. Develop supportive legislation and policy alongside the other formalized structures  
474 for intersectoral action
- 475 2. Develop leadership in the health sector and beyond, especially in cross-cutting  
476 agencies
- 477 3. Employ targeted awareness-raising to engage all relevant sectors in order to specify  
478 roles, responsibilities and strategies
- 479 4. Develop a formal, structured approach to intersectoral action for mental health to  
480 address the lack of dedicated budgeting and unclear roles
- 481 5. Drive intersectoral work on a microlevel, in order to effectively address basic services  
482 such as water, electricity and sanitation

483 The principles for recovery-related service delivery should further be couched in these  
484 structures, including that services are person-centred, holistic and inclusive; enable agency  
485 and self-management; integrated across the care continuum; seamless and complementary  
486 across government departments, NGOs and other services; evidence-based; underlines  
487 equity in choosing service options; and are aligned with national, national and local strategy  
488 (Frost et al., 2017).

489 In terms of the findings reported here, generating universal recommendations or actions is  
490 challenging given the wide array of health and social systems across countries and regions.  
491 Nonetheless, there are thematic clusters that could provide direction to policymakers and

492 other stakeholders in strengthening recovery efforts in an inter and multisectoral way. A  
493 common strategy that emerged relates to providing housing support, which ranged from  
494 communal, semi-institutionalised recovery settings to independent living in supportive  
495 housing arrangements. This requires the acquisition and appropriate management of physical  
496 spaces and require partnerships between the health sector, public civil infrastructure sector  
497 as well as private citizens and organisations, and formal arrangements through public-private  
498 partnerships should be set in place. Regarding community support systems, many examples  
499 here highlight linkages between people living with SMI and their caregivers, and various  
500 community-based resources. This requires a community-based body, organisation, clinic or  
501 government agency (depending on the health system configuration) that can set up  
502 relationships with and curate a list of a range of resources that people can be referred to.  
503 Especially in lower-resource settings, it is essential to tap into existing resources beyond the  
504 health sector that often remain underutilised in supporting people living with SMI. Lessons  
505 can be gleaned from many examples of multisectoral collaboration in addressing HIV, TB and  
506 non-communicable diseases. In terms of supportive spaces for recovery, many NGOs provide  
507 such environments with various types and degrees of support, much of which relates to  
508 assistance in navigating the bureaucracies involved in accessing grant schemes as well as  
509 supporting people to access the job market. This requires willing employers and a supportive  
510 employment work environment, which, given perpetuating stigma, would require  
511 educational investment as well as buy-in from appropriate employers. In terms of the  
512 bureaucracies of accessing grant schemes, more can be done by government agencies to  
513 remove administrative obstacles for people living with SMI, for example, making the medical  
514 diagnostic screening process more accessible. Finally, it is crucial to develop an appropriate  
515 health worker mix to deliver the complex range of activities within the ambit of recovery and  
516 inter- and multisectoral approaches. Task-sharing and empowering lay health workers have  
517 grown substantially as a viable option for constrained settings, and lay health workers can  
518 potentially offer crucial linkages with sectors and resources outside of the health sector.  
519 Nonetheless, these workers need appropriate training, regulation and a supportive career  
520 pathway in order to sustain their role in recovery-oriented services.

521 Finally, a particular challenge that emerged during the search and screen phases of this  
522 review was the imprecision evident in descriptions of multi-and intersectoral collaboration.

523 Descriptions of the roles and remits of sectors were lacking, and are required to give context  
524 to the application of multi or intersectoral work. Intersectoral collaboration has been  
525 described as “an intricate web of interdependent organisations, individuals and behaviours,  
526 implicitly or explicitly driven by beliefs or assumptions to pursue a set of interconnected  
527 ideals, goals and objectives through the variously dispersed and joint control and allocation  
528 of resources” (de Leeuw, 2022). Given this complexity, an approach to render descriptions of  
529 multi- and intersectoral work more explicit could be for reviewers and journals involved in  
530 publishing recovery-based studies and interventions to request details on the ways that  
531 partnerships are formed and maintained (partnership working as a heading).

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533 AVR and CBS conceptualised the study, conducted the search, screening and analysis, and co-  
534 wrote and endorsed the final draft.

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### 548 **Conflict of Interest statement**

549 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

### 550 **Ethics statement**

551 Not applicable.

## 552 Data Availability statement

553 Data available on request from the corresponding author.

554

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