42nd National Council Mental Health and Addictions Conference

#### **Psychiatrists Summit:**

**Bidirectional Integration: A 360-degree View** Sunday, April 15, 2012, 10:15 am – 5:00 pm

Primary Care Updates for Psychiatrists Monday, April 16, 2012, 8:00 am – 12:00 pm

Room: Lake Ontario, Eighth Floor

#### **Bidirectional Integration: A 360-degree View:**

**Benjamin Druss**, MD, MPH, Rosalynn Carter Chair in Mental Health, Department of Health Policy and Management, Rollins School of Public Health, Emory University

John Kern, MD, Chief Medical Officer, Regional Mental Health Center

Lori Raney, MD, Medical Director, Axis Health System

**George Rust**, MD, MPH, Professor of Family Medicine, Director, National Center for Primary Care, Morehouse School of Medicine

#### Primary Care Updates for Psychiatrists:

Laurie Carrier, MD, Family Physician and Psychiatrist, Heartland International Health Center, Clinical Instructor, Northwestern Feinberg School of Medicine

John Kern, MD, Chief Medical Officer, Regional Mental Health Center

Lori Raney, MD, Medical Director, Axis Health System

Raymond Rion, MD, Medical Director, Packard Health



#### AGENDA – PSYCHIATRISTS' AND MEDICAL DIRECTORS' SUMMIT

#### IMPROVING LIVES AND LIFESPANS: THE COMMUNITY PSYCHIATRISTS' ROLE

SUNDAY, APRIL 15, 2012

10:15	Welcome and Introductions – Lori Raney, MD, Medical Director, Axis Health System, Chair APA Workgroup on Integrated Care
11:00	Jurgen Unutzer, MD, Vice Chair, Department of Psychiatry, University of Washington
11:25	Ben Druss, MD, Rosslyn Carter Chair in Mental Health, Emory University
11:50	Break
12:00	George Rust, MD, Director, National Center for Primary Care, Morehouse School of Medicine
12:25	Lori Raney, MD, APA Workgroup on Integrated Care
12:50	Lunch/Networking – Lunch provided by National Council
2:00	Break- out Group #1 (choose either Druss, Unutzer or Kern/Rust)
2:45	Break and move to next group
3:00	Break – out Group #2 (choose either Druss, Unutzer, Kern/Rust)
3:45	Wrap-Up, Discussion
5:00	Summit Concludes







Advancing Integrated Mental Health Solutions



Building on 25 years of Research and Practice in Integrated Mental Health Care

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# Most mental health services are provided in primary care.











Few clients with behavioral health problems receive effective treatment.

~ 25%	~ 25 %	~ 25 %
Not recognized or effectively engaged in care	Drop out of treatment too early	Stay on ineffective treatments for too long
62011 University of Washington		AIMS CENTER Advancing Integrated Mental Health Solu

















## Long-Term Cost Savings

Cost Category	4-year costs in \$	Intervention group cost in \$	Usual care group cost in \$	Difference in \$	
IMPACT program cost		522	0	522	
Outpatient mental health costs	661	558	767	-210	Savings
Pharmacy costs	7,284	6,942	7,636	-694	
Other outpatient costs	14,306	14,160	14,456	-296	
Inpatient medical costs	8,452	7,179	9,757	-2578	
Inpatient mental health / substance abuse costs	114	61	169	-108	-
Total health care cost	31,082	29,422	32,785	-\$3363	
Unützer et al., Am J Managed Care	2008.				МРАСТ
©2011 University of Washington			AIM	S CENTER Advancing Integ	grated Mental Health Solu

## **Endorsements**

- IOM Report
- Presidents New Freedom Commission on Mental Health
- National Business Group on Health
- AHRQ Report
- CDC Consensus Panel
- SAMHSA

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 National Registry of Evidence-Based Programs & Practices (NREPP)



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### **IMPACT Replication Studies**

Patient Population (Study Name)	Target Clinical Conditions	Reference
Adult primary care patients (Pathways)	Diabetes and depression	Katon et al., 2004
Adult patients in safety net clinics (Project Dulce; Latinos)	Diabetes and depression	Gilmer et al., 2008
Adult patients in safety net clinics (Latino patients)	Diabetes and depression	Ell et al., 2010
Public sector oncology clinic (Latino patients)	Cancer and depression	Dwight-Johnson et al., 2005 Ell et al., 2008
HMO patients	Depression in primary care	Grypma et al., 2006
Adolescents in primary care	Adolescent depression	Richardson et al., 2009
Older adults	Arthritis and depression	Unützer et al., 2008
Acute coronary syndrome patients (COPES)	Coronary events and depression	Davidson et al., 2010

## **INTEGRATED CARE**

## Implementation Experience

2011 University of Washing



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Web-based Registry				
Image: State of the state o	<ul> <li>Access from anywhere.</li> <li>Population-based.</li> <li>Keeps track of 'caseloads'.</li> </ul>			
<ul> <li>Structures clinical encounters.</li> <li>Prompts follow-up.</li> <li>Facilitates consultation.</li> </ul>	The second secon			

Mental health diagnoses in primary care				
Diagnoses	%			
Depression	71 %			
Anxiety (GAD, Panic)	48 %			
Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD)	17 %			
Alcohol / Substance Abuse	38 %			
Bipolar Disorder	15 %			
Thoughts of Suicide45% plus acute and chronic medical problems, chronic pain, substance use, prescription narcotic misuse, homelessness, unemployment, poverty,				
Δ [ M 2 servers ]				

#### Sample Community Health Center (6 clinics; over 2,000 clients served)

Population	Mean baseline PHQ-9 depressi on score (0-27)	Follow- up (%)	Mean number of care coordina -tor contacts	% with psych consulta tion	% with significant clinical improveme nt
Disabled	16.7	92 %	8	69%	43 %
Uninsured	15.8	83 %	8	59%	50 %
Older Adults	15.3	92 %	8	55%	43 %
Veterans & Family	15 .5	92%	7	54%	53%
High risk Mothers	15.4 Data from Care	81% Management Tr	<b>7</b> acking System (	<b>50 %</b> CMTS); <u>http://uw</u>	60% /aims.org.



































































www.TheNationalCouncil.org/Conference Choices Real People Make					
Diabetic Patient with Depression	Agree to Accept Referral and then Don't Go	Accept Referral to Psychiatry Practice	Deal with Mental Health Problem in Primary Care Setting Only		
Get Help	X	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$		
Avoid Stigma	$\checkmark$		$\checkmark$		
Get Optimal Treatment		$\checkmark$	X		
Coordinate Psych & Medical Rx		?			
42 <sup>NO</sup> NATIONAL COUNCIL mentalhealthandaddictionsCONFERENCE april 15-17, 2012 I chicago					
































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	Menta	I Heal	th Co-N	<b>Iorbid</b>	ities in	fl	he				
Disabled Medicaid Population											
Diseases Associated with High Co-Morbidity Rates ( $\geq$ 50% with $\geq$ 3 comorbidities)											
		Prevalence of									
Disease Diagnosis (Dx)	n	tnis Diagnosis in adult, non- pregnant ABD Population	% among Pop with this Dx who also have at least 3 Other Co-Morbid Diseases	% among Pop with this Dx who also have any Mental Health Dx*	% among Pop with this Dx who also have any Substance Abuse	% among Pop wth this Dx who also have either Mental Health or Substance Abuse (or both)					
Hypertension	10,545	30.0%	60.2%	26.7%	17.6%		36.5%				
Musculoskeletal	8,683	3 24.7% 54.6% 33.1% 19.8%					42.4%				
Lipid / Metabolic	7.6 • 73% of patients with SUD have at 39.4%										
Diabetes	<sup>5,1</sup> least 3 other co-morbid diseases										
Substance Abuse	3,7 100.0%										
COPD	2.9 • 36% of asthma and COPD patients 56.1%										
Heart (not CHF/CAD)	<sup>2,5</sup> have a mental health diagnosis										
Vascular	2,3 44.1%										
Coronary Dz (CAD)	2.1 • 33% of diabetics have either a mental 44.0%										
Blood (not hemophilia)	<sup>2,0</sup> health or substance use diagnosis <sup>47.1%</sup>										
Cancer	1,998	D.1%	01.0%	20.0%	2.5%		38.5%				
Asthma	1,798 5.1% 52.5% 35.7% 28.0% 49.0%										































































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	Т	eamCa	are	Su	mma	ary	Rej	oor	t	
Initial	Clinic	Enroll Data	P	HQ	B	P	Hb	A <sub>1c</sub>	L	DL
initiai	Clinic	Enroli Date	BL	Now	BL	Now	BL	Now	BL	Now
	NSH	5/19/08	19	19	141/ 69	127/ 77	7.3	6.8	168	138
	NSH	1/9/08	15	2	118/ 80	130/ 80	9.2	8.3	138	124
	EVM	11/12/07	14	9	160/ 98	150/ 85	6.4	6.8	108	67
	EVM	10/30/07	13	2	209/ 119	126/ 76	7.3	7.7	119	103
	LYN	8/23/07	14	3	149/ 71	111/	8.1	7.7	85	82



<b>~</b>	www.TheNationalCouncil.org/Cor
Intergy FIR by Sage: OB-GYNE Associates of Lake Forest	-02
IDHR Actions Patient Tools Setup Mediscape Reports Help	
🕈 Provider Desktop 🛁 Patient Chart 🖓 Orders/Charges 📝 Encounter Note 🙎 OB Chart	
🖥 📓 Smith, Tanya A. 🖲 10/29/1984 23yo F 🛛 Encounter: 12/11/07 Obstetrical Examination, Initial Visi	* 🔮 👘 🖓 🖉
MP: 10/22/07 EDD: 07/30/08 (by: U/S, Clin) GA 10w 6d	Gravids 1 Term 0 Preterm 0 Ab 0 Liv: 0
Iowsheet Return Visit Initial Visit Risk Factors Labs Ultrasound Education Health Rh- 0	
OB History Medical History Genetic & Exposure Screening Vitals Initial Physical Exam	
New Pregnancy HCG: 11/27/07 ♥ ● uine ● serum Level ♥ Note:: No Compla	ints
Probable Conception:	
Baseline Weight 132 💘 b 💌 oz	
Transferred Care: 🔲 First Visit:	<u></u>
Menstrual History	
LMP: 10/22/07 V (*) rml () abn () on BCP PMP (09/16/07 V room:	21
Menanche (Age Onset) 13 W years	2
Family OB History	
Patient Bith Wt. 6 0 b 12 cc Highest Bith Wt. b cc Notes:	<u>a</u>
Father's Birth WL: 💌 b 💌 oz	
Hx of Traunatic Births in close family members	<u></u>
Pregnancy Summary	
Total 1 Full Term 0 Premature: 0 Ab. Induced 0 Ab. Spont 0 Ectopic: 0 Mult	N: 0 V Liv: 0 V
Past Pregnancies New Past Preg	
Date Time GA Length of Bith W1 Sex Type of Anes Place of Bith Complean	tions Constents User Under
berting period according to berting	. uputou
140 L/BRZ F DIATIO	
Sign	cPrev Nexto Seve Done







						www.TheNational	Council.org/Conference
		Patient Info Name: John D	Doe		Age: <b>41</b>	Health Maintenance	Date
		Diagnosis / P Chronic disease, Diabetes, CHPD	roblem List COPD, PTSD A , Stroke '02, amp	xis 3 dual d outee	lisorder,	Well Visit Mammogram Colonoscopy PAP	10/4/2011
			_	_		PSA Dental Visit	7/25/11
Physical	Initial	Current	Range	larget	Growth	Immunizations	4/15/11
Weight	195	170	140 – 165	165	Charts	Allergies	
Temp	98.6	101.2	98.6	98.6		Penicillin, dust	
					MH Scree	n - PediatricInitial	Current
MH Screen	- Aduli	Initial	Current Annu	al Chg	ASQ	-5	5
Audit:		2	4 5		Adolesce	nt PHQ9 25	+1
GAD7		19	11		CRAFFT	0	
Stages		15	0		Strengths	& Difficulties 103	-5
Other					Other		
Other							
Tobacco	)	Y	N		Tobacco		
Trends	Initial	Current	Range	Target	M	edications Date	
BP	110/60	140/85	90-110/55-70	0 110/60		Prozac 20mg 10/14/	11
HBA1C	82	25.0 8.7	18.5 - 24.9	23.0 9	•	Prozac 30mg 6/3/11	
Cholesterol	215	210	110 -350	200	T T	1	
PHQ-9	15	14	0-27	11	<u></u>		
Other	x	x	x	x			<u> </u>
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42nd National Council Mental Health and Addictions Conference

## **Psychiatrists Summit: Primary Care Updates for Psychiatrists**

## Monday, April 16, 2012, 8:00 am – 12:00 pm Room: Lake Ontario, Eighth Floor

Laurie Carrier, MD, Family Physician and Psychiatrist, Heartland International Health Center, Clinical Instructor, Northwestern Feinberg School of Medicine

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Lori Raney, MD, Medical Director, Axis Health System

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assess 10-year (short-term) CHD Risk w/ the Framingham Risk Score				
Available at: http://hp2010.nhlbihin.net/atpiii/calculator.asp?usertype=prof				
NATIONAL CHOLESTINOL EDUCATION PROGRAM				
Third Report of the Expert Panel on Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood	Cholesterol in Adults (Adult Treatment Panel II	1		
Piek Assessment Tool for Estimating 10 year	- Disk of Developing Hand CUD	Diak		
rusk Assessment routor Esumating To-year	r Risk of Developing Hard CHD	KISK		
(Myocardial Infaction and Coronary Death) The riskassessment too below uses recent data to estimate 10-year risk for "hard" coronary heart infarction and coronary death). This tool is design	from the Framingham Heart Study disease outcomes (myocardial red to estimate risk in adults aged	Low	< 10% (ideally, < 5%)	
(Invocation Infarction and Coronary Death) The risk assessment tool below uses recent data to estimate 10-year risk for "hard" coronary heart infarction and coronary death). This tool is design 20 and vider who do not have heart disease or di estimate 10-year risk.	I from the Framingham Heart Study disease outcomes (myocardial hed to estimate risk in adults aged liabetes. Use the calculator below to	Low Intermediate	< 10% (ideally, < 5%) 10% to 20%	
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(Wocardial Infarction and Coronary Death) The <u>risk assessment tod</u> below uses recert data to estimate 10-year risk for 'hard' coronary heart 10 and idder who do nothave heart disease or di estimate 10-year risk. Age: Gender: <u>Total Cholesterol</u>	r Kisk of Developing Hard CHD from the Framingham Heart Study disease outcomes (myocardial ned to estimate risk in adults aged iabetes. Use the calculator below to years ○ Female ○ Maie mg/dL	Low Intermediate	< 10% (ideally, < 5%) 10% to 20% > 20%	
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NCEP ATF _DL-C Go	P     als of Thera	ару	
	LDL-C Level (mg/dL)		
lisk Category	Goal	TLC Initiated	Drug Therapy Considered
igh: CHD or CHD sk equivalents 0-year risk >20%)	<100 Optional goal <70	2100	≥100 (<100: consider drug therapy)
1oderately high: 2+ sk factors (10-year sk 10%-20%)	<130 Optional goal <100	≥130	≥130 (100-129: consider drug therapy)
loderate: 2+ risk actors (10-year sk <10%)	<130	≥130	≥160
wer: 0-1 risk	<160	≥160	≥190 (160-189: drug optional)

Risk Category	LDL-C Levels	LDL-C Goal
	(when drug therapy is considered)	
) to 1 risk factor	190 mg/dL or higher	160 mg/dl or lower
2 or more risk factors	160 mg/dL or higher	130 mg/dl or lower
People with heart	130 mg/dL	100 mg/dl
lisease, diabetes,	or higher	or lower





Medication Class	Medication Examples	Effects on Blood Cholesterol
Statins (HMG-CoA reductase)	Pravachol, Mevacor, Lipitor, Lescol, Crestor, Zocor	Most effective in lowering LDL     Mildly effective in increasing HDL     Mildly effective in lowering triglycerides
Niacin (nicotinic acid)	Niacin, Niaspan, Slo-Niacin	Most effective in increasing HDL     Effective in lowering triglycerides     Mildly to modestly effective in lowering LDL
Fibrates (fibric acid)	Tricor, Lopid	Most effective in lowering triglycerides     Effective in increasing HDL     Minimally effective in lowering LDL
Resins (bile acid sequestrants)	Questran, Welchol, Colestid	Mildly to modestly effective in lowering LDL     No effect on HDL and triglycerides
Cholesterol Absorption Inhibitors	Zetia	Mildly to modestly effective in lowering LDL     No effect on HDL and triglycerides
Combining nicotinic acid with statin	Advicor (Mevacor + Niaspan)	Effective in lowering LDL and triglycerides and increasing HDL
Combining statin with an absorption inhibitor	Vytorin (Zocor + Zetia)	Synergistic in lowering LDL and effective in     lowering LDL with low doses of each ingredien











































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Weight	Gain w/ Atypicals
TABLE 1. Relative Incidence of	Weight Gain of Second-generation Antipsychotics <sup>1,4</sup>
Generic (Trade Name)	Weight Gain
Clozapine (Clozaril)	++++
Olanzapine (Zyprexa)	++++
Kisperidone (Kisperdal)	++
Quetiapine (Seroquel)	++
Ampiprazole (AbiliTy)	
Daliparidone (Invoga)*	+ +
A senanine (Sanhris)*	+/++
Hoperidone (Fanant)*	+/++
Relative weight-gain risk: +, low; ++, mo Relative risk based on doses within the re	derate; +++, moderately high; ++++, high. commended therapeutic range. secific factors.











































































































































































































































































# References



Available online at www.sciencedirect.com



General Hospital Psychiatry

General Hospital Psychiatry 33 (2011) 305-310

# Consultation psychiatry in the medical home and accountable care organizations: achieving the triple aim

Wayne Katon, M.D.\*, Jürgen Unützer, M.D., M.P.H.

Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, University of Washington, Seattle, WA, USA Received 20 April 2011; accepted 18 May 2011

We are in a time of increasing concern about unsustainable increases in health care costs to Medicare, Medicaid, employers and individuals. At the same time, more than half of patients with mental health needs do not receive care in any given year [1], and untreated mental disorders can be important drivers of high health care costs. As in the rest of health care, we are challenged with achieving the "triple aim" of improving access to care while at the same time improving quality and outcomes of care and reducing total health care costs [2]. To achieve this triple aim, psychiatrists of the future will have to shift professional roles. In addition to traditional consultation liaison activities focused on individual patients in outpatient clinics or hospital settings, psychiatrists should have important roles in monitoring behavioral health needs, treatments and treatment outcomes for defined populations of patients and providing supervision and guidance to interdisciplinary teams of primary care and behavioral health providers caring for a defined panel of patients.

Two important concepts that are being advocated to improve patients' experience and satisfaction with care as well as the quality and cost-effectiveness of medical care are primary care-based patient-centered medical homes and accountable care organizations (ACOs). The principles of the medical home are aimed at enhancing the potential benefits of primary care by emphasizing access to care, long-term relationships with health care providers, and coordination and comprehensiveness of care [3]. These principles also emphasize the importance of health care teams using evidence-based approaches and effective quality improvement methods [1]. Payment systems are being developed to provide financial incentives for primary care practices to transform their practices into medical homes and to make "meaningful use" of electronic medical record systems and other health information technology to improve coordination, quality and outcomes of care. The National Committee for Quality Assurance (NCQA) has established criteria for levels of adaptation of practices to the medical home concept, with increasing payments for higher levels of development [4]. These criteria include the capacity to care for patients with behavioral health conditions. Federal and state payers are also developing criteria for quality of care including behavioral health care for populations that will gain insurance coverage under health care reform [5].

Accountable care organizations are built on the concept of physicians, nurses and other allied health professionals working as a team to provide the most efficient and costeffective care of patients across different care settings [6]. The concept of ACOs assumes that primary and specialty care systems and hospitals will work closely together, often as single governing units [6]. Electronic records will integrate outpatient and inpatient systems and other information technologies such as patient registries are seen as key tools in improving the continuity and effectiveness of practice. ACOs will share with the federal government financial savings the organization may produce in medical costs to the population they are responsible for [7].

Given the changes in health care systems and the emphasis on improving quality of care and decreasing costs, what are the potential roles of consultation psychiatrists in enhancing the aims of medical homes and ACOs?

The prevalence of common mental disorders in primary care populations is approximately 20% to 25% in employed populations [8] and up to 50% in uninsured or Medicaid

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<sup>0163-8343/\$ –</sup> see front matter  $\mbox{\sc c}$  2011 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved. doi:10.1016/j.genhosppsych.2011.05.011

populations [9]. Under the Affordable Care Act, the "low income expansion" of Medicaid is scheduled to more than double the number of working age adults receiving Medicaid by 2014. Given that mental illnesses are an important driver of disability and associated unemployment and poverty [10], we can expect high rates of mental health and substance abuse disorders in this expansion population, and costeffective integrated behavioral health care will be a high opportunity intervention area for Medicaid.

After controlling for socioeconomic factors and medical comorbidity, primary care patients with anxiety and depressive disorders have been shown to have up to twofold greater medical costs compared with patients without mental health disorders [11,12]. Patients with anxiety and depressive disorders have also been shown to present to primary care approximately 70% of the time with physical rather than mental health complaints [13]. Those presenting with physical complaints are more likely to have delay in mental health diagnosis or misdiagnosis [14]. Patients with anxiety and depressive disorders have also been found to have two-to threefold more physical symptoms on medical review of systems even after controlling for medical comorbidity [14], which may explain the large increases in medical costs these patients have.

Because of the economic incentives, many primary care clinics will be reorganizing staff and systems of care to qualify for meeting criteria for a medical home. The 2011 NCQA criteria for becoming a level 2 medical home will require primary care clinics to demonstrate population-based approaches for quality improvement for three chronic illnesses, one of which must be a behavioral disorder such as major depression [4]. Consultation psychiatrists can utilize the knowledge developed from over 20 years of research and 40 randomized controlled trials on collaborative care for depression [15] to aid primary care systems in developing interdisciplinary teams, which improve the cost-effectiveness of care provided for depression and other common mental disorders. Such programs include an allied health professional (also called behavioral health care manager or a behavioral health professional) in primary care who supports behavioral health treatments initiated by primary care providers. Health care managers are trained to provide patient education about common mental disorders, proactively track clinical symptoms using rating scales such as the Patient Health Questionnaire-9 [16] for depression and the Generalized Anxiety Disorder-7 [17] for anxiety, support adherence to medications and provide brief, evidence-based forms of counseling such as behavioral activation or problemsolving treatment. Each collaborative care team also includes a consulting psychiatrist who provides caseload-focused consultation and supervision for a panel of patients treated in primary care. The psychiatrist advises primary care providers about diagnostic and therapeutic questions such as changes in medication management if patients are not improving as expected. The psychiatrist may also see selected patients who provide particular diagnostic or therapeutic challenges in

consultation either in person or via televideo technology. Such collaborative depression care programs have been shown to improve quality of depression care and depression outcomes [15], social and physical functioning [15] and satisfaction with care for patients and primary care providers [18]. Collaborative depression care has been shown to be cost-effective compared with usual primary care because for a small increment in cost, there is a marked improvement in depression care has been shown to be effective over the entire age span, including adolescents [20], adults [15] and older adults with a range of comorbid medical problems [21,22].

Given the very high prevalence of mental disorders and alcohol and substance abuse in Medicaid and uninsured populations [9,23], Federally Qualified Health Centers and many other primary care clinics serving safety net populations have added mental health professionals including psychiatrists to their staffs [24]. The Veteran's administration and several statewide health insurance programs fund integrated collaborative care teams in primary care that include behavioral health care managers and psychiatric consultation that focuses on a panel of patients and may not involve direct patient contact. These programs include the DIAMOND (Depression Improvement across Minnesota: a New Direction) program in which six large commercial payors in the state of Minnesota provide case rate payments for evidence-based collaborative care for depression in over 80 primary care clinics in the state of Minnesota [25]. Over 6000 clients have been served by this program to date, and early outcomes suggest similar rates of depression improvement as in randomized controlled trials of collaborative care [25]. A similar statewide program is the Mental Health Integration Program sponsored by State of Washington and Public Health of Seattle and King County in collaboration with the Community Health Plan of Washington [26]. In this program, behavioral health care coordinators work in over 100 community health centers throughout the state working with primary care providers to care for safety net patients with both medical and behavioral health needs. A group of 20 consulting psychiatrists provide regular (weekly) consultation to behavioral health care coordinators and primary care providers in the participating community health centers. Treatment for patients who require more intensive behavioral health care is coordinated with 1 of 30 partnering community mental health centers. Over 18,000 individuals have received integrated behavioral health care in this program, and an early program evaluation shows beneficial effects on homelessness and arrest rates in addition to high rates of engagement and improved patient outcomes [26].

In some populations, collaborative care has been also shown not only to be cost-effective but also to have a high likelihood of savings in total medical costs while improving outcomes. In the Epidemiologic Catchment Area Study, the community respondents with panic disorder had the highest risk compared with community respondents without psychiatric disorders of being high utilizers of medical services [27]. Patients with panic often present with frightening cardiologic, gastrointestinal and neurologic symptoms that precipitate expensive medical workups [28]. Two studies that compared collaborative care approaches to usual primary care in treatment of panic disorder have shown a high likelihood of savings in total medical costs and improved anxiety and quality of life outcomes [29,30]. In one of these trials, the addition of two to three psychiatric visits aimed at improving psychopharmacologic management of panic disorder significantly improved outcomes compared with usual care [29]. In the second trial, the psychiatrist acted as a supervisor of an anxiety care manager and recommended changes in medication that the case manager brought to the primary care physicians [30].

Another subgroup of patients that have extremely high medical utilization and costs are those with chronic somatization. These patient have often experienced high rates of childhood adversity, have many adverse health behaviors (such as smoking, poor diet and obesity, sedentary lifestyle and substance abuse), often prematurely develop diseases of aging such as diabetes and heart disease, and present to physicians with many physical symptoms that cannot be explained by medical workups [31,32]. They often experience both chronic emotional and physical pain and are at high risk for iatrogenic harm due to unnecessary procedures, surgeries and overuse of prescription medications, particularly opiates and benzodiazepines. In many states, Medicaid pharmacy budgets have been stressed because of the widespread use of expensive prescription opiates for chronic benign pain. There is also increasing concern about adverse selection — the use of these medications by primary care physicians for high-risk populations with extensive psychiatric histories and/or prior histories of drug and alcohol abuse [33]. Psychiatrists can help by developing guidelines for screening populations for high risk for overuse of those medications, developing comprehensive management plans that include addressing functional impairment and untreated mental disorders and helping primary care practices implement safe limits on dosage and prescription refills.

Consultation with a psychiatrist can also play an important role in patients with chronic somatization in providing an accurate diagnosis and developing treatment plans that help minimize risk of addiction to prescription medications and overly aggressive medical and surgical interventions. Development of behavior contracts such as pain contracts can be very helpful in reducing prescription drug abuse and adverse outcomes. Recent studies have also demonstrated the effectiveness of collaborative care approaches coupled with Suboxone treatments for primary care patients who often had overlapping opiate addiction and pain problems [34]. Alcohol and substance abuse screening and brief intervention programs in primary care have been shown to be effective and associated with a high likelihood of cost savings [35]. Psychiatrists with addiction training could play a role in supervising care managers for these patient populations. On the extreme end of patients with somatization are those with somatization disorder, whose medical costs may be 5- to 10-fold higher than primary care controls [36]. Several trials that focused on providing practitioners with more accurate diagnosis and recommend management plans based on a psychiatric consultation for patients with somatization disorder or subclinical somatization disorder have shown a high likelihood of cost savings [36,37].

#### 1. Comorbid medical and psychiatric illness

With the aging of the US population, more and more Americans are living with one or more chronic medical illnesses, and rates of major depression have been found to be two- to threefold higher in patients with chronic medical illness [38]. Depression is also more persistent in aging populations with chronic medical illnesses, with the mean duration of an episode of 18 months [39]. Comorbid depression has been found to be associated with poor selfcare (i.e., adherence to diet, exercise and taking medications as prescribed), higher medical symptom burden, greater functional impairment and higher risk of complications and mortality [40]. Comorbid depression in patients with chronic medical illness also has been shown to be associated with 50% to 70% greater costs [41]. Given the high level of baseline costs due to medical illness, this increase in costs is magnified. For instance, in a large health maintenance organization, the total annual medical cost of a middle-aged patient without significant medical illness is about US\$1500, the cost of a middle-aged patient with depression without comorbid medical illness is about US\$3000, the cost of a middle-aged patient with diabetes is about US\$6,000 and the cost of a middle-aged patient with diabetes and comorbid depression is over US\$9000 [11,12,41].

Three trials of collaborative depression care versus usual primary care in patients with diabetes and comorbid depression have shown that collaborative care was more effective in improving quality of depression care and depression outcomes over a 2-year period [42-44]. The Improving Mood-Promoting Access to Collaborative Treatment trial randomized 1801 aging patients with depression and a mean of four other chronic illnesses to collaborative versus usual care and also showed improved depression outcomes and functioning in the intervention verses usual care group over a 2-year period [45]. All four trials provided an intervention with a care manager, who encouraged a choice of starting with antidepressant medication or an evidence-based psychotherapy. A psychiatrist conducted weekly supervision on the entire caseload of the care manager, focusing on patients who provide diagnostic or therapeutic challenges or who are not improving as expected. The psychiatric consultant recommended initial medication choices, changes in medications if patients were not improving, or other diagnostic or therapeutic suggestions that care managers then would communicate to the primary care physician. All four trials have shown a high likelihood that the increased mental health costs associated

with collaborative care were offset by savings in total medical costs over a 2-year period [42–45]. Two of these examined long-term costs and showed continued cost savings associated with collaborative care for up to 5 years [46,47].

Although quality improvement trials have shown that care management approaches aimed at improving care of single illnesses such as depression, diabetes and coronary heart disease can improve outcomes, many patients have multiple chronic illnesses, and these patients have the most problems with quality of care and adverse outcomes and are very costly to medical systems [48]. For instance, among Medicare beneficiaries with diabetes, depression or congestive heart failure, approximately 60% to 70% have three or more other chronic medical conditions [48]. Patients with three or more chronic conditions have been found to account for approximately 40% of Medicare costs [48,49]. A new multicondition collaborative care intervention program, termed TEAMcare, has been shown to improve depression, glucose, blood pressure and low-density lipoprotein cholesterol outcomes compared with usual care in patients with poorly controlled diabetes and/or coronary heart disease and comorbid depression [50]. This program trained diabetes nurses to enhance treatment of diabetes, coronary heart disease and depression and provided weekly supervision of nurses by both a psychiatrist and primary care physician. The TEAMcare intervention can be used by primary care systems to meet the 2011 NCQA criteria for a level 2 medical home that will require quality improvement efforts for two chronic medical diseases and one behavioral condition [4]. Preliminary data from this study suggest a high likelihood of total outpatient cost savings over a 2-year period.

#### 2. Inpatient medical/surgical readmission

A major focus of the health reform will be to attempt to decrease hospital readmissions among chronically ill patients [51]. Several models have been developed to improve continuity between inpatient admission and outpatient medical care to decrease readmissions [52,53]. These models have, however, not focused attention on the high rates of depression, post-traumatic stress disorder and cognitive impairment that have been documented in patients with a serious medical/surgical admission [54–56]. Prior epidemiologic data have shown that comorbid depression and other psychiatric illnesses are risk factors for readmission in these populations [55]. Psychiatrists can help with implementing effective screening and treatment for psychiatric problems such as depression and delirium in the context of these emerging health service models.

#### 3. Conclusion

Evidence-based collaborative care programs effectively "leverage" the specialty expertise of a consulting psychiatrist who takes responsibility for an entire panel of patients cared for by an integrated behavioral health care team in a medical home or an ACO. Consulting psychiatrists regularly discuss a panel of patients with case managers and primary care physicians, and they may perform brief, focused evaluations of patients where there are diagnostic questions (e.g., clarification of a diagnosis of bipolar disorder) in person or via telemedicine, but they limit traditional complete face-toface evaluations to patients who are not improving as expected. This approach can improve access to behavioral health care for large populations served in primary care and focuses the specialty expertise of consultants on the patients who are the most challenging. These population-focused collaborative care approaches can help health care systems achieve the triple aim of improving access to evidence-based behavioral health care, improving patient and provider satisfaction, improving health outcomes and reducing health care costs.

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#### Article

# Budget Impact and Sustainability of Medical Care Management for Persons With Serious Mental Illnesses

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**Objective:** The authors assessed the 2-year outcomes, costs, and financial sustainability of a medical care management intervention for community mental health settings.

**Method:** A total of 407 psychiatric outpatients with serious mental illnesses were randomly assigned to usual care or to a medical care manager who provided care coordination and education. Two-year follow-up chart reviews and interviews assessed quality and outcomes of care, as well as costs from both the health system and managerial perspectives.

**Results:** Sustained improvements were observed in the intervention group in quality of primary care preventive services, quality of cardiometabolic care, and mental health-related quality of life. From a health system perspective, by year 2, the mean per-patient total costs for the intervention group were \$932 (95% CI=-1,973 to 102) less than for the usual

care group, with a 92.3% probability that the program was associated with lower costs than usual care. From the community mental health center perspective, the program would break even (i.e., revenues would cover setup costs) if 58% or more of clients had Medicaid or another form of insurance. Given that only 40.5% of clients in this study had Medicaid, the program was not sustainable after grant funding ended.

**Conclusions:** The positive long-term outcomes and favorable cost profile provide evidence of the potential value of this model. However, the discrepancy between health system and managerial cost perspectives limited the program's financial sustainability. With anticipated insurance expansions under health reform, there is likely to be a stronger business case for safety net organizations considering implementing evidence-based interventions such as the one examined in this study.

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An extensive literature has documented an elevated risk of medical morbidity and early mortality among individuals with mental illnesses (1, 2). Although this problem was first described nearly a century ago (3), it has only recently become a major focus of mental health advocacy and policy efforts (4).

For many patients with serious mental disorders, the primary point of contact with the health care system is through public-sector mental health programs rather than primary medical care. There has been a growing interest in developing "specialty care medical homes" for managing medical care for this population in community mental health settings (5). Care management, in which staff provide education, advocacy, and linkages to community-based medical services, is a potentially promising approach to delivering care to this population, given its flexibility and its relatively low cost (5). However, there are currently few evidencebased models for delivering that care (6, 7).

The Primary Care Access, Referral, and Evaluation (PCARE) study is a randomized trial of a medical care management intervention for persons with serious men-

tal illnesses treated in community mental health settings. Our group previously reported (8) that the intervention improved the quality and outcomes of primary medical care at 1 year.

In this article, we report on costs for each year and 2-year outcomes of this intervention. Costs are presented from two vantage points: a health system perspective (which is most relevant to policy makers) and a managerial perspective (which is most relevant to clinic directors considering implementing medical care management for persons with mental illnesses). The goals of the study were to assess clinical sustainability (whether 1-year improvements were maintained) and financial sustainability (whether the intervention provided value from a health system perspective and was sustainable under routine funding conditions).

#### Method

Details of the PCARE study design and intervention have been described previously (8). They are briefly outlined here to provide context for the 2-year outcome and cost data.

This article is featured in this month's AJP Audio, is discussed in an editorial by Dr. Sharfstein (p. 1134), and is the subject of a CME course (p. 1229)

#### Study Setting

The study was conducted in an urban community mental health center (CMHC) in Atlanta. The target population was individuals age 18 and older from the area who were economically disadvantaged and who had serious and persistent mental illness with or without comorbid substance use disorders. With the exception of the study intervention, the clinic did not provide any formal medical or mental health care case management or any on-site medical care.

#### Recruitment

The sample was assembled through flyers posted at the CMHC, waiting room recruitment, and provider referrals; about onethird of potential participants were identified through each of the three approaches. To be eligible, individuals had to be on the active patient roster at the CMHC, have a severe mental illness (9), and have the capacity to provide informed consent. Inclusion criteria were kept broad to optimize generalizability to community mental health settings.

#### Randomization and Follow-Up

A computerized algorithm was used to randomize assignment of patients to the intervention or usual care group. After randomization, interviews were conducted every 6 months throughout the course of the study. Interviewers were blinded to participants' group assignment. Annual chart reviews were used to gather data for calculation of quality measures.

#### Intervention

Two full-time registered nurses provided care management activities combining patient education and activation and logistical support in obtaining access to ongoing comprehensive primary care services. Each care manager had a caseload of approximately 75 patients at any given time, each of whom had an initial intake visit followed by monthly follow-up visits.

Care managers enhanced activation using motivational interviewing techniques (10) and action plans (11), which set and tracked short-term achievable goals for medical care or lifestyle change. Coaching was provided to patients to help them interact more effectively with their providers. With the participant's permission, providers were notified about changes in the patient's medication regimen and medical status. The care manager worked to helped clients overcome barriers to attending medical appointments.

#### Usual Care

Participants assigned to the usual care condition were given a list with contact information for local primary care medical clinics that accept uninsured and Medicaid clients. Participants in the usual care condition were not restricted in the medical care or other services that they sought.

#### Measures

An interview battery administered at baseline and then every 6 months throughout the study was used to identify sites where patients had received medical or mental health services as well as to collect clinical data. Reviews of all medical and mental health charts from these sites at baseline, 12 months, and 24 months assessed quality of preventive and cardiometabolic care and health service use.

Quality of primary care was assessed at baseline and 12 months using 23 indicators drawn from the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force guidelines (12). For patients with a cardiometabolic condition (diabetes, hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, or coronary artery disease), quality indicators were drawn from chart reviews using the RAND Community Quality Index study (13). For both of these sets of quality indicators, an aggregate indicator was created that represented the proportion of services the patient actually received from among those for which he or she was eligible.

Health-related quality of life was assessed using the 36-item Short-Form Health Survey developed for the Medical Outcomes Study (14, 15). Physical component summary and mental component summary scores can be constructed from the survey, ranging from 0 (poor health) to 100 (perfect health) (16). The oblique method, which is the preferred approach when examining persons with comorbid physical and mental conditions (17, 18), was selected a priori as the approach for calculating the summary scores. Individual subscales were also calculated to provide context for these summary scores (19).

For patients with available fasting laboratory values, the Framingham cardiovascular risk index was used to estimate the 10year risk of developing cardiovascular disease.

#### Intervention Costs

Staff costs for the nurse care managers were calculated using data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics on median salaries for registered nurses (20). A mean fringe rate of 29% for benefits was included based on national averages for nurses employed in publicsector facilities (20). Training costs were calculated based on daily salaries and fringe rates for the senior staff providing training.

Equipment costs were divided into one-time setup costs (e.g., examination table, sphygmomanometer, scale) and recurring expenses (e.g., gloves, bandages). All prices were drawn from the national medical supply company where the products were purchased.

A rate of 15% was applied to all intervention expenses to account for clinic space and administrative support (21).

#### Costs From the Health System Perspective

A cost analysis was calculated from the health system perspective using standard approaches from the cost-effectiveness literature (22–24). The quantity of each type of health service (mental and medical outpatient, emergency, and inpatient) was drawn from chart review data from each site where participants obtained services. Unit costs were assigned to each service type based on median national expenditures for each type of service from the 2007 Medical Expenditure Panel Survey (25). This survey is well suited for assessing unit costs from a health system perspective because it uses direct payments, not charges, and captures costs across all insurance groups. All expenditures for each type of service were inflated to 2010 dollars.

Given initial expenditures in setting up a new program, costs were examined separately for each of the 2 years of the study. Costs for each intervention visit were calculated by applying the hourly intervention cost, based on staff salaries, fringe benefits, equipment, and overhead, to each visit.

#### Costs From a Managerial Perspective: Budget Impact Analysis

A budget impact analysis involves a careful accounting of the costs of implementing a new program, coupled with the expected returns (26, 27). The methods we used followed the approach proposed by the International Society for Pharmacoeconomics and Outcomes Research Task Force on Good Research Practices (28). In contrast to cost-effectiveness analyses, budget impact analyses adopt a managerial rather than societal perspective and have a shorter-term horizon.

For the budget impact analysis, only services provided at the CMHC were considered. Medicaid reimbursement rates were calculated based on 2010 payment rates for clinical nurse visits from Georgia's Medicaid program. As with the health system-level analysis, intervention expenditures were treated as positive costs. However, individual visit reimbursements were treated as negative expenditures (i.e., revenues).

Characteristic	Intervention	Group (N=205)	Usual Care Group (N=202)		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Age (years)	47.0	8.1	46.3	8.1	
Education <sup>b</sup> (years)	11.9	2.3	11.9	2.4	
Monthly income <sup>c</sup> (\$)	356.03	367.93	547.37	2,128.51	
	Ν	%	Ν	%	
Female	105	51.2	92	45.5	
Race/ethnicity					
African American	156	76.5	159	78.7	
Hispanic or Latino	4	2.0	2	1.0	
Insurance					
Medicaid	77	37.9	85	42.1	
Uninsured	123	60.3	117	57.9	
Private	3	1.5	0	0.0	
Single, never married	102	50.3	96	47.5	
Unemployed	180	87.8	179	88.6	
Primary psychiatric diagnosis					
Schizophrenia/schizoaffective disorder	75	36.6	69	34.2	
Bipolar disorder	22	10.7	30	14.9	
Posttraumatic stress disorder	11	5.4	9	4.5	
Depression	94	45.9	85	42.1	
Other	0	0.0	1	0.5	
Comorbid substance use disorder	50	24.4	53	26.2	

TABLE 1. Demographic and Clinical Characteristics of Patients With Serious and Persistent Mental Illnesses Receiving a Medical Care Management Intervention or Usual Care<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup> There were no significant differences between groups on any measure.

<sup>b</sup> The median for years of education was 12 (25th–75th percentiles, 11–13) for both groups.

<sup>c</sup> The median monthly income was \$209.50 (25th–75th percentiles, 0.00–603.00) for the intervention group and \$374.00 (25th–75th percentiles, 80.00–623.00) for the usual care group.

As is typical of CMHCs (29), nearly all clients at the study site either had Medicaid or were uninsured. Costs for uninsured clients were covered by capitated annual state block grants provided to the clinics. Medicaid services were reimbursed on a fee-forservice basis for each visit. Under varying case-mix scenarios, we calculated a break-even point where the total reimbursement offset the costs of funding the care management service during the first year.

#### **Statistical Analysis**

All analyses were conducted using the intent-to-treat approach. Two-year clinical outcome analyses were conducted using random regression to calculate the relative difference in change over time. For each outcome measure, the model assessed the outcome as a function of randomization group, time since randomization, and group-by-time interaction. The group-by-time interaction, which reflects the relative difference in change in the parameters over time, was the primary measure of statistical significance.

To mitigate the potential impact of missing data from interviews, we performed multiple imputation by a Monte Carlo Markov Chain approach to impute missing scores for interview data. The covariates used in multiple imputation were age, gender, race, psychiatric diagnosis, medical comorbidity, and SF-36 scores for the eight domains at baseline, 6 months, 12 months, 18 months, and 24 months.

We used bootstrap analysis to generate 95% confidence intervals (CIs) and to estimate the probability that total health care costs were lower in the intervention group than in the usual care group (i.e., a "cost offset") for each cost category. Bootstrap analysis was conducted by constructing 1,000 samples from the study data set and, for each one, computing the difference in mean costs (defined as the mean for participants in the intervention group minus the mean for participants in the usual care group). The 95% confidence interval was then derived from the resulting distribution of differences in mean costs across the 1,000 bootstrap samples. The probability of a cost offset was estimated by dividing the number of bootstrap samples in which the intervention group had lower health care costs than the usual care group by 1,000.

Initial analyses indicated that cost data were highly non-normally distributed. Removing extreme outliers (the 3% of the sample beyond three standard deviations above or below the mean) substantially improved the normality of the distribution. Confidence intervals and probability of cost offset were computed both with and without inclusion of these extreme outliers.

#### Results

A total of 407 patients provided informed consent and underwent randomized assignment to either the medical care management intervention or usual care. Of those assigned, 68.1% completed interviews at 12 months and 55.8% completed interviews at 24 months. Complete 12-month chart review data were available for 89.2% of the sample, and complete 24-month chart review data for 79.1% (see Figure S1 in the data supplement that accompanies the online edition of this article).

#### **Baseline Characteristics**

Table 1 summarizes participants' demographic and clinical characteristics. The sample was predominantly African American (77.9%) and poor (median annual income, \$3,400). A total of 40% had Medicaid coverage, 59% were uninsured, and 1% had private insurance. The most common psychiatric diagnoses were schizophrenia (42.8%),

TABLE 2.	Quality and	Outcomes of	Clinical C	are at 1 and	l 2 Years f	or Patients	With Serie	ous and	Persistent	Mental	Illnesses
Receiving	g a Medical (	Care Managen	nent Inter	vention or l	Jsual Care						

	Intervention Group (N=205)		Usual Care Group (N=202)			n (Group-by-
Measure	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	р	Time Interaction)
Quality measures						
Prevention Quality Index						< 0.001
Baseline (N=391)	19.9	16.8	19.7	17.4	0.620	
1 year (N=376)	56.1	23.5	20.3	16.2	< 0.001	
2 years (N=345)	56.2	27.7	17.4	15.7	< 0.001	
Cardiometabolic Quality Index						< 0.001
Baseline (N=170)	28.2	33.4	31.5	29.3	0.300	
1 year (N=180)	34.8	38.5	30.3	30.2	0.780	
2 years (N=178)	43.5	39.5	27.8	30.1	0.018	
Outcome measures						
36-item Short-Form Health Survey						
Mental component summary (N=407)						< 0.001
Baseline	36.4	10.1	36.0	10.3	0.298	
6 months	37.4	9.9	37.0	10.7	0.368	
1 year	39.0	10.2	36.5	10.6	< 0.001	
18 months	39.6	10.0	37.4	10.2	< 0.001	
2 years	40.5	10.3	39.0	10.8	0.001	
Physical component summary (N=407)						0.470
Baseline	36.4	11.7	35.7	11.4	0.174	
6 months	37.0	11.6	35.9	12.2	0.038	
1 year	36.9	12.0	35.7	12.3	0.023	
18 months	37.6	12.2	36.3	12.2	0.015	
2 years	38.4	12.7	37.0	12.9	0.010	
Framingham cardiovascular risk index						0.390
Baseline (N=121)	7.9	5.4	8.5	6.3	0.833	
1 year (N=183)	7.1	5.3	9.5	7.4	0.032	
2 years (N=146)	7.6	6.3	10.0	7.8	0.014	

depression (32.7%), and bipolar disorder (17.2%). A total of 25.3% of the sample had a comorbid substance use disorder. The most common medical comorbidities were hypertension (45.6%), arthritis (36.6%), tooth/gum disease (25.6%), asthma (20.1%), and diabetes (17.9%). There were no significant differences between the groups in any of the demographic or diagnostic characteristics at baseline.

#### **Two-Year Clinical Outcomes**

Table 2 summarizes results of the quality and outcome measures during the first 2 years. Overall, the gains in quality and outcomes of care at 1 year persisted at 2 years. The total proportion of preventive services for which a client was eligible that were received by the client (primary outcome measure) more than doubled between baseline and year 1 and remained highly significant by year 2 (56.2% compared with 17.4%, p<0.001 for group-by-time interaction). Among the subset of individuals with cardiometabolic diagnoses (diabetes, hypertension, high cholesterol, heart disease), the proportion receiving guideline-concordant cardiometabolic care increased in the intervention group from 28.2% to 43.5%, while declining slightly in the usual care group (31.5% to 27.8%), resulting in a significant group-by-time interaction (p<0.001).

Over the 2-year follow-up period, there was a significantly greater improvement in the mental component summary of the 36-item Short-Form Health Survey for the intervention group than for the usual care group (4.1 points compared with 3 points, p<0.001 for the group-bytime interaction). The relative improvement on the physical component summary of the Short-Form Health Survey was smaller and not statistically significant (2 points compared with 1.3 points). Significant improvements, as reflected in significant group-by-time interactions, were seen in the physical functioning, pain, role-emotional, social functioning, general health, and mental health subscales (all p values <0.001) (see Table S1 in the data supplement that accompanies the online edition of this article).

Among patients for whom fasting blood tests were available (N=121), the Framingham cardiovascular risk index, which represents the risk of developing cardiovascular disease in 10 years, was significantly lower at 2 years in the intervention group than in the usual care group (7.6% compared with 10%, p=0.01), although the group-by-time interaction for the relative change over time was not significant.

#### Costs: Health System Perspective

The mean annual costs of implementing the intervention, including staff salaries, fringe benefits, supplies and equipment, and overhead, were estimated at \$973 per patient for the first year and \$915 per patient for the sec-

		Group and	d Costs (\$)		Cost Difference $(\$)$		
	Intervention Group (N=205)		Usual Care Group (N=202)		Between Groups (Intervention – Usual Care)		Probability of
Variable and Wave	Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI	Cost Offset (%)
Medical outpatient visit							
Year 1	1,855	1,644–2,090	1,589	1,388–1,801	265	-38 to 573	7.6
Year 2	1,338	1,160–1,525	1,358	1,151–1,577	-20	-323 to 260	53.1
Medical emergency visit							
Year 1	779	601–971	1,038	838–1,250	-259	-564 to 23	93.3
Year 2	580	435–743	668	506-860	-88	-328 to 141	71.1
Medical hospitalization							
Year 1	1,170	698–1,723	1,194	730–1,726	-23	-721 to 670	52.6
Year 2	626	331–991	683	369–1,064	-57	-535 to 426	58.5
Mental health outpatient visit							
Year 1	4,086	3,721–4,464	4,346	3,921–4,812	-260	-858 to 289	76.2
Year 2	2,864	2,495–3,259	3,451	3,040-3,862	-587	–1,149 to –11	95.7
Psychiatric emergency visit							
Year 1	224	164–289	241	172–311	-17	-110 to 76	62.6
Year 2	176	126–233	242	158–335	-66	-173 to 40	87.0
Psychiatric hospitalization							
Year 1	420	120-802	308	130–495	112	-263 to 538	33.5
Year 2	78	0–186	438	158–768	-360	-704 to -73	97.8
Total cost							
Year 1	8,934	8,042–9,868	8,715	7,784–9,777	218	-1,190 to 1,585	38.4
Year 2	5,908	5,181–6,620	6,840	6,096–7,629	-932	-1,973 to 102	92.3

TABLE 3. Costs of Care for Patients With Serious and	l Persistent Mental	Illnesses Reco	ceiving a Medical $^{\prime}$	Care Management
Intervention or Usual Care at 1 and 2 Years				

ond year, which did not include one-time equipment and training costs. Table 3 lists the costs for various types of care and total costs of care for the two groups, as well as the difference between groups, at 1 and 2 years. Figure 1 illustrates total costs for the two groups at 1 and 2 years.

In the health system perspective analysis at 1 year, with all study participants included, the mean total costs per patient were \$218 higher for the intervention group than for the usual care group (95% CI=-1,190 to 1,585), which reflected a 38.4% probability of a cost offset. With extreme outliers (3% of participants) excluded, the mean total costs at 1 year were \$93 higher for patients in the intervention group than for those in the usual care group (95% CI=-871 to 1,012), which reflected a 44.2% probability of a cost offset.

For the second year, the mean costs for patients in the intervention group were \$932 less than for those in the usual care group, reflecting a 92.3% probability of a cost offset (95% CI=–1,973 to 102). With extreme outliers (3% of participants) excluded, the mean costs for patients in the intervention group were \$920 less than for those in the usual care group, reflecting a 96.1% probability of a cost offset (95% CI=–1,718 to 54).

#### **Costs: Managerial Perspective**

Revenues were calculated based on the typical patient flow patterns seen for the nurses in the study (one new patient and five follow-up visits each day). Once caseloads were full, maximum revenue that could be achieved for FIGURE 1. Total Costs at 1 and 2 Years for Patients With Serious and Persistent Mental Illnesses Receiving a Medical Care Management Intervention or Usual Care



the program using two nurse care managers working at full capacity, with all clients covered by Medicaid or other insurance, would be \$360,840. Assuming minimal or no out-of-pocket payments by uninsured clients (which was the case for this clinic and is typical of CMHCs generally) (30), the program would break even financially—i.e., revenues would equal or exceed expenditures—if at least 58% of clients had Medicaid coverage or some other health insurance coverage. Because only 40.5% of clients in the study clinic had Medicaid coverage, the program was not financially sustainable under existing conditions. Largely because of challenges in financing, the program closed after the grant was completed.

#### Discussion

From a clinical perspective, improvements observed at 1 year (8) in the quality of primary care in the PCARE study persisted at 2 years. From a health system perspective, the cost profile was highly favorable and led to a trend toward a cost offset by the second year, suggesting a good value. However, from a managerial perspective, the program was not financially sustainable under current reimbursement conditions; with a greater proportion of insured clients, it could have been supported. These results, in particular the differences between societal and managerial cost perspectives, shed light on barriers to implementing these and other evidence-based practices in routine settings and on how expansion of insurance under health reform might help resolve such obstacles.

The intervention led to sustained improvement in the quality and outcomes of primary care. The majority of gains in quality and outcomes were seen during the first year, with continuing but smaller improvements during the second year. This asymptotic pattern is similar to that described in other quality improvement interventions, which typically have the greatest relative impact in the first 6–12 months as the greatest deficiencies in care are addressed, with subsequent efforts focused on maintaining those improvements (31, 32).

For physical health outcomes, even a 2-year horizon may be a relatively brief window to reverse the cumulative effects of the socioeconomic deprivation, adverse health behaviors, and poor quality of medical care that lead to compromised health in this population (33). Particularly for patients with high levels of medical morbidity, more aggressive programs that include medication management hold potential for substantial improvements in medical outcomes (34). Nonetheless, in this study we observed significant improvements in a majority of 36-item Short-Form Health Survey subscales related to physical health (general health, physical functioning, and pain), and the intervention group had a significantly better cardiovascular risk profile at 2-year follow-up. Stepped-care models may be able to combine these two approaches, using care management for general mental health clinic populations, with more intensive treatment protocols for patients with preexisting cardiovascular risk factors or other illnesses.

From the health system perspective, there was a strong trend toward cost savings by the second year, with a 92.3% chance of a cost offset. This result is consistent with research on treating depression in primary care, which has found that these savings may become evident over the long term, particularly for the costliest and most complex patients (35, 36). Given the relatively modest costs of establishing care management programs, and the ability of such programs to steer patients from inappropriate to more appropriate forms of care, these approaches may represent a particularly good value for society.

However, from a managerial perspective, assessing the business case for the intervention was more complex. Because of the high rate of uninsured clients (59%), revenues would not have covered the costs of running the program in the absence of grant funding. And despite data supporting the intervention's effectiveness and high levels of satisfaction by providers and patients, clinic management was unable to continue the program after the grant was completed. Challenges in achieving financial sustainability are not unique to medical care management programs; they apply to any new clinical programs in public-sector mental health systems with large numbers of uninsured clients. More generally, the mismatch between societal and managerial perspectives, coupled with a lack of a clear locus of accountability for improving quality, may underlie the failure of many cost-effective interventions to be effectively disseminated in routine clinical settings (26, 37).

Several limitations of this study should be noted. The intervention was tested at a single site; care management approaches might need to differ in other types of settings (e.g., in rural areas without nearby medical providers). Similarly, the business case for these programs could differ in sites with lower numbers of eligible patients or in states with different mechanisms for paying for Medicaid patients or for the uninsured. Nonetheless, the characteristics of the site and payment approaches in the study clinic are typical of urban community health centers nationwide (38). Also, 2-year follow-up interview rates were relatively low; however, because cost data, which were the primary outcomes examined in this study, were derived from patient charts, follow-up interviews were less of a concern for these analyses.

Expansion of Medicaid under the Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act is likely to disproportionately improve rates of insurance for persons with mental illness who are currently uninsured (39). This could help improve the business case for implementing evidence-based programs like the one described here in community settings. Other new financing strategies to be tested under new models of care, such as bundled payments that include coverage for care managers, could also help reduce the barriers to implementation of these and other evidence-based quality improvement strategies for persons treated in safety net settings (40). Finally, for persons with serious and persistent mental illnesses, new health home models will include the development of specialty care medical homes that provide primary care services through community mental health providers (5). These new initiatives hold the

potential to begin to better align financial incentives for improving physical health care in this vulnerable population and, more broadly, for disseminating evidence-based practices in community mental health settings.

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## THE SYNTHESIS PROJECT

NEW INSIGHTS FROM RESEARCH RESULTS

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# Mental disorders and medical comorbidity

See companion Policy Brief available at www.policysynthesis.org

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**THE SYNTHESIS PROJECT** (Synthesis) is an initiative of the Robert Wood Johnson Foundation to produce relevant, concise, and thought-provoking briefs and reports on today's important health policy issues. By synthesizing what is known, while weighing the strength of findings and exposing gaps in knowledge, Synthesis products give decision-makers reliable information and new insights to inform complex policy decisions. For more information about the Synthesis Project, visit the Synthesis Project's Web site at *www.policysynthesis.org*. For additional copies of Synthesis products, please go to the Project's Web site or send an e-mail request to *pubsrequest@rwjf.org*.



### Introduction

In the wake of the passage of national health reform, the nation is focusing its efforts on how to improve quality and efficiency within the health care system. However, expenditures and gaps in care delivery are not evenly distributed throughout the population; only 5 percent of the population account for half of all health care spending (138) and there is considerable variation in quality of care across different conditions and settings (106). Therefore, achieving the goals of improved quality and efficiency will require focusing specifically on subgroups most at risk for high costs and poor quality of care (113).

This synthesis presents evidence that persons with comorbid mental and medical conditions represent just such a population. Based on epidemiological data from the 2001–2003 National Comorbidity Survey Replication, 34 million American adults, or 17 percent of the adult population, had comorbid mental and medical conditions within a 12-month period (3, 146). The high prevalence of this comorbidity, the complex causal connections linking medical and mental health conditions, and system fragmentation lead to problems in quality and costs related to comorbidity that are commonly even more complicated and burdensome than the problems related to the individual conditions themselves. While evidence-based treatments exist for improving care for this population, they typically are not used in routine settings. Under health reform, millions of uninsured persons with mental disorders will move into the formal health system, in particular the Medicaid program, making efforts to improve quality and efficiency of care for this population an even higher priority.

This synthesis provides an overview of medical and mental comorbidity, with an eye towards current federal health reform efforts. It addresses the following questions:

- 1. What is the rate of comorbidity between medical and mental conditions and why is it so common?
- 2. What are the associated mortality, quality of care, and cost burdens of comorbidity?
- 3. What are the current evidence-based approaches for addressing comorbidity?

### Methodology

A literature review and analysis was conducted using standardized approaches for systematic reviews of the peer-reviewed literature (69). Quality of evidence was assessed based on internal validity (e.g., study design) as well as external validity (e.g., the degree to which the findings can be broadly applied). Review articles and meta-analyses received particular attention. We assumed that epidemiological associations and mechanisms linking mental and medical disorders would be relatively stable over time, and therefore included older studies in these sections; cost and service use data were considered to be more time-sensitive, and therefore these sections focused on more recent data.

Given the limitations of peer-reviewed data for policy syntheses (97) (e.g., lack of timeliness, bias towards positive findings), grey literature including commissioned reports, white papers and legislation also were reviewed. Data were supplemented with discussions with key administrators and policy-makers.

For the purposes of this report, comorbidity is defined broadly as the co-occurrence of mental and physical disorders in the same person, regardless of the chronological order in which they occurred or the causal pathway linking them (52, 147, 148). Mental disorders include a spectrum of conditions, such as

**Comorbidity** – the co-occurrence of mental and physical disorders in the same person, regardless of the chronological order in which they occurred or the causal pathway linking them.

depression, anxiety disorders, schizophrenia and bipolar disorder. This review focuses on adults; there are differences in treatments, providers and systems where children with comorbid mental and medical conditions receive their care.

Mental disorders cannot be diagnosed with biological tests, unlike many medical conditions, and thus case definition relies on diagnostic criteria. In the research literature, mental disorders are often measured through self-report, health utilization data, symptom- or criteria-based scales, or clinical interviews (see Text Box below). Self-report and claims-based analyses generally capture those individuals who have been treated for a particular disorder, whereas symptom-based studies identify individuals who meet criteria for a mental disorder regardless of whether they have been treated. Given the fact that fewer than one-third of individuals meeting criteria for a mental disorder receive treatment (86), this distinction is particularly important for this group of conditions. Additionally, prevalence estimates of mental disorders will differ depending on the time frame used (e.g., current, 12-month, or lifetime) because of recall bias and the likelihood that longer time frames will yield larger numbers of mental disorders (55).
#### Measuring mental disorders

Self-report: Individuals are asked to state whether or not they have a diagnosis of a mental illness.

- **Health Utilization Data:** Diagnostic codes submitted by health care providers to insurance companies are used to determine if individuals have a mental disorder.
- **Screening Instruments:** Interview questions measure symptom duration and severity. These instruments are often used for screening purposes to identify potential cases of mental disorders or are included in population-based surveys.
- **Clinical Interviews:** Interviews based on standard diagnostic criteria designed to be administered by clinicians or lay interviewers in large epidemiological surveys.

In addition to the issue of case definition for mental disorders, different study designs are used to evaluate and examine the epidemiology, health services correlates and treatments for comorbid mental disorders, including epidemiological surveys, analysis of claims-based data, clinical trials, and systematic reviews and meta-analyses (see Table 1). Each type of study provides useful information, but needs to be evaluated in terms of its potential strengths and weaknesses.

Type of Study	Example	Description	Measurement Strategies	Strengths	Weaknesses
Epidemiological	National Comorbidity Survey (NCS) (87)	Large sample surveys used to determine prevalence and correlates of mental disorders in the overall population.	<ul><li>Structured lay interviews</li><li>Self-report</li></ul>	<ul> <li>Capture people with and without a diagnosis</li> <li>Typically use a representative sample</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Expensive to conduct</li> <li>Difficult to get timely data</li> <li>Provide less information on cost and services</li> </ul>
Claims-based	Faces of Medicaid (96)	Analysis of databases that include diagnostic codes and other health information.	• Health utilization data	<ul> <li>Timely data</li> <li>Good for assessing cost</li> </ul>	• Only capture people treated for a diagnosis
Clinical Trials	IMPACT study (144)	Randomized controlled trials test the efficacy of a treatment or intervention.	<ul> <li>Symptom- based outcome measures</li> <li>Clinical interviews</li> </ul>	Rigorous methods for determining program effectiveness	• Examine a specific population and setting
Systematic Review and Meta-analysis	Collaborative care for depression: A cumulative meta-analysis and review of longer-term outcomes (56)	Literature is comprehen- sively searched for primary studies that fit eligibility criteria. Results are synthesized and, for meta- analyses, quantified.	<ul> <li>Variety of methods depending on articles identified in literature search</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Synthesize results of multiple studies</li> <li>Meta- analyses provide overall effect sizes</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Results may be influenced by publishing bias (studies with significant results are more likely to be published)</li> </ul>

Table 1: Types of studies used to examine treatment for mental disorders

# What is the rate of comorbidity between mental and medical conditions and why is it so common?

**Comorbidity between medical and mental conditions is the rule rather than the exception.** In the 2001–2003 National Comorbidity Survey Replication (NCS-R), a nationally representative epidemiological survey, more than 68 percent of adults with a mental disorder (diagnosed with a structured clinical interview) reported having at least one general medical disorder, and 29 percent of those with a medical disorder had a comorbid mental health condition (Figure 1) (3, 83).



Figure 1: Percentages of people with mental disorders and/or medical conditions, 2001–2003

Source: Adapted from the National Comorbidity Survey Replication, 2001–2003 (3, 83)

Studies examining the association between specific medical and mental disorders in nationally representative samples have found high rates of comorbidity. For example, in the 1996 Medical Expenditure Panel Survey, the risk of self-reported depression among people reporting diabetes was two times the risk for individuals without diabetes (50). In the 2006 Behavioral Risk Factor Survey, people reporting a diagnosis of asthma were 2.3 times more likely to screen positive for current depression compared with people without asthma (141). Conversely, in the 2001–2002 National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions, persons reporting cardiovascular disease were at 1.43 times elevated risk of having a lifetime anxiety disorder (63).

The Faces of Medicaid III report, which includes analyses of 2002 national Medicaid claims data, highlights these patterns among disabled Medicaid recipients (Figure 2) (93). In 2002, more than half of disabled Medicaid enrollees with psychiatric conditions also had claims for diabetes, cardiovascular disease (CVD) or pulmonary disease, substantially higher than rates of these illnesses among persons without psychiatric conditions. The authors conclude that the high prevalence of psychiatric diagnoses among people with chronic medical conditions should be an impetus for prioritizing the improved integration of behavioral and medical care.

Figure 2: Association of medical and psychiatric diagnoses among Medicaid-only beneficiaries with disabilities, 2002.



Source: Adapted from Faces of Medicaid III (93)

The investigators also looked at how conditions grouped into "triads" (i.e., common cooccurrences of three diseases together). Psychiatric disorders were among seven of the top ten most frequent diagnostic comorbidity triads in the most expensive 5 percent of Medicaid beneficiaries with disabilities. The most common triad was comorbid psychiatric conditions, cardiovascular disease, and central nervous system disorders, which affected 9.5 percent of all beneficiaries and 24 percent of the most expensive group of beneficiaries.

One of the most important drivers of the high numbers of individuals with comorbid mental and medical conditions is the high prevalence of mental disorders and chronic conditions in the United States. As previously noted, data from the 2001–2003 National Comorbidity Survey Replication, an epidemiological survey, found that approximately 25 percent of American adults meet criteria for at least one diagnosable mental disorder in any given year (85), and more than half report one or more chronic general medical conditions (70). In publicly insured populations, the proportion of clients receiving treatment for one or more chronic conditions is even higher; data from the 2001 Medical Expenditure Panel Survey indicate that more than 80 percent of Medicare recipients report being treated for one or more chronic illnesses (5); and national claims-based data from 2002 indicated that 79 percent of disabled and 56 percent of nondisabled adult Medicaid enrollees nationwide had one or more chronic conditions (1, 93).

In addition to the high prevalence of these conditions, there is also evidence that having each type of disorder is a risk factor for developing the other. For example, among respondents to the 1999 National Health Interview Survey, a nationally representative epidemiological survey, the likelihood of having major depression diagnosed via a screening instrument increases with each additional reported comorbid chronic medical disorder. The 12-month prevalence of major depression is about 5 percent in people without chronic medical conditions, compared with almost 8 percent in people with one condition, 10 percent in people with two conditions, and 12 percent in people with three or more medical conditions (49). Two claims-based studies of a privately insured population found that people treated for schizophrenia or bipolar disorder were up to three times more likely to have claims for three or more chronic conditions compared with people without claims for mental disorders (17, 18).

The pathways leading to comorbidity of mental and medical disorders are complex and bidirectional (80). Medical disorders may lead to mental disorders, mental conditions may place a person at risk for medical disorders, and mental and medical disorders may share common risk factors. Epidemiological studies have been important in examining these pathways. For instance, medical conditions that are accompanied by a high symptom burden, such as migraine headaches or back pain, can lead to depression (116). At the same time, major depression is a risk factor for developing medical conditions, such as cardiovascular disease, that are characterized by pain or inflammation (118). Figure 3 illustrates some of the pathways linking medical conditions and mental disorders.



Figure 3: Model of the interaction between mental disorders and medical illness

Source: Modified from Katon (80)

**Exposure to early trauma and chronic stress may be a risk factor for both mental and medical disorders.** Results from the Adverse Childhood Experience study (53), a survey of approximately 10,000 adults in a Health Maintenance Organization from 1995 to 1996, indicate a strong graded response between the level of exposure to childhood abuse or household dysfunction and poor health outcomes. People who experience more adverse exposures during childhood are more likely to report depression, suicide attempts and chronic medical conditions (8, 53, 72). Chronic stressors, such as lack of money for basic needs, care-giving responsibilities, conflict in relationships, or dealing with long-term medical conditions, are particularly strong predictors of depression (72).

Traumatic events throughout the lifespan, including intimate partner violence or combat exposure, can lead to post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). A systematic literature review estimated that combat-related PTSD afflicts between 4 percent and 17 percent of American veterans who have recently served in Iraq (125). Combat-related trauma can leave soldiers with serious and lasting injuries, which negatively affects mental health and contributes to PTSD (65, 91). In one study of 613 injured veterans, severity of PTSD and physical problems one month after injury independently predicted the severity of PTSD and depression six months later (65).

One mechanism that may underlie the relationship between stress and health conditions is that exposure to stressors is linked to a weakening of the immune system and an increase in the inflammatory response, which are risk factors for medical disorders (8, 9, 88). Mental disorders, such as depression, are linked to altered immune function including increased production of cytokines, small signaling proteins that are part of the body's inflammatory response (30, 89). The inflammatory response is critical for dealing with injury or infection, but becomes problematic when sustained over time in response to chronic stress (89). In addition, people who experience chronic stressors or negative events in childhood may also be more likely to engage in adverse health behaviors that are linked with medical conditions (53).

Socioeconomic factors, such as low income and poor educational attainment, are associated with mental disorders and medical conditions. A consistent inverse association exists between socioeconomic status (SES) and a variety of health indicators, health behaviors and mortality (66, 95, 102). For example, a meta-analysis of the literature showed that people of low socioeconomic status are 1.8 times more likely to report being depressed than people who have a higher status (102). SES may both contribute to the onset of mental disorders and be a consequence of downward "drift" resulting from a mental disorder (48). SES can also influence prevalence, morbidity and mortality of medical conditions, such as coronary heart disease and diabetes (16, 37). People of low socioeconomic status are more likely to engage in adverse health behaviors, such as eating a poor diet, smoking and not exercising, which in turn contribute to the development of chronic medical conditions (13, 94).

Low socioeconomic status reduces available resources, such as social support, and increases the chances of exposure to adverse environmental conditions (119). Individuals with low social support consistently report higher levels of depressive symptoms; this relationship can be found among the general population and among people with various chronic diseases (124, 143, 148). There is also evidence that social support may be important in the course of schizophrenia and bipolar disorder; people with low social support report poorer outcomes of these illnesses (15, 77). Low levels of social support are also negatively linked to medical conditions. For example, one review of the literature found that low social support raises the risk of developing coronary heart disease (CHD) or experiencing adverse outcomes associated with CHD by 1.5 to 2 times (101). Social support is hypothesized to directly influence mental health or indirectly affect health status by buffering the effects of stress (143).

Environmental and neighborhood conditions associated with disadvantage, such as low-quality schools and housing, limited employment prospects, and problems in access to health care services, public transportation or other resources, have a profound impact on individuals' well-being and mental health (28, 29). Neighborhood characteristics may lead to depression, for example, by increasing daily stress levels, heightening vulnerability to negative events, and disrupting social ties (29).

A 2001 systematic review concluded that neighborhood characteristics are also associated with the development of chronic medical conditions (120). For instance, people in disadvantaged communities often have limited access to healthy food options and may not be able to afford healthier choices, which contributes to high rates of obesity and diabetes (37). In a random sample of adults from a Canadian city, neighborhood deprivation was significantly associated with disability from diabetes, even when individual characteristics were taken into account (129).

Four modifiable health risk behaviors – tobacco use, excessive alcohol and illicit drug consumption, lack of physical activity, and poor nutrition – are responsible for much of the high rates of comorbidity, burden of illness, and early death related to chronic diseases (19). Persons with mental disorders are at elevated risk for each of these types of behaviors, which raises their risk of developing chronic illnesses and having poor medical outcomes once the illnesses emerge.

Using data from the 1991–1992 National Comorbidity Survey, Lasser and colleagues estimated that people with a diagnosis of a mental disorder in the past month smoke approximately 44 percent of all cigarettes in the United States and are two to three times as likely to smoke compared with those without a mental disorder (96, 58). More severe symptoms are associated with a greater likelihood of smoking; data from the 2005–2008 National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) found that as depression symptoms become more severe, likelihood of smoking increased (122).

A number of factors may contribute to co-occurrence of smoking and mental illness. Some have argued that smoking relieves psychiatric symptoms among some people with severe mental illness; however this "self-medication" hypothesis has not been consistently supported in the research literature (25). Other factors that may contribute to smoking rates among people with mental disorders include low socioeconomic status, social networks that include smokers, or environmental facilitators, such as residential or treatment facilities that allow smoking (25, 38, 67, 102, 111). Having a mental disorder may also make it more challenging for smokers to quit.

The factors contributing to high rates of smoking among people with mental disorders can also contribute to drug and alcohol use. Using employer-based claims data from 1996 to 2001, Carney and colleagues found that compared with people without severe mental illness, people treated for schizophrenia and bipolar disorder are 12 and 20 times more likely to be treated for alcohol abuse, and 35 and 42 times more likely to be dependent on illegal drugs, respectively (17, 18). According to a national epidemiological survey, substance use disorders are comorbid in roughly 20 percent of people with depression and 15 percent of people with anxiety (64). A review of the literature on substance abuse and PTSD found 21 percent to 43 percent of civilians with PTSD and up to 75 percent of veterans with PTSD also had a substance abuse disorder (75). Individuals may use alcohol and drugs to ameliorate negative psychiatric symptoms, to achieve a desired emotional state or to cope with stressors (26, 131).

Persons with mental conditions are more likely to have sedentary lifestyles and poor diets. The high rates of obesity among individuals with mental disorders may be attributable to poor diet and sedentary lifestyle (22, 62, 136). People with severe mental illness, including schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, or major depression, report less physical activity compared with those without mental disorders, and tend to eat foods that are high in fat and calories while avoiding fruits and vegetables (25, 31).

Many of the most common treatments for diseases may actually worsen the comorbid mental or medical problems. Most psychotropic medications, particularly antipsychotic medications, can cause weight gain, obesity and type 2 diabetes (109). At the same time, many treatments for common medical conditions may have psychological side effects that may exacerbate or complicate underlying psychiatric conditions. For example, corticosteroids are associated with mania and psychosis (92). According to two systematic literature reviews, some medications appear to contribute to mild or atypical depressive symptoms, though conflicting results about the association with depression have been found for commonly used medications such as anti-hypertensives and lipid-lowering agents (92, 117).

Many chronic medical conditions require patients to maintain a self-care regimen in order to manage symptoms and prevent further disease progression, which may be hampered by comorbid mental conditions. Self-care behaviors include taking medication as prescribed and adhering to lifestyle modifications, which may include exercise, diet and stress relief (103). Depression may decrease the motivation and energy needed to perform self-management behaviors and may also adversely impact interpersonal relationships, including collaboration with physicians (80). A meta-analysis indicated that the odds of noncompliance with medical treatment regimens are three times greater for depressed patients compared with nondepressed patients (34). An analysis of the claims-based 2001 Veterans Affairs National Psychosis Registry found that people with severe mental illness often exhibit poor adherence to both psychiatric medications and medications for medical conditions (121). Inadequate self-care can result in an exacerbation of medical symptoms and a decrease in health-related quality of life.

# What are the associated mortality, quality of care, and cost burdens of comorbidity?

When mental and medical conditions co-occur, the combination is associated with elevated symptom burden, functional impairment, decreased length and quality of life, and increased costs (32, 49, 80, 139). The impact of having comorbid conditions is at least additive and at times may be synergistic, with the cumulative burden greater than the sum of the individual conditions.

**Mental disorders are associated with a twofold to fourfold elevated risk of premature mortality (24, 47, 54).** From a population perspective, the bulk of these deaths are due to "natural" causes such as cardiovascular disease rather than accidents and suicides (24). As lifespan in the general population has improved, persons with mental disorders have lagged behind, resulting in a widening disparity between persons with and without these disorders (127). In a multistate study of mortality data from 1997 to 2000 submitted by public mental health agencies, public mental health clients were found to die 25 years earlier than the average life expectancy for the general population (24). Based on a review of the literature, Eaton et al. calculated the relative risk of premature mortality in people with mental disorders compared with the general population (Figure 4).

Figure 4. Relative risk of all-cause premature mortality associated with mental disorders compared with the general population



Source: Eaton et al., 2008 (47)

Excess mortality in persons with mental disorders likely represents a common final pathway of socioeconomic disadvantage, poor quality of care, problems in treatment adherence, and adverse health behaviors. However, much of this excess mortality, like the excess mortality in general populations, is due to preventable risk factors and treatable conditions. Improved access to preventive services, diet and exercise programs, and high quality of primary care could play a role in narrowing the mortality gap for persons with mental illnesses (114).

There are problems in quality of care for treatment of comorbid conditions both in primary care and specialty mental health settings. People with mental and substance use disorders are less likely than individuals in the general population to receive preventive services such as immunizations, cancer screenings, and smoking cessation counseling, and receive worse quality of care across a range of services (42, 108). In primary care, common mental comorbidities, such as depression, often go undetected and undiagnosed (27, 68, 154). Many common mental disorders, including depression and anxiety, present with somatic symptoms such as headaches, fatigue, pain or gastrointestinal problems that overlap with those of general medical disorders, making diagnosis of these conditions challenging (61, 132). Few health care sites offer systematic screening for detection of these conditions. Similarly, veterans with PTSD experience higher rates of physical symptoms compared with veterans without PTSD, though more research on the association between PTSD and specific medical conditions is needed (6, 51, 123). Among injured veterans, the emphasis of care may focus on physical rehabilitation and emotional distress may be overlooked, especially since PTSD and depression symptoms among soldiers often emerge over time (65, 91).

Once diagnosed, providers face time constraints in managing multiple conditions. Competing demands may prevent providers from being able to address psychosocial issues during brief office visits, which likely is a factor underlying poor quality of care for those conditions in primary care settings (23, 90, 158). Similar problems have been found in specialty mental health settings, such as the Veterans Affairs system, where having comorbid medical conditions predicts worse quality of care for more serious mental disorders (21).

There are analogous problems of underrecognition and undertreatment of medical problems for persons with mental conditions. For patients, symptoms of mental illness such as lack of motivation, fearfulness and distrust may reduce their ability to initiate and follow through with medical treatment. Among providers, primary care physicians may feel uncomfortable treating persons with serious mental illness. Psychiatrists and other mental health care providers may lack the knowledge or expertise to provide medical care for their patients. At a system level, fragmentation and separation between the medical and mental health care systems result in individuals with comorbid conditions receiving care from multiple uncoordinated locations (45).

### Comorbid mental and medical conditions are associated with substantial

**individual and societal costs (39, 87).** Melek and Norris analyzed the expenditures for comorbid medical conditions and mental disorders using the 2005 Medstat MarketScan national claims database (107). They looked at the medical expenditures, mental health expenditures, and total expenditures of individuals with one of ten common chronic conditions with and without comorbid depression or anxiety (Figure 5). They found that the presence of comorbid depression or anxiety significantly increased medical and mental health care expenditures, with over 80 percent of the increase occurring in medical expenditures. For example, the average total monthly expenditure for a person with a chronic disease and depression is \$560 dollars more than for a person without depression; the discrepancy for people with and without comorbid anxiety is \$710.



Figure 5. Comparison of monthly health care expenditures for chronic conditions and comorbid depression or anxiety, 2005

Source: Melek and Norris (107)

Other studies have found similar results across a range of medical and mental health comorbidities. For patients in a staff model HMO, a claims analysis found that general medical costs were 40 percent higher for people treated with bipolar disorder than without it (135). Another claims-based study, which surveyed over 4,000 adult health plan members with diabetes, found that costs attributable to mental health services accounted for less than 15 percent of the increase in total costs for people with comorbid diabetes and depression (134).

Mental disorders also present a high cost to employers. Because mental disorders affect higher order functioning, mental comorbidity may result in disproportionate costs for both absenteeism and presenteeism (59, 60). Depressive disorders contribute to significantly more sick days annually than any other condition. In an analysis of health claims and disability data from employees of a large corporation, persons with comorbid mental and medical conditions cost employers approximately twice as much as those with either condition alone (43).

# What are the current evidence-based approaches for addressing comorbidity?

A literature dating back more than two decades has provided a clear indication of what does and does not work in care management on the primary care/ mental health interface. Early studies that sought to improve quality of care of common mental disorders in primary care through screening and provider education did not find these methods to be effective (57). "Collaborative care" approaches that use a multidisciplinary team to screen and track mental conditions in primary care settings have been the most effective in treating these conditions (16, 56, 142). These models build on the Chronic Care Model, which describes the environmental, structural and community characteristics needed for multidisciplinary teams to work with patients in improving illness management (152). Table 2 shows the key elements of the Chronic Care Model.

Elements	Description		
Self-management support	<ul> <li>Patient and provider contributions to treatment plan</li> <li>Self-management education, training, support services</li> <li>Goal setting</li> </ul>		
Decision support	<ul><li>Guidelines for specialist referral</li><li>Flowchart of guidelines</li></ul>		
Delivery system design	<ul> <li>Composition of practice team</li> <li>Clear roles and allocated tasks</li> <li>Management of patient contacts—e.g., appointments, follow-up</li> </ul>		
Clinical information systems	<ul> <li>Patient and disease registries</li> <li>Electronic records</li> <li>Reminder systems and feedback to physicians</li> </ul>		
Health care organization	<ul><li>Support by organization leaders</li><li>Prioritization of chronic care</li><li>Reimbursement policies</li></ul>		
Community resources	Collaboration with community groups – e.g., peer support		

Table 2. Elements of the Chronic Care Model

Source: Adapted from Bodenheimer et al. (10), Wagner et al., 2001 (151), and Wagner et al., 1996 (152)

More than 30 randomized controlled trials have found that collaborative care interventions improve quality and outcomes of major depression as well as anxiety disorders (16, 56, 157). In the IMPACT study, the largest collaborative care program for late-life depression, the patient, care manager, and primary care physician work together to develop a treatment plan that includes antidepressant medication or brief psychotherapy (144). Treatment plans are adjusted as needed in weekly meetings with the psychiatrist. This study is now in a dissemination phase, helping health plans and state authorities to adopt this model to populations of all ages and to presenting problems common to primary care (e.g., depression, anxiety/PTSD, bipolar disorder, substance use). Care managers follow up with patients and monitor depressive symptoms using the Patient Health Questionnaire-9 (PHQ-9), a brief screening and symptom severity measure. Similarly, positive results have been found using these collaborative approaches for improving the delivery of primary medical care in specialty settings (40, 44, 128, 153, 156).

Two key "active ingredients" of these models, identified through a literature review and metaanalysis, are the use of care managers and the use of "stepped care" approaches to illness management (11). Care managers provide patient education, aide patients with treatment decisionmaking, monitor symptoms, provide follow-up care, and communicate with the team (11, 14, 20, 33, 56, 142, 144). Stepped care involves tracking and monitoring medical and mental outcomes, and adjusting services or moving to a higher level of intensity as needed (104).

**Collaborative care approaches have been found to be highly cost-effective from a societal perspective (82, 130).** Cost-effectiveness indicates a good value for society, but does not necessarily mean that cost-effective programs will save money or result in a "cost-offset" (150). However, more recent clinical trials have suggested that cost savings may be achievable over the long term, particularly among the costliest and most complex patients, such as those with comorbid diabetes and depression (81, 145).

There are challenges, however, in moving from cost-effectiveness findings to implementation and policy, given externalities in the financing of health care in the United States. For instance, if a program reduces emergency room visits or hospitalizations, the site funding such a program is not typically able to share in these savings (105). Cost-effectiveness analyses need to be supplemented with budget impact analyses that seek to understand these costs from the perspective of the organizations who implement these programs (99, 105, 112).

There is increasing interest in developing models that use a single care manager to treat a range of medical and mental health problems (79). This parallels trends seen in general medicine which are seeking to use single care managers to address multiple conditions in patients with multi-morbidities (12). These programs may ultimately be more flexible for sites to implement than the single-condition disease management programs that have historically dominated both the literature and much of the disease-management industry (10). Given high levels of comorbidity in Medicaid clients, these models may be particularly promising to disseminate for patients treated in that insurance system.

These clinical approaches to improving quality can be supported through a variety of organizational/structural relationships that can be categorized into three broad approaches: fully integrated care provided by a single organization; a partnership model in which care is shared across two different organizations; and a facilitated referral approach in which a site helps clients coordinate care occurring at multiple different clinics or sites. In contrast to the robust evidence base for clinical collaborative care models, there is little research evidence comparing the effectiveness of different organizational approaches to supporting care coordination. However, each might be expected to pose differential benefits in terms of delivering collaborative care.

In fully integrated medical, mental health, and substance use (MH/SU) health models, staff within a single organization provide primary and MH/SU health care. These models have been used primarily in large, quasi-integrated systems such as staff model HMOs and Veterans Affairs (VA), which include physical facilities that provide co-location of mental health, substance use and medical services, and an integrated electronic medical record. These systems have administrative and fiscal responsibility for both mental and medical care of a defined group of patients, providing a rationale and financial mechanism to support these relatively complex and labor-intensive models.

A partnership model is one in which primary care staff are embedded in a community MH/SU organization and/or MH/SU staff are embedded in a primary care setting. All 16 sites that have completed the National Council for Community Behavioral Healthcare's Integration Primary Care-Behavioral Health Collaborative have been partnerships between community health centers and community MH providers (98). Each site has worked on clinical (not organizational) integration, focused on either the primary care or MH setting or bi-directionally in both settings. A number of features make this an appealing approach to integration. These partnerships provide the embedded staff member with a link to the full range of expertise at their home agency via supervision, consultation and referrals. On-site clinicians can bill under the license of their home organization, overcoming some of the financial obstacles that primary care sites face in providing MH services and vice versa. These approaches may be particularly appropriate for midsized organizations such as community mental health centers and community health centers that have the infrastructure to develop partnerships but lack the resources and economies of scale to develop fully integrated practices.

A facilitated referral model is one in which primary care staff are not physically present in the MH/SU organization but the MH/SU organization conducts physical health screenings, coordinates referrals to primary care, and shares information with primary care. Alternatively, MH/SU staff is not physically present in primary care but the primary care provider conducts MH/SU screenings and coordinates referrals to MH/SU specialty settings. Typically a care manager, a key element of the collaborative approaches described previously, ensures that patients can obtain access to, and follow-up with, care outside the organization. Randomized clinical trials have shown that these models, with care managers in place ensuring follow-up and transfer of information across the organizations, can improve quality and outcomes of depression in primary care and also primary medical care among patients with serious mental illnesses (44, 137). Given the low cost and relative flexibility of these approaches, they can be useful transitional approaches for smaller sites considering integration.

None of these organizational approaches guarantees or precludes the delivery of the evidencebased approaches outlined above. However, these elements are generally easier to support in more structured organizational models than in loosely structured referral relationships. A 2006 Institute of Medicine Report recommended that sites should "transition along a continuum of evidence-based coordination models...that best meet the needs of their patient populations, and that ensure accountability." (74)

Several projects are currently working on taking established collaborative care models to scale at a statewide level. These initiatives may provide models for organizational and financial approaches to improving care at the primary care/mental health interface. More than 90 clinics have participated in an initiative known as DIAMOND (Depression Improvement Across Minnesota, Offering a New Direction), which uses the IMPACT model of collaborative care delivery. Of 151 patients enrolled for at least six months who had been contacted,

42 percent were in remission from depression, and an additional 12 percent have seen at least a 50 percent improvement in their depressive symptoms (76). To finance this model, the DIAMOND project is applying the concept of a case rate payment for depression care. Minnesota health plans are paying a monthly per person case rate to participating clinics for a bundle of services, including a care manager and consulting psychiatrist, under a single billing code. Because the payments are being made from the health care side of the system, there is an opportunity for any cost savings to accrue to the health plans paying for the program.

In the Community Care of North Carolina (CCNC) project, Medicaid enrollees receive health care and care management through local networks made up of physicians, hospitals, social service agencies and county health departments. Preliminary evidence suggests that these programs may help improve quality of care for chronic medical illnesses and save costs (140). The CCNC project is a primary care case management model that could serve as a prototype for accountable care organizations, providing care management, measurement and quality infrastructure needed by small practices. In the last several years four CCNC networks have worked with state and regional mental health authorities to pilot a model for integrating mental health and primary care (155).

#### Conclusion

At its core, the problem of comorbidity is one of a mismatch between a clinical reality in which medical conditions and mental health conditions are overlapping and interrelated, and a health care system in which the providers, clinics and treatments are separated. Evidence-based treatment models for improving quality in this population are often not implemented because of barriers erected by the fragmented system. New organizational and financial models, however, are being developed to help facilitate the delivery of these services.

# **Policy Implications**

The Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act, signed into law in March 2010, will be a major focus for health and mental health policy-makers in the coming years. Given the elevated burden and poor quality of care faced by persons with comorbid mental and medical conditions, this population merits particular attention as this new legislation is implemented. A number of features of health reform, including expanded insurance, support of information technology, new organizational and financial models of care, workforce expansion, and resources for prevention hold the opportunity to better disseminate the use of evidence-based approaches to treating comorbid conditions in routine care settings.

**Expanding insurance.** Given high rates of uninsurance and underinsurance among persons with mental disorders, expansion of insurance under health reform has the potential to benefit persons with comorbid conditions (41). In the context of the recent passage of mental health parity legislation, this expanded insurance will include coverage for mental health services that is on a par with services for other medical conditions.

The Medicaid system is already the most important insurer for persons with serious mental illnesses, and its importance will grow under health reform. Donahue and colleagues estimate that the proportion of persons with serious mental illness (defined as depression or severe distress) treated under Medicaid is likely to nearly double (from 12.8 percent to 24.5 percent) under this expansion (35). Given that the health status of new Medicaid enrollees is expected to be similar to current beneficiaries, the cost per person will probably not change much, but overall costs to the Medicaid system from these enrollees will increase (71).

Many services needed by individuals with mental disorders, particularly those with more serious and persistent conditions, do not have a direct equivalent on the physical health side, meaning that some individuals insured under these new insurance expansions may still face gaps in services. Defining an essential mental health benefits package that includes these services could help ensure that expansion of health coverage under health reform translates into improved access to services.

**Supporting improved communication.** Lack of communication between the mental health and medical systems has been an important factor underlying poor quality of care for persons with comorbid conditions (74). Health Information Exchanges (HIEs) are now being formed to develop electronic networks containing data elements essential to care coordination that can be accessed by diverse participating health care organizations in a defined geographic region. Strategies will need to be developed to allow MH/SU systems to be included in these exchanges, while preserving appropriate privacy of sensitive data. The Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration recently issued a report concluding that laws protecting confidentiality of drug and alcohol abuse information permit inclusion of patients with substance use disorders in these networks so long as they provide appropriate consent (100).

**Including mental health in medical homes.** The Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act includes provisions for demonstration projects for patient-centered health homes within Medicare and Medicaid. In primary care settings, these patient-centered health homes will need to have the capacity to either provide mental health care directly or coordinate with mental health providers. Accrediting agencies such as NCQA should be supported in efforts to include language about care coordination between medical and mental health services in their certification process. For persons with serious and persistent mental conditions, these policies could also support the development of specialty care medical homes that provide primary care services through community mental health providers.

# **Policy Implications**

**Developing new financing models.** The Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act has provisions for developing and testing new models such as Accountable Care Organizations (ACOs), collectives of providers that receive bonuses for meeting quality or cost savings standards. Membership in ACOs could provide the opportunity for mental health/substance use treatment providers to integrate vertically with other components of the health care system, and contribute to achieving cost and quality targets. They could provide more flexible funding structures to support functions, such as care management, that would be important for improving care for persons with comorbid conditions.

**Building a trained workforce.** There is currently a shortage of providers trained to deliver evidence-based services for comorbid conditions; this shortage could become even more pronounced with the expansion of the population using health services under health reform legislation. The Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act calls for the development of training programs that focus on interdisciplinary mental and behavioral health, primary care models such as medical homes and team management of chronic disease, and the integration of physical and mental health. Workforce development should focus on training and competencies for primary care physicians in provision of care for common mental health disorders, mental health clinicians in screening and treatment of common medical conditions, and training for each type of provider in developing skills for working as consultants in the other setting (104).

**Prioritizing prevention.** While improving care for comorbid conditions is critical, it will ultimately be essential to work upstream to prevent or delay their onset. Primary prevention efforts will be needed to address common risk factors for comorbid conditions, such as adverse health behaviors and substance use, in their social and environmental contexts. Secondary prevention should include screening for common mental disorders in primary care settings and for common medical health conditions in specialty medical settings.

## The Need for Additional Information

In conducting this review, several gaps in the literature on mental health and medical comorbidity became evident. First, most of the existing literature on comorbidity examines the impact of particular comorbid conditions on an index medical or mental illness (e.g., diabetes and depression). While there is value in these specific, clinically-focused approaches to understanding comorbidity, patients with comorbid conditions share many common features that make them valuable to examine as a distinct population of interest. They are, in many ways, analogous to racial and ethnic disparities groups who are monitored separately and often require tailored quality improvement programs. Second, nearly all of the current evidence for this population focuses on clinical models rather than organizational or systems level approaches to implementing those models. Comparative effectiveness trials will be needed to compare organizational approaches to delivering and sustaining these evidence-based approaches to improving care for persons with comorbid conditions. Finally, health reform will include a broad range of changes in insurance coverage and care delivery that could have a disproportionate impact on persons with comorbid medical and mental conditions. Tracking the impact of this legislation on costs, burden and outcomes of care for this population could provide important information to inform future iterations of health legislation.

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Notes

Notes

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NEW INSIGHTS FROM RESEARCH RESULTS

RESEARCH SYNTHESIS REPORT NO. 21 FEBRUARY 2011

The Synthesis Project The Robert Wood Johnson Foundation Route 1 & College Road East P.O. Box 2316 Princeton, NJ 08543-2316 E-Mail: synthesisproject@rwjfmail.org Phone: 888-719-1909 Health disparities are both real and deadly, but disparities are not inevitable. The causes of health disparities are complex, and their elimination will require multi-dimensional interventions. We have developed a threedimensional model for the elimination of health disparities. The foundation of public health is surveillance, which is the first dimension. We must continually measure racialethnic disparities in each specific disease, in its risk factors, and in outcome-relevant quality of care. The second dimension is research into the causes of disparities and potential intervention points to eliminate disparities. These causes and potential intervention points can be in the individual's biology or their behavior, or in their physical and social environment, or in the healthcare arena (quality and access). The third dimension is intervention, which requires moving from what we know to what we do. Translation must not only take knowledge from the bedside, but to the curbside and the countryside, into each community and into each home. We can achieve health equity in America, but first, we all must care enough, know enough, do enough, and persist long enough. (Ethn Dis. 2006;16[suppl 3]:S3-8-S3-13)

**Key Words:** Health Equity, Health Disparities, Health Outcomes, Race, Poverty

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## INTRODUCTION

The health of our nation is a dynamic force propelled by myriad factors that change with time: the racial and ethnic composition of each generation; age distribution (eg, the aging baby boomers); and socioeconomic status levels, to name just a few. In 1980, for example, 6.4% of the American population was Hispanic or Latino; 11.5% Black; and 79.9% White. Twenty years later in 2000, the population composition had shifted to: 12.5% Hispanic or Latino; 12.2% Black; and 69.5% White.<sup>1</sup>

The US population is also aging, with increasingly large segments of the population in the 75 years and older age group: 2.6% in 1950; 5.9% in 2000; and 11.6% projected for 2050.2 Poverty is also a persistent risk factor for adverse health outcomes. Adults and children in families living at or below poverty level often have poor health due to nutritional deficits, poor housing, exposure to environmental hazards, unhealthy lifestyles, and decreased access to health care. During a 22-year period (1980-2002), poverty rates for all ages in the United States rose to an all-time high of 15.1% in 1993, dropping off during 2000 to 11.3% but increasing again to 12.1% by 2002.<sup>3</sup>

#### HEALTH DETERMINANTS: INDIVIDUAL, ENVIRONMENT, AND POLICY

While demographic characteristics are a driving force for the health status of the nation as a whole, these characteristics combine with other, closely interwoven determinants to yield the overall health of an individual. Healthy People 2010 presented a more complete framework for understanding the causes and determinants of health outcomes and health disparities, as illustrated in Figure 1.<sup>4</sup> These include the physical and social environment, the biology and behaviors of individuals, and systemlevel determinants such as healthcare access, health policy, and social and economic policy.

For example, physical environmental factors clearly play a role in initiating and exacerbating disease. Poor air quality can derive from industrial pollutants, auto and truck emissions, and agricultural chemicals. These exposures, along with landfills and toxic waste sites, are more likely to be found in lowincome and minority communities.<sup>5,6</sup> Low-income workers, and a disproportionate number of minority workers, are more likely to work in areas of exposure within any given industry. In a broader definition of environmental health, some neighborhoods are simply unsafe for walking, either because of crime or automobile traffic (inadequate pedestrian walkways).

What may be less obvious is the extent to which the social environment can influence disparities in health. For example, poverty and hopelessness among teens and young adults can drive unhealthy behaviors such as smoking or violence or risky sexual behaviors. Impoverished neighborhoods can also feed a sense of powerlessness or external locus of control that directly conflicts with efforts to achieve empowered self-management of various chronic diseases. The social environment can also foster feelings of mistrust in the healthcare system. Individuals have often experienced racism or ethnic discrimination on a daily basis, as well as having community memories of episodes of earned distrust such as the Tuskegee syphilis experiments.<sup>7,8,9</sup>



Fig 1. Healthy People 2010: Determinants of health

At the individual level, each person brings to the table his or her own genetics, biology, personality, and behaviors. Cigarette smoking is an example of a behavioral factor that also interacts with the biology of the individual. Some smokers get cancer or chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, while others do not. What personal biology or genetic factors or environmental co-factors influence these outcomes? Other risk factors include genetic and proteomic factors such as PPAR-gamma, which has been linked to cardiovascular risk. These are not inherently racial factors, since race is a social construct, but there may be differences in prevalence between racial groups, and also significant "withingroup" variability. Behavioral factors not only include risk factors like smoking, but also include positive behaviors such as exercise and healthy eating, as well as selfcare behaviors such as home glucose monitoring or adherence to medications to achieve optimal control of diabetes or hypertension or hyperlipidemia.

At the big-picture level, state and national health policies and changes in healthcare financing can also impact health outcomes and health disparities. Consider issues such as the Medicare prescription drug benefit—will it improve or worsen disparities in access to prescription medication? Will access to medication disparities drive increased disparities in blood pressure and diabetes control, and ultimately drive increased disparities in cardiovascular death rates?

Another driver of disparities in health care and health outcomes is healthcare access. Access is dramatically worse for the poor and uninsured, even within high-disparity racial groups. For example, our analysis of MEPS data showed that non-poor, insured, African Americans with a primary care home were four to seven times more likely to have doctor's office visits and to obtain prescription drugs than African Americans who were poor and uninsured and had no primary care home.<sup>10</sup> Providers serving minority and low-income patient populations face significant barriers to the provision of quality care, including access to specialty referrals, diagnostic testing, and affordable prescriptions for their patients.<sup>11</sup>

#### Health Issues Driven by Intertwining Determinants

According to *Healthy People 2010*,<sup>12</sup> ten leading health indicators measure how these intertwining determinants affect the health of our nation and reflect the major health issues anticipated for the 10-year period, 2000–2010. The indicators can be grouped in two categories: 1) health systems indicators (access to care, mental health, injury and violence, environmental quality, and immunization) and lifestyle indicators (physical activity, overweight and obesity, tobacco use, substance abuse, and responsible sexual behavior).

### Elimination of Race/Ethnic Disparities Prioritized as National Goal

Racial and ethnic disparities persist in most measures of health care and health outcomes. Elimination of these health disparities is one of two overarching goals of Healthy People 2010, our public health agenda for the current decade. Cardiovascular disease and infant mortality are just two areas of health concern where vast differences in health outcomes exist. The death rates from cardiovascular disease are much higher in Black men than in any other segment of the population (Figure 2).<sup>13</sup> The African American community also experiences 14 infant deaths for every 1,000 live births, a number that is twice that for White or Hispanic babies.

In its report on racial and ethnic health disparities, *Unequal Treatment*, the Institute of Medicine (IOM) cited the model of Gomes and McGuire, in which three D's (differences, disparities, and discrimination) summarize the categories of unequal healthcare quality and outcomes experienced by minority and non-minority individuals. In this model, we must acknowledge that not all differences in patterns of healthcare utilization are inherently wrong (Figure 3).<sup>14</sup> If women in a particular racial or ethnic sub-group view birthing as a natural part of the human cycle, and

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Fig 2. Trends in heart disease mortality among men 35 years of age and older, by race and ethnicity, 1991–1995

not as a medical event, then they may have less enthusiasm for invasive procedures to control pain or to monitor the progress of labor. However, there may also be systemic issues, such as the high rate of uninsurance in certain immigrant populations, or the unavailability of translators for obtaining informed consent.<sup>15</sup> Finally, there can be unconscious bias and prejudice, as evidenced by studies in which patients with identical symptoms and risk factors receive different treatments based on race or gender, or studies showing racial disparities in pain medication given to young people with similar leg fractures presenting to the same hospital emergency department.

While the literature provides significant evidence of disparities, there is not enough evidence-based information on interventions that will be effective in eliminating these barriers. Research is needed to explain how race and ethnicity are associated with disparities in the process, the structure, and outcomes of care. Research must provide a better understanding of the contribution of



Fig 3. Differences, disparities, and discrimination

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the patient, provider, and institutional characteristics that will affect the quality of care for minorities. Through this type of in-depth research, we will be able to influence the five Healthy People 2010 points of attack for achieving healthcare equity: access to care, improving quality of care, lifestyle enhancement, improving environmental quality, and a balanced research agenda. We can summarize these issues as seven major barriers that keep people from accessing needed primary care and preventive health services: the uninsured and underinsured, the underserved, the under-represented, the uninspired, the untrusting, and the uninformed.

## WHAT IF?

In our recent study analyzing the Black-White mortality gap over four decades from 1960 to 2000, we found that an estimated 83,750 deaths each year could have been prevented in the United States, if this Black/White gap had been eliminated.<sup>16</sup> In addition, elimination of these disparities could have meant:

- 24,000 fewer deaths from heart disease;
- 7,000 fewer deaths from HIV/AIDS
- 4,700 fewer infant deaths;
- 22,000 fewer deaths from diabetes;
- 2,000 fewer deaths of Black women from breast cancer.

In this same study, we concluded that health disparities may be more resistant to change than other social determinants. For example, between 1960 and 2000, median income for African-American individuals rose from 65 percent to 84 percent of the median income of Whites, while Black-White high school dropout rates declined from almost 2.2 times higher in 1967 to 1.3 times higher in 1997.<sup>17</sup> However, there was virtually no improvement in the relative Black-White mortality gap during the same time period.

### THREE-DIMENSIONAL MODEL OF RESEARCH TO ELIMINATE HEALTH DISPARITIES

The Center of Excellence on Health Disparities at the National Center for Primary Care at Morehouse School of Medicine has designed a three-dimensional model of research to eliminate health disparities to monitor progress in eliminating health disparities in the areas of cancer, hypertension and heart disease, maternal and child health, diabetes, HIV/AIDS, and mental health.

Racial and ethnic disparities in health care and outcomes have proven to be quite resistant to simple or onedimensional interventions. Black-White inequities in mortality rates have been remarkably persistent over the past four decades, during which we have experienced dramatic changes in clinical medicine and in healthcare delivery. Given the complex causation of health disparities, and this resistance to simple interventions, the Center of Excellence on Health Disparities at the National Center for Primary Care at Morehouse School of Medicine has developed a three-dimensional approach to research that will guide the path toward eliminating racial and ethnic health disparities in America.

The three-dimensions of our approach to eliminating disparities in health include the following dimensions, shown as three axes on the model shown in Fig. 4: (1) surveillance/monitoring, in which we measure and track over time rates of incidence, prevalence, morbidity, disability, and mortality related to specific risk factors (smoking, for example) and specific disease areas such as diabetes, cardiovascular disease, HIV-AIDS, maternal-child health, mental health, etc., with a special focus on racial-ethnic disparities in these rates of disease and adverse outcomes; (2) a balanced research agenda, in which we attempt to answer questions related to the nature and cause of



Fig 4. Three-dimensional model of research to eliminate health disparities. From the Center of Excellence on Health Disparities at the National Center for Primary Care, Morehouse School of Medicine

diseases and disparities and what works in reducing those disparities; and (3) <u>interventions</u>, in which we implement programs based on our research and evaluate the outcomes of those programs, thus feeding back to the surveillance dimension of the process.

As this process unfolds, time becomes the very important <u>fourth di-</u> <u>mension</u>, in which we must cycle rapidly between surveillance, research, interventions, and re-assessment of outcomes based on trends in the surveillance data in order to achieve real-world improvements in health outcomes and health equity.

#### X-Axis: Surveillance on Disease-Specific Disparities

The first dimension (the x-axis in Figure 4) represents the surveillance required to track trends in incidence, prevalence, and adverse outcomes of specific disease conditions and risk factors that are known to have disparate outcomes. Surveillance is the founda-

tion of any population-based effort to improve health. Reducing disparities in adverse birth outcomes will require a very different set of interventions than those that will help overcome disparities in stroke deaths, but in both conditions we must have accurate, rapid-cycle data specific to each racial-ethnic sub-group in order to monitor trends over time. There are clearly documented clinical outcome disparities in each of the listed categories of disease, as well as many others, and there are interventions that could reduce disparities in each. Surveillance allows us to measure the disparities at baseline, and to assess the impact of disparities-focused interventions as well as trends in the broader healthcare and social environment.

#### Y-Axis: A Balanced Research Agenda on Causes of and Cures for Health Disparities

A second dimension is to focus a balanced agenda of research on the causes of and potential points of intervention for health disparities: biological / genetic, environmental, and behavioral causes, as well as those related to differential access to and quality of health care. The Morehouse School of Medicine Cardiovascular Research Institute is actively engaged in assessing genetic and proteomic markers of cardiovascular risk across various populations. Health services researchers within the National Center for Primary Care are identifying sources of disparities in healthcare quality, and testing interventions in realworld practice settings to achieve better care and outcomes.<sup>18</sup> Our Department of Community Health and Preventive Medicine, in partnership with our Prevention Research Center, are testing behavioral research strategies to bring about change in lifestyle choices made within the individual, family, and community domains. We are currently partnering with the 100 Black Men of Atlanta to persuade more African-American males to change their lifestyle choices related to diet, exercise, and smoking.

### Z-Axis: Interventions to Translate Research into Practice into Improved Outcomes

A third dimension is the spectrum of interventions we can use to translate and diffuse new knowledge and technology not only from bench to bedside, but to the curbside and to the countryside. At the bench, we have a dizzying array of new technologies and genomic discoveries to absorb, as well as new understanding of the pathophysiology and pharmacology of diseases. At the bedside, it is clear that clinical trials and new drug therapies can save lives. The most dramatic examples in the past three decades involve the robust and effective panoply of pharmacologic and technological options that we now use to improve outcomes in diabetes and cardiovascular disease, as well as in the treatment of HIV-AIDS.

Unfortunately, technology may take decades to diffuse from laboratory discovery to widespread adoption in usual practice settings. Even more troubling is that such breakthroughs may actually worsen inequalities in outcomes for high-disparity populations. The usual diffusion curve from early adopters to mainstream use can bypass entire segments of the population if dissemination only flows through mainstream channels or if there is broken trust between the medical-scientific enterprise producing the technology and segments of the community that have the greatest need for these breakthroughs.<sup>19</sup> For example, although both African Americans and Whites have seen lower HIV-related death rates with the advent of highly active anti-retroviral therapy, the Black-White gap in HIV-mortality has actually widened.<sup>20</sup>

Therefore, we need health services research, health outcomes and quality improvement research, and communityoriented primary care practice-based research to assure that advances in medicine benefit all populations equally and serve the cause of achieving health equity in America. However, we must continually push beyond the clinic walls, out into the community. This will often require non-clinical venues for community health interventions, such as barbershops, hair salons, worship centers, or even in the home of a community health worker or *promotora*.

# UNDERSTANDING CULTURE IS VITAL

Culture affects patients and healthcare professionals; with patients, culture makes a difference in how they manifest and describe illnesses, how they cope with illnesses, the types of stresses they experience, and whether they are willing to seek treatment. Culture also influences the way healthcare professionals diagnose patients, the kinds of treatments we offer to patients, and how we organize service delivery. While no one individual will become an expert in another person's cultural beliefs and values, it is important for each healthcare professional to incorporate qualities of understanding into the care that we provide. In our recent book, *Multicultural Medicine and Health Disparities* (Satcher and Pamies),<sup>21</sup> we have sought to help healthcare students and practitioners deliver skilled and appropriate care to all patients, no matter their ethnicity, country of origin, cultural history, or access to services. The 500page book contains practical advice and case histories to increase the sensitivity of medical professionals to the needs of minorities.

Other programs offering approaches for cultural proficiency can assist in training healthcare professionals to provide culturally-appropriate health care. One such program is the CRASHcourse in Cultural Competency offered by the National Center for Primary Care. The program emphasizes these steps, using CRAASSH as a mnemonic: consider <u>Culture</u>; Show <u>Respect</u>; <u>Assess</u> / <u>Affirm differences</u>; Exhibit <u>Sensitivity</u> and <u>Self Awareness</u>; and wrap it all up in true <u>H</u>umility.

### HOW TO ACHIEVE HEALTH EQUITY IN AMERICA

The road to health equity will require multi-dimensional strategies working in tandem to address the many factors, levels, and systems that affect health outcomes. Our hope is that researchers, practitioners, policymakers, individuals, and communities will accept this challenge, and work specifically toward concrete objectives such as the following:<sup>22</sup>

- Universal health insurance—access to health care for everyone;
- A primary "medical home" for every adult and child;
- Proportionate representation of all racial and ethnic minority groups in the health professions;
- Bias-free interventions;
- Non-violent and exercise-friendly neighborhoods;

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- Nutritious food outlets;
- Educational equality;
- Career opportunities;
- Parity in income and wealth;
- Home ownership; and most importantly,
- Hope.

Disparities are both real and deadly, but disparities are not inevitable. We can achieve health equity in America, but first, we all must care enough, know enough, do enough, and persist long enough.

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# Prevalence, Treatment, and Control of Depressive Symptoms in the United States: Results from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES), 2005–2008

Ruth S. Shim, MD, MPH, Peter Baltrus, PhD, Jiali Ye, PhD, and George Rust, MD, MPH

*Background:* Depression remains a major public health problem that is most often evaluated and treated in primary care settings. The objective of this study was to examine the prevalence, treatment, and control of depressive symptoms in a national data sample using a common primary care screening tool for depression.

*Methods:* We analyzed a sample of adults (n = 4836) from 2005 to 2008 National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey data. Depressive symptoms were assessed using the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9) to determine the overall prevalence, rates of treatment, and antidepressant control of mild, moderate, moderately severe, and severe depressive symptoms.

*Results:* Of the sample, 20.1% reported significant depressive symptoms (PHQ-9) score,  $\geq$ 5), the majority of whom had mild depressive symptoms (PHQ-9) score, 5–9). Even among individuals with severe depressive symptoms, a large percentage (36.9%) received no treatment from a mental health professional or with antidepressant medication. Of those taking antidepressants, 26.4% reported mild depressive symptoms and 18.8% had moderate, moderately severe, or severe depressive symptoms.

*Conclusions:* Despite greater awareness and treatment of depression in primary care settings, the prevalence of depressive symptoms remains high, treatment levels remain low, and control of depressive symptoms are suboptimal. Primary care providers need to continue to focus their efforts on diagnosing and effectively treating this important disease. (J Am Board Fam Med 2011;24: 33–38.)

#### Keywords: Depression, NHANES, PHQ-9

Depression continues to be major cause of illness and disability throughout the world.<sup>1–5</sup> The World Health Organization identified depression as the fourth leading cause of total disease burden and the

leading cause of disability worldwide.<sup>6</sup> In the United States, recent samples estimate a lifetime depression prevalence of 16.2% and a 12-month prevalence of 6.6%.<sup>7</sup>

In the past, depression was often underdiagnosed and untreated by physicians in primary care settings.<sup>8</sup> Studies of elderly patients in primary care settings suggest that complex patients with multiple comorbidities have a higher risk of depression, which is more closely associated with their overall burden of illness than with any one specific disease.<sup>9</sup> Although rates of treatment are increasing, many people still do not have adequate control of depressive symptoms.<sup>7</sup> A recent study of a large national sample found that few Americans diagnosed with depression receive guideline-concor-

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dant treatment, with racial/ethnic minority populations receiving even less treatment than non-Hispanic whites.<sup>10</sup> However, management and treatment of depression in primary care settings is an important issue; previous research has shown that individuals are more likely to seek mental health treatment in primary care settings rather than in specialty mental health clinics. This is particularly true of racial and ethnic minority populations.<sup>11</sup>

The National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) has been used to assess nationwide levels of treatment and control of other chronic diseases<sup>12</sup> but not depression. According to Cutler et al,<sup>13</sup> NHANES has become "the principal means to track progress in preventing, treating, and controlling hypertension," guiding national initiatives such as the National High Blood Pressure Education program. In recent versions of the NHANES, use of the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ)-9 has allowed for greater accuracy in the diagnoses of mild, moderate, moderately severe, and severe depressive symptoms.<sup>14</sup> Gonzales et al<sup>10</sup> assessed treatment and control rates in a mutliethnic national sample using Collaborative Psychiatric Epidemiology Survey data, but the diagnostic instrument used, the 16-item Quick Inventory of Depressive Symptomology-Self Report is not as commonly used in primary care settings as the PHQ-9. To date, there has been no published study assessing prevalence, treatment, and control using the nationally recognized NHANES dataset and the PHQ-9 instrument, which is widely used to screen for depression and to guide ongoing treatment decisions in primary care and psychiatric settings. Therefore, we examined prevalence of depressive symptoms, rates of treatment, and overall levels of treatment response using the PHQ-9 data in 2005 to 2008 NHANES data.

### Methods

#### Design

The NHANES is designed to assess the health and nutritional status of Americans by combining interviews and physical examinations.<sup>15</sup> The surveys have been conducted annually by the National Center for Health Statistics since 1999, using a complex multistage sampling design to obtain a representative sample of the civilian, noninstitutionalized population of the United States. The NHANES oversamples minorities and allows for population estimates using population totals from the Current Population Surveys. To obtain an adequate sample size for the analyses we combined the data from the 2005 to 2006 and 2007 to 2008 NHANES, for a potential total sample size of 11,791 adults aged 18 and older.

### Measures

Depressive symptoms were assessed using the PHQ-9, a 9-item screening tool that asks participants to choose 1 of 4 responses about the frequency of depressive symptoms during the previous 2 weeks.<sup>14</sup> Those scoring  $\geq 10$  were characterized as having moderate, moderately severe, or severe depressive symptoms.

Antidepressant use was defined as taking at least one prescribed antidepressant medication in the past 30 days, as characterized by the Multum Lexicon Drug Database.<sup>16</sup> During the household interview, survey participants were asked if they had taken a medication in the past month for which they needed a prescription. Those who answered "yes" were asked to show the interviewer the medication containers of all the medications used.

Although the NHANES does not provide details on psychological counseling, we defined counseling and various types of therapy as treatment with a mental health professional, which was measured by the survey question, "During the past 12 months, have you seen or talked to a mental health professional such as a psychologist, psychiatrist, psychiatric nurse, or clinical social worker about your health?"

Because evidenced-based treatment recommendations for prescribing antidepressant medication and/or administering psychotherapy exist for individuals with PHQ-9 scores >15, we specifically examined all forms of treatment among respondents that scored >15 on the PHQ-9. Evidencebased treatment recommendations for individuals with a PHQ-9 score <10 involve a strategy of watchful waiting and reassessment for antidepressant treatment or psychotherapy after 2 months.<sup>17</sup>

#### Statistical Analysis

Frequencies, population estimates, standard errors, and 95% CIs taking into account the complex sampling design and population weights were generated by Proc Crosstabs in SAS-callable SUDAAN version 9 (Research Triangle Institute, Research
Triangle Park, NC). First, overall prevalence of depressive symptoms and prevalence of the different depressive symptom severity categories were assessed for the entire adult population. Treatment (mental health professional and/or antidepressant) use by depressive symptom severity was then assessed. Prevalence of depressive symptoms, depressive symptom severity, and treatment among different age-sex groups was also examined.

#### Results

Among the total sample, 10,283 adults completed the PHQ-9. Based on their scores, 2,399 had depressive symptoms, representing 42,116,283 US adults (21.6%; 95% CI, 20.1–23.3), with 14.8% endorsing mild depressive symptoms, 4.52% endorsing moderate depressive symptoms, 1.8% endorsing moderately severe depressive symptoms, and 0.6% endorsing severe depressive symptoms. Table 1 shows the percentage of the population with depressive symptoms, categorized by age and sex.

Among individuals with moderately severe and severe depressive symptoms (for which guidelines recommend treatment with an antidepressant), 17.0% (95% CI, 12.7–22.6) received treatment with an antidepressant only; 17.6% (95% CI, 12.0– 25.1) had seen a mental health professional only; and 14.8% (95% CI, 10.8–19.9) received ideal treatment of antidepressant and treatment by a mental health professional. Even among adults with the most severe depressive symptoms (PHQ-9 score >20), only 24.8% (95% CI, 12.1–44.0) had combined treatment with an antidepressant and a mental health professional, whereas a large percentage (36.9%; 95% CI, 24.8–51.0) received no form of treatment either from a mental health professional or with antidepressant medication (see Table 2).

Of the 10.4% of the US population currently taking antidepressant medications, 54.9% (95% CI, 51.2–58.5) were not currently experiencing depressive symptoms. Ongoing mild depressive symptoms continued to be reported by 26.4% (95% CI, 23.6–29.4); 11.9% (95% CI, 9.5–14.7) endorsed moderate depressive symptoms; 4.9% (95% CI, 3.8–6.3) endorsed moderately severe depressive symptoms; and 2.0% (95% CI, 1.2–3.3) endorsed severe depressive symptoms.

### Discussion

This study demonstrates the significant gap between optimal depression care and populationbased, real-world measures of care. Given that such a large segment of the US population (roughly 1 in 5 adults, or 42.1 million Americans) screened positive for at least mild depressive symptoms, it may be seen as a major challenge to our nation's health if such a burdensome disease is so frequently undiagnosed, untreated, or undertreated. In many ways it is analogous to the gap between prevalence of elevated blood pressure in the population and levels

	Depressive Symptoms						
	Mild (PHQ-9 score = 5–9)	Moderate (PHQ-9 score = 10–14)	Moderately Severe (PHQ-9 score = 15–19)	Severe (PHQ-9 score ≥20)	Total (Any Severity) (PHQ-9 score ≥5)		
Men							
Age (yr)							
18–54	435 (13.31)	142 (3.48)	38 (1.04)	16 (0.39)	631 (18.23)		
≥55	208 (10.45)	72 (3.65)	35 (1.44)	6 (0.20)	321 (15.73)		
All ages	643 (12.52)	214 (3.52)	73 (1.15)	22 (0.34)	952 (17.53)		
Women							
Age (yr)							
18-54	586 (16.93)	242 (6.24)	103 (2.68)	37 (0.90)	968 (26.75)		
≥55	335 (17.06)	89 (3.77)	40 (1.56)	15 (0.44)	479 (22.82)		
All ages	921 (16.97)	331 (5.47)	143 (2.33)	52 (0.75)	1447 (25.52)		

 Table 1. Population with Mild, Moderate, Moderately Severe, and Severe Depressive Symptoms from Patient Health

 Questionnaire (PHQ)-9 Scores, by Age and Sex\*

Values provided as n (%).

\*Data from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 2005 to 2008.

Table 2. Population Receiving Pharmacologic or Behavioral Depression Treatment, by Depressive Symptoms\*

		Depressive Symptoms					
	Moderate (PHQ-9 score = 10–14)	Moderately Severe (PHQ-9 score = 15–19)	Severe (PHQ-9 score ≥20)	Moderately Severe and Severe (PHQ-9 score $\geq$ 15)			
Pharmacologic treatment only	16.9 (13.1–21.5)	17.9 (13.0–24.1)	14.4 (6.5–28.9)	17.0 (12.7–22.6)			
Mental health professional only	13.3 (9.3–18.9)	15.6 (9.9–23.7)	23.9 (13.9–37.9)	17.6 (12.0–25.1)			
Both pharmacologic treatment and mental health professional	11.1 (7.9–15.5)	11.6 (8.1–16.4)	24.8 (12.1–44.0)	14.8 (10.8–19.9)			
Neither pharmacologic treatment nor mental health professional	58.8 (51.9-60.6)	54.9 (47.3–62.2)	36.9 (24.8–51.0)	50.6 (43.8–57.4)			

Values provided as % (95% CI).

\*Based on Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ)-9 scores. Data from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 2005 to 2008.

of detection, treatment, and "treat-to-target" control of hypertension. Although impressive gains have been made (for example, the proportion of hypertensive patients with at least partially controlled blood pressure, defined by blood pressure <160/95, rose from 16% in 1972 to 67% in 1991);<sup>18</sup> still, only 34% of patients with hypertension have blood pressure completely under control, 25% are partially treated but uncontrolled, 11% are taking no medication, and 30% are unaware that they even have high blood pressure. Eisenberg and Power<sup>19</sup> used the phrase "voltage drop" to describe the gap between potentially achievable outcomes and those outcomes actually achieved in real-world practice settings, and ultimately in community-based populations.

Primary care clinicians approach patients not as single disease or risk factors, but as whole persons, understanding that depression confers a direct burden of suffering but also complicates the management of various other chronic diseases or risk factors. For example, the epidemiologic evidence for an association between depression and cardiovascular risk is quite strong.<sup>20,21</sup> Depression prevalence is also higher among individuals with diabetes,<sup>22</sup> and depression is correlated with poor glycemic control. Depression and metabolic syndrome are correlated as well, and each is an independent predictor of adverse cardiac outcomes.<sup>23</sup>

Beyond considering depression as a risk factor, however, depression is also a disabling disease unto itself, accounting for disability, reduced quality of life, loss of work days, damage to relationships, and even suicide.<sup>24,25</sup> Although recognition of depression has improved, our data show that more than half of US adults with depressive symptoms are untreated, and 3 of 4 people with severe depressive symptoms are not taking antidepressant medications. Treatment to remission significantly reduces relapse rates in depression; however, almost half of people taking antidepressants have not achieved remission of depressive symptoms.<sup>26</sup>

Formal screening protocols in primary care practices identify many more patients with depressive symptoms than are diagnosed in usual care models. There is an emerging body of evidence to suggest that although screening protocols do detect more cases of depression, they do not by themselves reduce the burden of disease or even improve outcomes.<sup>27</sup> The US Preventive Services Task Force only recommends screening adults for depression in clinical practices that have systems to ensure accurate diagnosis, effective treatment, and follow-up. However, when coupled with structured approaches to depression care management such as the 3-component model, which integrates nurse care managers and mental health professionals into the primary care practice team, improved outcomes can be achieved. The (Prevention of Suicide in Primary Care Elderly: Collaborative Trial) study showed that medical complexities and comorbid chronic disease common to general internal medicine practices affect treatment outcomes for depression in usual-care settings, but that the impact of comorbidities on depression outcomes can be eliminated with a more intensive approach to depression care.<sup>28</sup>

There are limitations to our study. The use of a national survey provides generalizable data we can apply to the entire noninstitutionalized US population, but it does lack the clinical specificity that might be obtained from direct review of clinical records. The PHQ-9 is a self-administered instrument validated for screening, diagnosis, and assessment of the severity of depressive symptoms, with a sensitivity and specificity of 88% each for major depression.<sup>14</sup> It is more easily adapted to highvolume primary care settings than instruments such as the Zung or Hamilton Depression Rating Scales.

Using a PHQ-9 score >5 to indicate mild, moderate, moderately severe, or severe depressive symptoms, NHANES provides a higher prevalence estimate (21.6%, or more than 40 million Americans) than other recent surveys. However, combining only moderate, moderately severe, and severe depressive symptoms gives a point prevalence of 6.8%, which is more consistent with other national estimates of a prevalence over a 12-month period of 6.6%.<sup>7</sup> This may indicate that other instruments are not detecting mild depressive symptoms, or that the PHQ-9 threshold of 5 may be overly sensitive but not specific.

It is possible that individuals who screened positive on the NHANES PHQ-9 underreported treatment, either because of recall errors or additional factors (eg, stigma associated with mental illness and its treatment). In addition, individuals who report taking an antidepressant drug may be taking it for conditions other than depressive symptoms and therefore have low PHQ-9 scores. This would lead to an overestimate of the proportion of the population treated to remission, which is already low. We also have no repeated measures or longitudinal tracking to assess the impact of treatment on recently diagnosed individuals, or to estimate the rate of partial response to treatment (>50% reduction in PHQ-9 score).

Furthermore, individuals with bipolar depression may have elevated PHQ-9 scores, but may be prescribed mood stabilizers rather than antidepressants for treatment of depressive symptoms. Although this represents an extremely small number of individuals, it could lead to a slight underestimate of antidepressant treatment rates for individuals with moderately severe or severe depressive symptoms.

#### Conclusion

Despite these limitations, these nationally representative data provide a cross-sectional US population estimate of the prevalence of mild, moderate, moderately severe, and severe depressive symptoms. They also demonstrate that a substantial proportion of persons with symptoms of depression in the United States remain untreated or undertreated. The burden of illness represented by depression care, as well as new evidence suggesting that care and outcomes systematically can be improved, suggest important opportunities for optimizing the treatment of depression in primary care and community health settings as a means of improving overall population health.

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<u>Sky Captain and the Psychiatrist of Tomorrow</u> Lori Raney, MD February 8, 2012

The American Psychiatric Association held their annual Institute for Psychiatric Services meeting in October 2011 and towards the end of conference, a group of experts and participants met for a final Discussion Group titled "Sky Captain and the Psychiatrist of Tomorrow: Our Evolving Role in the Decade of Collaboration in Healthcare". Panel participants included Jurgen Unutzer, MD, Roger Kathol, MD, Ben Druss, MD and George Rust, MD. Moderated by Lori Raney, MD, Chair of the APA Workgroup on Integrated Care, she challenged the speakers to "peer into their crystal ball" and think of what the future might hold if the innovations this group has been working on for a decade finally come into the mainstream of medicine. What unfolded was a rich and insightful discussion of where we've been, where we want to go and recommendations on how to get there.

The first speaker was Jurgen Unutzer, MD, Vice Chair of Psychiatry at the University of Washington. His work over the past decade has focused on testing the evidence base for the IMPACT model initially and then proceeding to expand the research base into a variety of diagnosis and populations, resulting in IMPACT becoming the most widely used model in collaborative settings with primary care. He began the discussion by challenging psychiatrists to start thinking about populations of patients, suggesting the way to improve overall mental health is to begin "looking at denominators instead of numerators". He imagined a new branch of psychiatry called "public health psychiatry" that would focus on the overall mental health of a given population and then find models to leverage the limited psychiatric resources to meet those needs. He gave an example of the 4 - 5 FTE psychiatrists in Washington working in the Mental Health Integration Project (MHIP) providing over 10,000 consultations a year to FQHCs. In our existing models of billing CPT codes for face-to-face evaluations, this would have never achieved the population effect of this IMPACT-style, team-based approach.

The second presenter was Ben Druss, MD, Rosslyn Carter Chair in Mental Health at Emory University whose research and advocacy work focuses on improving health and healthcare in persons with serious mental disorders in public sector settings. He opened with the guiding principle we must "first do no harm", implying that we have a duty to screen for any complications attributable to our treatment interventions. This is particularly true in the use of the second generation antipsychotics and he stated we must either provide the appropriate treatment ourselves (treat or change intervention) or be responsible to make the appropriate referral to primary care. He stressed we must take responsibility for the medical care of our patients and screen for the illnesses shortening their lifespans.

The third presenter was Roger Kathol, MD, President of Cartesian Solutions, whose work has focused on achieving integrated medical and mental health program sustainability through payment reform changes and models for compensating psychiatrists who work in this field. He described the "sea change" that is currently underway and the role psychiatrists can play on health care teams in these new systems of care. He stressed the importance comorbid mental illnesses as a major determinant of overall healthcare costs and the need for us to assist in the treatment of these disorders in primary care. One of the keys to success is that psychiatric expertise allows the collaborative care team the ability to 'treat to target' to reach desired overall health and financial outcomes.

The last panelist was George Rust, MD, Director of the National Center for Primary Care in Atlanta. He spoke of the "critical mass" we have reached in our collaboration efforts and the need to start addressing operational issues such as redesigning buildings, workflows, and EMRs to work more efficiently and effectively. He reminded the us the ultimate goal is "three way integration" and to ensure substance abuse is included as an equal partner with mental health and primary care. He made an observation about the rarity of the diffusion of a new life-saving innovation into poorer sections of the population first, which is what has occurred with integration efforts. He went on to suggest three strategies to consider: 1) the center of the universe is not inside our exam rooms, that we are "free range humans" and need to move the conversation about health care outside of our clinic walls to include family, community, peers, and others, 2) behavioral health and primary care need to come to the healthcare reform table together

instead of separately and 3) we need to decide who is going to train the various disciplines to work in teams.

Audience participation was invited following these opening remarks. Comments included how the separation of mental health and primary care records is an impediment to collaboration with the need for enhanced IT muscle to help form a single culture with the ability to view all records. There was a discussion about the language of collaboration and a desire to move away from existing terminology. One participant commented that perhaps by forming new partnerships with our primary care colleagues we may begin to break through some of the suspicions and assumptions about behavioral health held by others in medicine.

The "Sky Captain" discussion concluded leaving much to consider about the role of psychiatrists in the "world of tomorrow". It was clear that our future is yoked to the future of the larger healthcare arena and there is significant potential to help shape emerging systems of care. That we as psychiatrists add significant value by enabling the collaborative care team to treat-to-target intrigued and inspired the audience. Many of us left thinking of denominators, the responsibility we have to our SMI patients, free range humans and how we can leverage limited psychiatric resources to effectively treat populations. For some of us the future is now and our challenge is to design and implement systems of care that incorporate the expertise of this forward thinking panel.

# PRIMARY AND BEHAVIORAL HEALTH INTEGRATION TRACK – APA 2012\*\*

## SATURDAY

Course 04: The Integration of Primary Care and Behavioral Health: Practical Skills for the								
Consultant Psychiatrist – Unutzer, Raney, Ratzliff, Kern 9 a.m. – 4:00 p.m, Room 121C, Level 1,								
Pennsylvania Convention Center	Pennsylvania Convention Center							
Scope, Current Evidence, and	Scope, Current Evidence, and 9:00 – noon Room 103B, Level							
Innovative Approaches in Managing	S2			1, Pennsylvania				
PTSD in the Military		Duffy, Engel		<b>Convention Center</b>				
Financing Sustainable	S9		9:00 - noon	Room 121A, Level				
Interdisciplinary Care in Psychiatric Kathol, Druss, 1, Pennsylvan								
and General Medical Settings Melek, Everett, Convention Center								
Workshop on Integration of Primary W5 9-10:30 a.m. Room 109A, Lev								
Care, Preventive Services and ACT Vanderlip, 1, Pennsylvania								
		Williams		Convention Center				
Promoting Improved Integration: The	W22		3:30 – 5:00	Room 107A, Level				
Role of Collaborative Health Care in p.m. 1, Pennsylvania								
Today's Society		Martin		<b>Convention Center</b>				

## SUNDAY

Best Financial Practices for Fiscally Solvent Delivery of Integrated Care	SM5	Kathol	8:00 a.m. – noon	Room 112B, Level 1, Pennsylvania Convention Center	
Characteristics of Patients Enrolled in Collaborative Care Pilot Project for Patients with Chronic Medical Illness and Depression And/Or Problem Drinking	SCR7	Chung	8-9:30 a.m.	Room 109B, Level 1, Pennsylvania Convention Center	
Current Models of Collaborative Care	S31	Brodkey, Allred Unutzer, Real	8 – 11:00 a.m	Room 121B, Level 1, Pennsylvania Convention Center	
Psychiatrist Workforce Shortage: Challenges and Solutions	W32	Radke, Parks	10-11:30 a.m.	Room 101A, Level 1, Pennsylvania Convention Center	
Characterization of Persons Receiving Primary Care Services in a Mental Health Clinic	SCR10	Shackelford	12:30 – 2:00 p.m.	Room 109A, Level 1, Pennsylvania Convention Center	
The Future is Now: The Evolving Role of Psychiatry in the Integration of Behavioral Health and Primary Care	F3	Druss, Kathol, Katon, Unutzer, Raney	2:30 – 4:00 p.m	Room 103A, Level 1, Pennsylvania Convention Center	
Integrated Psychiatry Primary Care in Houston, TX	S 40	Ostermeyer	1:00-4:00	?	

## MONDAY

Inventing the Neck: Connecting Body, Mind, World From The Top Down and the Bottom Up	S47	Thompson, Brenner, Lewis, Kanel, St George, King	9 - noon	Room 120 B, Level 1, Pennsylvania Convention Center
Integrating Mental Health Services Within a Primary Care Setting: Effective Strategies and Practical Tips	SM15	Kates	1-5:00 p.m	Room 112B, Level 1, Pennsylvania Convention Center
New Approaches to Integration of Mental Health and Medical Services	Presidential Symposium	Katon, Unutzer, Zatzick, Druss, Engel, Williams	2-5:00 p.m	Room 122 A/B, Level 1, Pennsylvania Convention Center
Integrating Primary Care, Mental Health, and Public Health: European and American Perspectives	S58	Sorel, Svab, deGruy, Bhurga, Aquilar-Gaxiola	2-5:00 p.m	Room 107B, Level 1, Pennsylvania Convention Center

## TUESDAY

Primary Care Behavioral Health	W95	Raney, deGruy,	9 – 10:30	Room 102B, Level
Integration: Roles of the Key Team		Miller	a.m	1, Pennsylvania
Members				<b>Convention Center</b>
The Tale of Two Specialties: The	W102	Parsons, Davis	9-10:30 a.m.	Room 126B, Level
Integration of Oncology and				1, Pennsylvania
Psychiatry				Convention Center
Integrated Care and the Future of		Crowley,Ratzliff,	9 a.m. – 12	Room 123, Level
Psychiatry: Teaching Psychiatry	S82	McCarron,	noon	1, Pennsylvania
Residents and Fellows to Work at the		Forstein,		<b>Convention Center</b>
Interface of Mental Health and Primary		Joseph, Frosh,		
Care (AADPRT)		Snyder, Han		
Integrating Psychiatric and General	W127	Gray, Scheiber	3:30 – 5:00	Room 111A, Level
Medical Care: Military and Civilian			p.m	1, Pennsylvania
Models				<b>Convention Center</b>

### WEDNESDAY

Roles for Psychiatrists in Integrated Care (AACP)	W133	Pollack, Raney, Vanderlip	9-10:30 a.m	Room 107A, Level 1, Pennsylvania Convention Center
Real World Implementation of Integrated Care Programs: Four Perspectives	W147	Ratzliff, Unutzer	11:00 a.m 12:30	Room 111A, Level 1, Pennsylvania Convention
Integrated Physical and Mental Health Condition Case Management	W152	Kathol, Raney	1:30 – 3:00 p.m	Room 106 A/B, Level 1, Con Ctr

\*\*Check Final Schedule to Verify Time and Location

# **Integrated Care**

Comorbidity, the co-occurrence of mental and physical disorders in the same person, is a well-established clinical and public health fact. The National Comorbidity Survey Replication for 2001–2003 indicated that more than 68% of persons with mental disorders reported having one or more general medical disorders, and 29% of those with medical disorders had a comorbid mental disorder (1). Diabetes, cardiovascular disease, and pulmonary disease are the most common illnesses among persons with psychiatric disorders.

From a population perspective, individuals with mental disorders have a twofold to fourfold elevated risk of premature mortality. These deaths are due to "natural causes" (such as cardiovascular disease) rather than suicide. In a multistate study of mortality data from 1997 to 2000, public-sector patients were found to die 25 years earlier on average than the general population (2).

Despite these facts, systems of care that treat individuals with serious mental illness are separate from general medical systems of care. From the mid-19th to the mid-20th century, psychiatric care took place in institutions, primarily state hospitals. Since the 1960s, most care has occurred in community settings, such as community mental health centers, day programs, nursing homes, and homeless shelters. These are separate men-

"Federal and state financing have reinforced two separate systems of care—one for mental health, one for physical health." tal health specialty programs; physical health care takes place elsewhere or not at all. Federal and state financing have reinforced two separate systems of care—one for mental health, one for physical health.

In this issue of the *Journal*, Druss et al. (3) report on a single-site randomized controlled trial of medical care management for individuals with serious mental illness treated in a community mental health center. This intervention consisted of registered nurses educating and coaching patients and assist-

ing with visits to comprehensive primary care services. A usual care comparison group was given a list of primary care programs in the community and referred to these programs. Individuals who received medical care management had sustained improvements in their quality of life as a result of improved quality of medical care relative to the comparison group. The authors also compared the clinical as well as the financial sustainability of the intervention after 2 years. From the broad perspective of the health system, the intervention was cost-effective—that is, positive outcomes were complemented by decreased costs during the study period. From the perspective of the clinic itself (that is, the managers who must cope with budget realities and financial losses), it was not sustainable. After the 2-year project and the lapse of the grant, the program was abandoned.

The population studied was primarily African American and poor. There was 40% coverage by Medicaid, so nearly 60% were uninsured. This lack of insurance coverage was the primary reason for the lack of financial sustainability.

There are a number of models for integrating medical, mental health, and substance use services: models within a single organization that provides all services; a partnership model in which primary care staff are embedded in a community mental health organization, or the opposite, where mental health staff are embedded in a primary care setting; and the model described in the Druss et al. article, a facilitated referral model that coordinates referrals to primary care, shares information with primary care, and helps educate patients about their health needs.

It is no surprise that the facilitated referral model Druss et al. describe failed to sustain itself beyond the grant period despite evidence of its cost-effectiveness. The large numbers of uninsured patients receiving care in this community mental health center destroyed its prospects for sustainability. The primary goal of the Affordable Care Act passed and signed by President Obama in 2010 is to decrease the number of uninsured Americans. The expansion of Medicaid to 133% of the poverty level and the creation of health insurance exchanges for uninsured middle-class Americans with subsidies should accomplish that goal. Political opposition may undermine the funding of the Affordable Care Act and its ability to decrease the number of uninsured. Even if this opposition is overcome, increased numbers of insured is a necessary but not sufficient reform to increase opportunities for integrated mental and physical health care. Programs and concepts contained within the Affordable Care Act (such as the primary care medical home and the accountable care organization [ACO]) have the potential to bring together both mental health and physical health services. Medical homes and ACOs could focus on the seriously mentally ill as fee-for-service migrates to bundled payments. These entities have clearly developed objectives and quality goals with rewards for certain outcomes, and they could move the delivery system substantially toward integration of physical and mental health. Bringing primary health care services into the community mental health center and bringing mental health services into primary care are needed changes as part of health care system reform. But they are also hostage to the issue of whether there will be enough funds to implement these service delivery innovations.

Our science tells us that it makes it little sense to split the mind and the body. Serious mental disorders are brain (body and mind) disorders requiring multiple pharmacologic and nonpharmacologic interventions. We also know that compromised brain function leads to compromises in other parts of the body, and there is the added factor that psychopharmacology can create metabolic and cardiovascular risks. Health system reform can make a difference in the lives and lifespans of patients with serious mental illness by bringing together their psychiatric and general medical care. Access to such integrated care saves lives.

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Dr. Sharfstein is president and CEO of Sheppard Pratt Health System. Dr. Freedman has reviewed this editorial and found no evidence of influence from this relationship.

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