- ¹ An economic rationale for mental health care reform in
- ² the Czech Republic: cost-effectiveness of care for people
- ³ with psychosis in the community and psychiatric hospitals
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31 Abstract

- Background The absence of economic evidence hinders current reforms of hospital based mental health systems in Central and Eastern Europe. We aimed to assess the costeffectiveness of care for people with chronic psychoses in psychiatric hospitals compared to
- 35 discharging patients to the community in the Czech Republic.
- 36 **Methods** We conducted a prospective study of people with chronic psychotic disorders and
- 37 evaluated the impact associated with discharge into community services as compared to not
- discharging people from psychiatric hospitals at baseline in the Czech Republic. We
- 39 measured utilization of services, health related quality of life, met and unmet needs, and
- 40 global functioning using an adapted Client Services Receipt Inventory (CSRI), EQ-5D-5L,
- 41 Camberwell Assessment of Need (CAN) and General Assessment of Functioning (GAF).
- 42 Adjusting for baseline differences between the two groups, we assessed differences in
- 43 societal costs in Euros (€) and QALYs over a year-long follow-up which we then used to
- 44 estimate the incremental cost-effectiveness ratio (ICER). We conducted multiple sensitivity
- 45 analyses to assess the robustness of our results.
- 46 **Outcomes** In our base case scenario, we included 115 patients who were either inpatient or
- 47 community services users at the baseline. The two groups were very similar in terms of their
- observed characteristics. The annual QALY was 0.77 and 0.80 in the group discharged to the
- 49 community at the baseline compared to not being discharged (difference 0.03 95%
- 50 confidence interval -0.04 to 0.1), but costs were €8,503 compared to €16,425 (difference
- 51 €7,922, 95% confidence interval 4,371 to 11,472) such that the ICER reached over 250,000 €
- 52 per QALY. This is considerably above levels that are conventionally considered to be cost-
- effective and the estimated probability that discharge to the community was cost-effective
- 54 was very high. None of the sensitivity analyses changed these results qualitatively.
- 55 Interpretation This study provides economic evidence for deinstitutionalization by showing
- that discharge to community care is cost-effective when compared to care in psychiatric
- 57 hospitals in the Czech Republic. Thus, it adds to the human rights- and clinical- based
- arguments for mental health care reforms in Central and Eastern Europe.

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63 Keywords

Psychiatric hospital, Community care, Cost-effectiveness, Deinstitutionalization, Schizophrenia, Psychotic
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68 Background

Schizophrenia, schizoaffective disorder and other forms of psychosis are associated with considerable disability. Schizophrenia alone is currently ranked 11th in terms of years lived with disability (YLD) worldwide¹. Psychotic disorders are also associated with high societal costs both in terms of health care costs and productivity losses. A recent systematic review by Jin and Mosweu² reported that, in absolute terms, yearly societal costs for schizophrenia ranged from US\$ 5,818 per patient in Thailand to US\$ 94,587 in Norway or as share of the GDP per capita, from 37% in Switzerland to 214% in the UK.

76 None of the studies included in this review, however, came from Central and Eastern Europe 77 (CEE) where mental health care for people with severe mental illnesses is still predominantly provided in large psychiatric hospitals with limited community-based alternatives. In the 78 79 Czech Republic, for example, people with schizophrenia are in many cases hospitalized for 5, 10 or even 20 years and there are currently more than 8000 psychiatric beds for adults^{3,4}. 80 Historically, this resembles the psychiatric care systems in countries such as England or Finland 81 82 which have since successfully undergone a process of deinstitutionalisation. In CEE, to date 83 such reforms have been proposed but mostly remain in the realms of rhetoric or aspirations⁵.

Research has demonstrated that deinstitutionalization is of benefit to people with severe 84 mental illness and does not bring about serious negative consequences such as increasing 85 homelessness or criminality⁶⁻⁸. Also, studies in a number of European countries have shown 86 87 that care in the community is not more expensive than care in psychiatric hospitals when both, costs and outcomes of care, were considered^{9,10}. Economic evaluations have played a 88 89 prominent role in the deinstitutionalization processes in England and other countries, both in 90 terms of providing an impetus for this policy and assisting in its success by means of regular monitoring of its impact¹⁰⁻¹³. 91

In the last 25 years, almost no full economic evaluation of complex interventions for people with severe mental illnesses in CEE was published, which presents a challenge to efforts to reform or improve mental health care systems in the region⁵. Therefore, we aimed to generate such evidence in the context of the current mental health care reforms in the Czech Republic both to inform decision making in this country and as a prelude to further research and 97 deliberations on deinstitutionalising in the wider CEE region. To that end, we compared the 98 quality of life and societal costs among people with psychosis who had been receiving care in 99 psychiatric hospitals for at least 3 months with patients who had been discharged to the 100 community care in the Czech Republic over a period of a year.

101 Methods

102 Study design and comparators

We conducted a prospective study of people with chronic psychotic disorders in the Czech 103 Republic. In order to approximate the impact of deinstitutionalisation on the cost-104 effectiveness of care, we sought to assess what difference it would have made on average if 105 patients who were long-term psychiatric inpatients (and may eventually be discharged 106 according to current practice) had instead been discharged to receive community care at the 107 start of our study (with the risk of being readmitted at a later stage). In our base case analysis 108 109 we took societal perspective with respect to measuring costs and a patient perspective with 110 respect to accounting for health outcomes because this was thought to be the most relevant to decision makers. We evaluated these treatment strategies over one year which 111 corresponds to the time horizon over which mental health care services are financed in the 112 Czech Republic. We obtained an ethical approval for this study from both the ethical 113 committee of the Prague Psychiatric Centre (currently the National Institute of Mental Health, 114 115 Czech Republic) and the ethical committee of Psychiatric hospital Bohnice, Prague, Czech Republic. 116

117 Participants and data collection

118 For the purposes of this study we combined two separate samples: (1) Patients who were under inpatient psychiatric care were drawn from the SUPR project, a broader study aimed at 119 120 monitoring the current standard of rehabilitative care on long-term wards with a particular focus on implementation of psychosocial rehabilitation principles and interventions on those 121 122 units¹⁴. For this project, we invited all 17 Czech psychiatric hospitals to participate and, if they 123 consented, asked them to select one or more wards primarily focused on providing care for chronic inpatients with psychosis from which study participants could be recruited; (2) 124 Focussing on multidisciplinary community teams which predominately cared for people with 125

severe mental illness, we chose eight providers of such care from six (out of a total of 14) Czech administrative regions in an informal attempt to sample services representative in terms of the structure of mental health care and socio-cultural makeup of the Czech Republic. We contacted potentially eligible participants among the respective providers in random order until at least 17 patients per provider consented to participate in the study.

131 To be included in the study, patients in both samples had to be of working age (i.e. between 18 and 64), had to have been given any diagnosis of non-affective psychosis as defined by the 132 133 ICD-10 codes F20 to F29, and had to have been in contact with mental health services for at least three months prior to data collection. The cognitive function of patients in the inpatient 134 cohort had to exceed 17 points on the Montreal Cognitive Assessment screening test¹⁵ 135 whereas we assumed that the patients living in the community were of sufficient cognitively 136 137 ability if they were thought to be able to give informed consent to study participation. After 138 data collection, for our base case analysis we further restricted the community sample to 139 people who had been discharged within less than a year prior to baseline so that our community sample reflected more closely the treatment strategy of interest, i.e. discharge to 140 the community at baseline. We assessed all participants at baseline and then followed them 141 up for a year at approximately 4 month intervals. 142

143 Measure of effectiveness

144 We used the EQ-5D-5L, a self-administered instrument consisting of five dimensions, to assess respondents' health related quality of life at each assessment. Its predecessor, the three level 145 146 EQ-5D-3L, has been extensively used as an outcome measure in health economic evaluations, particularly in the United Kingdom^{16,17,18}. The five level version of this instrument was 147 developed to improve the sensitivity of this previous three level version, and has been 148 demonstrated to improve instruments' discriminatory power ^{16,19}. Although the EQ-5D 149 descriptive system should be used with caution when measuring the impact of psychosis ^{20,21}, 150 its value for cost-effectiveness studies in mental health has been well demonstrated ²². Each 151 of the health states measured by the EQ-5D-5L has been assigned a preference-based value, 152 153 known as utility score, that summarises how good or bad each of the health states is on scale 154 anchored by 1 corresponding to full health and 0 corresponding to a state equivalent to death²³. Multiplying this utility score by the length of time spent in these health states yields 155 quality adjusted life years (QALYs) which is a popular measure of health benefit in health 156

economic evaluation because it enables comparison of cost-effectiveness across disease areas²⁴. We chose the UK tariffs to value health states because no Czech EQ-5D-5L tariffs are available and we deemed UK tariffs to be internationally the most influential²⁴. We used the standard area under the curve method to calculate QALYs²⁵.

161 As part of the study, two further instruments were measured: First, respondents were interviewed by a person belonging to the staff of the mental health care facility that was 162 trained to administer the Global Assessment of Functioning (GAF) before the beginning of data 163 collection. The GAF is a rating scale ranging from 0 to 100 reflecting the global impression of 164 an individual's social, occupation and psychological function and is thought to have good 165 psychometric properties for a brief instrument after appropriate training in its use²⁶. We did 166 not use GAF scores as a measure of treatment benefit because professionals in psychiatric 167 168 hospitals who administered this instrument over the course of the follow-up were often 169 different from those assessing GAF at the baseline and had thus not been trained in its use. Second, we assessed clinical and social needs and the degree to which they were met with the 170 Camberwell Assessment of Needs (CAN), a tool developed both for use in clinical practice and 171 research²⁷. We used a 22-item version of the instrument which is filled by both health care 172 professional and user. All the professionals who worked on collecting CAN data for this study 173 had been trained in using this instrument at baseline but again this was not always the case 174 over the follow-up. For this reason and due to the fact that only 11 post-baseline 175 176 measurements were collected in the hospital cohort, we also chose not analyse CAN follow-177 up ratings.

178 Estimating service use and costs

179 For the purposes of this study we adapted the commonly used Client Service Receipt Inventory 180 (CSRI) to identify and measure resource use from a societal perspective in a Czech context 181 among patients treated for psychosis and calculated unit costs thereof (see Appendix 1 for details). In short, this involved measuring and costing the use of mental health care services 182 (i.e. psychiatric inpatient, outpatient use), non-healthcare services (i.e. criminal justice costs 183 184 and community-based care which fall under social care in the Czech Republic) and productivity 185 losses (both to the person with psychosis and their carer). We also collected data on medication use through the CSRI, but this information was not reliable enough for costing 186 purposes in the community sample, so we excluded medication costs in our analysis. However, 187

188 good quality data on the medication costs was routinely collected on inpatient wards which 189 gave us an idea of the magnitude of the potential difference between the two groups. We 190 converted all costs in the study to 2016 Euros and, given the time horizon of the study, we 191 discounted neither costs nor effects. Since the CSRI asked for the amount of service use over 192 the month or three months preceding each interview, we linearly inflated the data to cover 193 the entire 4-month period between interviews.

194 Cost-effectiveness analysis

We divided differences in costs over the follow-up period between the two groups by 195 differences in QALYs to estimate the incremental cost-effectiveness ratio (ICER), a commonly 196 used summary measure of cost-effectiveness. Unless, one of the treatments is both less costly 197 and more effective, to be able to judge whether a treatment is cost-effective, it is necessary 198 to put the ICER in relation to a so-called cost-effectiveness threshold, which has either been 199 200 regarded to be the willingness to pay for health improvements by the decision maker or what 201 health benefit could be generated if investments were made in a different health intervention, the so-called opportunity cost²⁸. There is no official cost-effectiveness threshold in the Czech 202 Republic (and many other countries), but two approaches have been proposed in the 203 204 literature to provide some indication regarding their magnitude. The World Health Organisation suggests that an intervention could be cost-effective if the ICER is lower than one 205 to three times a country's GPD per capita (in 2016, approximately €17,000 to €50,000 in the 206 207 Czech Republic), whereas a more recent approach by Woods et al. implies a threshold between approximately €8,000 and €22,000²⁸⁻³⁰. We illustrate the uncertainty surrounding 208 these cost-effectiveness estimates graphically using two approaches. First, we produce a cost-209 effectiveness plane (CEP), i.e. a diagram with difference in QALYs on the horizontal axis and 210 difference in costs on the vertical axis displaying the central cost-effectiveness estimate and 211 the uncertainty in terms of these two dimensions³¹. Second, we calculate the cost-212 effectiveness acceptability curve (CEAC) which, in this case, shows the estimated probability 213 that discharge to the community is cost-effective given the sampling uncertainty³². 214

215 Potential confounders

Particularly in observational studies, it is possible that the treatment groups of interest are not comparable because of factors that differ between them which are also causally 218 associated with the outcomes of interest. More specifically, in the context of this study, we 219 had two concerns: (a) people who were in hospital at baseline could be more unwell than those in the community and this imbalance required reliance on a statistical model to adjust 220 for these differences; (b) It was possible that some subgroups of patients were only present 221 in one cohort but not the other, i.e. there would be a so-called 'lack of overlap' in some 222 variables, such that either extrapolation beyond the observed data would be required or it 223 was necessary to restrict the eligibility criteria to the study further. For example, it was 224 conceivable that patients with severe psychotic symptoms or problematic care needs would 225 226 only be observed in the hospital sample because this is where adequate care could be provided for them. To reduce this potential bias, we therefore both checked whether there 227 was sufficient overlap between the two groups in terms of selected variables that were 228 measured in the samples and, if necessary, adjusted for these variables in the analysis (see 229 230 Appendix 2 for our variable selection strategy). In our base case analysis, we chose to adjust for (i) baseline EQ-5D-5L utility score, (ii) the baseline GAF score, (iii) age, (iv) gender, (v) 231 interaction term between the time since discharge from hospital and the community/hospital 232 233 group indicator.

234 Statistical analyses

For all our analyses, we used a regression approach to address observed confounding. In our 235 primary analysis, we used a seemingly unrelated regression (SUR) approach to incorporate 236 potential correlation between costs and QALYs into our statistical model³³. To account for 237 missing data, we used a multiple imputation approach which assumes that data was missing 238 at random (MAR), i.e. missingness was unrelated to the unobserved value conditioning on all 239 240 other variables. In addition, we assumed that, once discharged, patients who were in hospital at baseline had costs of service use equivalent to the community cohort (see Appendix 2 for 241 details). While it was not possible to do so in our SUR model, when analysing QALYs and cost 242 data separately (as well as in other secondary analyses), we used cluster robust standard 243 errors to allow for correlation of outcomes within care facilities and we used a fractional logit 244 model to model QALYs and EQ-5D-5L utilities since, by definition, these are constrained to be 245 smaller than 1 in this study. We used a negative binomial regression model to analyse 246 247 differences in service use and a random effects logit model to estimate medication use. We performed all statistical analyses in Stata 15³⁴. In line with expected mortality in this 248

population, one of the study participants died during the study follow-up, however, we considered our sample size too small to warrant the attempt to statistically model survival differences between groups using non-standard methods that adequately account for such rare events^{35,36}. Instead, for simplicity, we treated the data following the death of this patient as missing.

254 Sensitivity analyses

To assess the sensitivity of the results, we first investigated whether the degree to which we 255 256 restricted our community sample had any impact by increasing the maximum time between hospital discharge and baseline to two years and to five years. Second, based on evidence by 257 Tulloch et al.³⁷ we used both a quadratic and a linear interaction factor between community 258 care and time since discharge. Third, in addition to the aforementioned potential confounders, 259 260 we included five CAN items in the analysis, namely whether the patient had any needs in terms 261 of self-care (item 4), psychotic symptoms (item 7), safety to self (item 10) or any substance 262 abuse problems (items 12 and 13 combined) (see appendix 2 for our rationale behind this 263 choice). Fourth, data could be missing not at random (MNAR) rather than MAR, i.e. 264 missingness could be associated with the unobserved value after conditioning on other 265 variables. Hence, we investigated the impact of increasing and decreasing the utility score of 266 time points in which there was missing data by approximately half a baseline standard deviation, i.e. ±0.1. Fifth, we excluded patients who did not fulfil the above-mentioned overlap 267 requirement instead of extrapolating results based on the statistical model. Finally, we 268 calculated the cost-effectiveness of the intervention from a government rather than a societal 269 perspective, i.e. we excluded informal care costs and productivity losses, because this may be 270 271 of relevance to some decision makers.

272 Results

273 Participants and descriptive statistics

Overall, 115 patients were included in our base case analysis (see Figure 1). More participants were inpatients at baseline services (n=80, 70%) and more were male (n=68, 59%). For further sociodemographic characteristics see Table 1. Appendix Table A.3.1 shows that, on average, patients who agreed to participate in the community sample had longer length of contact with mental health services and were less likely to be single compared to those who declined to 279 participate. Appendix Figure A.3.1 shows that the rate of missingness for the potential 280 confounders and outcome measures was markedly higher in patients who were inpatients at baseline and Appendix 2 discusses some of the reasons behind this. Figures A.3.2 and A.3.3 in 281 the appendix show that the two groups were well balanced in terms of most potential 282 confounders, however, self-care needs were somewhat more common among those who 283 were inpatients at baseline and problems with psychotic symptoms were less common. There 284 was some lack of overlap at the upper end of the distribution of GAF scores and at the lower 285 end of the distribution of EQ-5D-5L utility scores. Use of antipsychotics at baseline and over 286 287 the study follow-up were broadly comparable across the two groups but those who received hospital care at baseline were more likely to use multiple classes of antipsychotics and 2nd 288 generation antipsychotics over the study follow-up (see appendix figure A.3.4). 289

290 Costs, QALYs and cost-effectiveness

291 As shown in Figure 3(b), societal costs over the study follow-up were consistently significantly 292 higher in patients who were on a psychiatric ward at baseline, leading to an overall difference in costs of €7,922 (95% confidence interval (CI) 4497 to 11346). This difference was almost 293 294 exclusively caused by the cost of inpatient care itself such that the decrease in costs among people who had not been discharged to the community at baseline mirrors the fact that by 295 the end of follow-up approximately half of this group had been discharged (see Figure A.3.5). 296 Costs of social care were somewhat higher in the community cohort and productivity losses 297 slightly lower but, compared to differences in terms of health care costs between the groups 298 299 driven by the high cost of inpatient care itself, these were insubstantial (see Figure 2). Patients who were in hospital at baseline had a 0.03 (95% CI -0.04 to 0.1) higher QALY over the follow-300 up but as shown in Figure 3 (a), EQ-5D-5L utility scores remained relatively stable in both arms. 301 302 The cost-effectiveness plane in Appendix Figure A.3.6 illustrates the joint sampling uncertainty 303 with respect to cost and QALY differences and Table A.3.2 shows the full regression results of 304 the base case analysis. With an ICER of €256,855 per QALY, the QALY gain was not sufficiently high to offset the large difference in costs between the group such that, even at the highest 305 306 of the thresholds mentioned above (€50,000 per QALY) continued inpatient care was not cost-307 effective. In fact, the cost-effectiveness acceptability curve in Appendix Figure A.3.7 indicates that even at a willingness to pay as high as €100,000 per QALY the probability that discharge 308 309 to the community is cost-effective remains above 75%. Table 2 shows that, quantitatively, the ICER was significantly affected by assumptions regarding the EQ-5D-5L missingness mechanism and how time since discharge was adjusted for in the model. However, even in the scenario most favourable not discharging patients at baseline we obtained an ICER of approximately €110,000 and the lowest probability that discharge to the community was costeffective was estimated to be 97% such that, qualitatively, the results did not change in any of the sensitivity analyses.

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317 Discussion

This is the first study to provide economic evidence for the mental health care reform in the 318 319 Czech Republic and could potentially act as a prototype for assessing similar reforms in other countries of CEE. Similar to previous studies, our results show that inpatient care for people 320 321 with chronic psychosis is costly compared to the care in the community and these differences do not appear to be offset by savings elsewhere. Moreover, the difference in annual costs per 322 patient of €7,922 dwarfed the 0.03 gain in QALYs. The high ICER did not appear to be a result 323 of substandard antipsychotic treatments on psychiatric wards and were robust in our 324 325 sensitivity analyses. In addition, patients who were discharged within less than one year and 326 inpatients were much more similar in terms of their observed characteristics at baseline than we expected. This supported the comparability between the two groups and suggests that, if 327 appropriately carried out, deinstitutionalisation may be feasible for a large proportion of the 328 current inpatient population. Just like in other countries which have undergone the process 329 of deinstitutionalisation, we do not believe that the results imply that there is no role for 330 inpatient care but that shifting investments towards community care and providing time-331 restricted inpatient care is likely to give better value for money than long-term psychiatric 332 333 hospitalisations. This argument adds to the human rights arguments based on the CRPD and especially on its article 19 emphasizing a right to live independently and in the community^{4,38}, 334 and clinical arguments based on long-term favourable outcomes of deinstitutionalized 335 patients in other countries of the world^{6,7}. 336

In terms of the scope of the study, the construction of the Czech version of the CSRI, calculation of unit costs, review of health service and epidemiological data and building partnership with providers of mental health care in the Czech Republic have been pioneering

340 and we were able to capture a broad range of cost-drivers and verify the accuracy of data in many cases. For example, although consumption of care was not independently assessed (e.g. 341 by health insurance companies), where possible, we were able to cross-check CSRI data 342 against the records of participating facilities to improve the accuracy of health and social care 343 use data. At the same time, we did not account for the impact of discharge to the community 344 on people other than the patient (e.g. family or partners providing care to the patient) or 345 measure costs of physical health care, housing and pharmaceuticals. Participants were 346 interviewed by a staff member of a mental health care facility upon completion of CSRI. This 347 348 might have introduced some bias, as participants may have been hesitant to disclose sensitive information, such as contact with the system of criminal justice. In practice, we were also 349 unable to compare the groups in terms of any measure of effectiveness other than QALYs 350 derived from EQ-5D-5L. In addition, in this study we only followed up our participants for a 351 352 year and we would think that the comparative advantage of discharge to the community care are likely to extend beyond this period thereby potentially improving cost-effectiveness 353 further. Perhaps more importantly, one should keep in mind that we did not evaluate the 354 355 impact of the reform directly, but we effectively estimated the cost-effectiveness of postreform care practices compared with the current care practice once the necessary 356 357 infrastructure and care professionals in the community are in place, i.e. leaving aside setup 358 costs that are likely to be incurred. In addition, in practice, both systems, the old hospital-359 based and the new community-based one, will have to be run simultaneously for some time.

360 Several aspects relating to the study design are also relevant to the interpretation of the results and to informing the conduct of future studies of this kind. Although attempts were 361 made to recruit patients from services that captured the regional variations in terms of the 362 structure of mental health care and socio-cultural background of the Czech Republic, we only 363 364 had limited evidence on whether institutions or participants who declined to participate systematically differed from the one's that would be impacted by the health care reforms and 365 whether this may have led to recruitment bias. Rather than restricting our sample and relying 366 367 on the correct specification of our statistical model, it would have been preferable to recruit people at the time of discharge to community services. Finally, as in every observational study, 368 although we showed that there were no large differences between the two patient 369 370 populations in terms of socio-demographic characteristics, health-related quality of life and functioning, bias may have arisen due to the presence of unobserved confounders and thesmall sample size of the study limited our ability to adjust for confounding.

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374 Conclusions

We demonstrated that in the Czech Republic, community-based care for people with chronic 375 psychotic disorders is far less costly than care in psychiatric hospitals. We believe that this is 376 377 yet another argument for pursuing deinstitutionalization in the Czech Republic. The results of this study add to the current modest evidence on the economics of deinstitutionalization^{10,40} 378 and, while one should be cautious in extrapolating the evidence to other CEE countries, the 379 380 results suggest that deinstitutionalisation may not just be cost-effective in Western countries 381 but also in a mental health care system that is much more similar to those in this region where other evidence is currently lacking⁵ and where there is a lack of evaluative culture⁴¹. We 382 believe that the economic evidence from the present study should be complemented with 383 additional studies looking into economic consequences of the deinstitutionalization which has 384 been proposed in the region. For example, similar to studies conducted in England, Italy, and 385 Germany^{10,42}, economic models of shifting the care from hospitals to communities as well as 386 387 analyses of differences in costs across providers and regions would be useful. Before 388 implementing this policy, decision makers also need to consider how to finance it. The Czech Republic utilized European Structural and Investment Funds to cover the costs of the first 389 phase of the transition period and this funding opportunity may be open to other EU countries 390 in the region, whereas non-EU countries in CEE may be able to benefit from other sources, 391 such as the cooperation with Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation. In addition, it 392 would be undesirable if savings in one sector (e.g. health care) would be possible because of 393 partially shifting the costs to another sector (e.g. social care) without appropriate rebalancing 394 395 of budgets. Following deinstitutionalization, it would be valuable to follow up people in the community to monitor their services use and clinical outcomes in order to assess phenomena 396 which have been associated with deinstitutionalization, such as decrease in (post-discharge) 397 mortality⁴⁴ suicides⁴³ and among patients, door⁴⁵, 398 increase in revolving transinstitutionalization⁴⁶, and satisfaction and quality of life of patients⁶. The studies of this 399 kind should inform the decision making to ensure that the proposed reforms are economically 400 401 sound, beneficial to patients and sustainable.

402 Authors' disclosure

403 Authors' contribution

Petr Winkler initiated, planned and designed the study, coordinated the study, contributed to 404 405 the analyses and led the writing of the manuscript. Leonardo Koeser conducted the statistical analyses, contributed to the study design and the writing of the manuscript. Lucie Kondrátová 406 participated in designing the study, coordinated data collection and participated in writing of 407 408 the manuscript. Hana Marie Broulíková calculated unit costs, participated in conducting economic analyses and writing of the manuscript. Marek Páv contributed to the design of the 409 study, coordinated data collection in hospitals and writing of the manuscript. Lucie Kališová 410 411 contributed to the design of the study and writing of the manuscript. Paul McCrone and Barbara Barrett supervised the whole project from the very beginning and helped to make 412 important strategic decisions. 413

414 Ethical considerations

- 415 Ethical approval was obtained from the Prague Psychiatric Centre's (predecessor of NIMH CZ)
- ethical committee and from ethical committee of Psychiatric hospital Bohnice, coordinator ofthe SUPR project.

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427 Conflict of interest

428 Authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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- all respondents as well as to those who collected the data.

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534 Tables and figures

Care location at baseline Patient characteristic\Summary statistic		Community (N=35)		Hospital (N=80)	%*,†
		N†	%*,†	N (%*)†	
Gender	Male	21	60	47	59
	Female	14	40	33	41
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Nationality	Czech	34	97	74	95
	Other	1	3	4	5
	Missing	0	0	2	3
Marital status	Single	19	54	39	62
	Unmarried				
	with a partner	5	14	6	10
	Married	1	3	3	5
	Divorced	10	29	14	22
	Widowed	0	0	1	2
	Missing	0	0	17	21
Highest	Elementary				
educational					
attainment		3	9	26	33
	Lower				
	secondary	20	57	30	38
	Higher				
	secondary	8	23	17	22
	College			-	
	education	4	11	5	b Э
	IVIISSING	U	0	2	3
Age (in years)	iviean (SD)	41	11	42	11
	Missing	0	0	1	1
Years of contact	Mean (SD)	2.5	2.7	2.1	2.2
with mental	Missing			14	10
	Maan (SD)	U	U	14	10
Days since	iviean (SD)	10/	104	n/2	nla
uischarge		194	104	II/d	II/d

535 **Table 1: Baseline patient characteristics in the base case analysis (N=115)**

*For categories other that 'Missing' the denominator for the percentages is the number of observations

without missing data whereas for the 'Missing' category the percentage of missing data as a share of thewhole sample is shown

539 ⁺ unless otherwise specified in the second column

- 540 SD: standard deviation
- 541

542 Figure 1: Study flow-chart

Hospital	Care location at baseline	Community
18	Total number of providers	c.20
	in the Czech Republic	
Û		Û
18	Providers invited for	8
	participation in the study	
Û		Û
11 (13	Providers who agreed to	8
wards)	participate in the study	
Û		Û
Unknown	Patients considered as	277
	potentially eligible for the	
	study	
Û		Û
86	Patients who consented to	138*
	participate in the study	
$\hat{\Gamma}$		Û
80†	Patients included in the	35**
	base case analysis	

543

^{*} Reasons for non-participation: not in a good health (N=29), no interest in research (N=29), hospitalised

545 (N=26), concerns about confidentiality of the study (N=22), no longer seen by service (N=13), unable to be

reached (N=9), length/frequency of interviews (N=7), lack of cooperation (N=4) (see Appendix Table A.3.1

547 for comparison of characteristics between participants and non-participatns)

** Reason for exclusion: missing data on time from last hospitalisation (N=26), more than 1 year since
 discharge from psychiatric hospital (N=75)

- 550 + Reason for exclusion: missing all follow-up cost and EQ-5D-5L date (N=6)
- 551

552 Figure 2: Unadjusted costs by category over the 12-month follow-up by treatment group (base case

553 analysis)



557 Figure 3: Development of unadjusted (a) EQ-5D-5L utility scores and (b) societal costs over the





Table 2: Difference in costs, quality adjusted life years (QALYs) and cost-effectiveness by analysis scenario

	Difference in costs		Difference in QALYs (Not		Incremental cost-	Probability of a discharge to		
	(Not discharged at			discharged at baseline-		effectiveness	the community at baseline	
	baseline-discharge to			discharge to community at		ratio (ICER)	being cost-effective at a	
	community at			baseline)			threshold of €50,000/QALY	
	baseline)							
Scenario	Mean	95%		Mean	95% Conf	idence		
		Confid	ence		Interval			
		Interva	al					
Base case	7922	4497	11346	0.03	-0.04	0.1	256855	100
Include patients up to 2 years								
after discharge	8684	6096	11272	0.04	-0.01	0.09	197573	100
Include patients up to 5 years								
after discharge	9580	7571	11588	0.06	0.02	0.1	157477	100
Adding quadratic interaction								
term	6017	698	11336	-0.02	-0.12	0.09	-398752	97
Adjusting for CAN items	7774	4234	11314	0.03	-0.04	0.1	263908	100
Increasing missing EQ-5D-5L								
by 0.1	7922	4497	11346	0.07	0	0.13	115764	97
Decreasing missing EQ-5D-5L								
by 0.1	7922	4497	11346	-0.01	-0.08	0.06	-1174035	100
Removing non-overlapping								
observations	7867	4237	11497	0.03	-0.04	0.1	268784	100
Government perspective	7685	4370	11000	0.03	-0.03	0.1	233172	100

563 Research in context

564 Evidence before this study

565 Economic evaluations have been widely used to support deinstitutionalization in a number of European

566 countries. Studies that assessed both, costs and outcomes of mental health care for people with chronic severe

- 567 mental illnesses, suggested that community care may be more cost-effective than long-stay hospital care.
- 568 Mental health care reforms in the region of Central and Eastern Europe has remained largely unimplemented
- and the economic evidence to inform decision making there is almost completely missing.

570 Added value of this study

- 571 This study demonstrates that deinstitutionalization of psychiatric hospitals in the Czech Republic is a reform
- which is not only in line with EU and WHO policy recommendations, but which is also cost-effective. Although,
- 573 in our sample, the QALY gain was slightly lower among patients who were discharged to community services
- 574 when compared to those who stayed inpatient, the annual costs were much disproportionately higher in the
- 575 inpatient group.

576 Implications of all the available evidence

- 577 The available evidence, which is now based not only on human rights and clinical but also on the economic
- 578 argument, supports deinstitutionalization in the region of Central and Eastern Europe. Individual countries in
- 579 the region should look for resources to fund transitional period which might temporarily incur higher costs
- 580 associated with setting up new services, maintaining both, the old and the new mental health care system, and
- 581 accommodating needs of deinstitutionalized patients. In order to achieve an optimal balance between costs
- and outcomes of mental health care in the region, future studies should model various scenarios of mental
- 583 health care reforms in individual countries.

584