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A Critical Review of Multi-Morbidity Outcome Measures suitable for Low- and Middle Income Country Settings: perspectives from the Global Alliance for Chronic Diseases (GACD) Researchers

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Complete List of Authors:	Hurst, John; UCL Medical School,, Academic Unit of Respiratory Medicine Agarwal, Gina; McMaster University, Family Medicine van Boven, Job F. M.; Univ Groningen Daivadanam, Meena; Karolinska Institutet, Department of Public Health Sciences; Uppsala University , Department of Food, Nutrition and Dietetics Gould, Gillian; The University of Newcastle, School of Medicine and Public Health; University of Newcastle Hunter Medical Research Institute, Wan-Chun Huang, Erick ; Woolcock Institute of Medical Research, Sydney, Australia Maulik, Pallab; The George Institute for Global Health, Miranda, J. Jaime; Universidad Peruana Cayetano Heredia, CRONICAS Centre of Excellence in Chronic Diseases Owolabi, M. O.; University of Ibadan College of Medicine, Medicine Premji, Shahirose ; York University, Soriano, Joan; Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Vedanthan, Rajesh; NYU Langone Health, Yan, Lijing; Global Health Research Center, Duke Kunshan University, Kunshan, Jiangsu, China Levitt, Naomi; University of Cape Town , medicine
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A Critical Review of Multi-Morbidity Outcome Measures suitable for Low- and Middle Income Country Settings: perspectives from the Global Alliance for Chronic Diseases (GACD) Researchers

John R Hurst, Gina Agarwal, Job F M van Boven, Meena Daivadanam, Gillian S Gould, Erick Wan-Chun Huang, Pallab K Maulik, J Jaime Miranda, Mayowa O Owolabi, Shahirose Sadrudin Premji, Joan B Soriano, Rajesh Vedanthan, Lijing L Yan, Naomi S Levitt *

***: on behalf of the GACD Multi-Morbidity Working Group contributors:**

Ricardo Araya, Kirsten Bobrow, Niels H Chavannes, F Xavier Gómez-Olivé, Shabbar Jaffar, Bruce J Kirenga, Rianne M J J van der Kleij, Muralidhar M Kulkarni, Laura Loli-Dano, Patricio Lopez-Jaramillo, Shane Norris, Josefien van Olmen, Gary Parker, Trishul Siddharthan, Kamran Siddiqi, Najma Siddiqi, Antigona C Trofor

Corresponding Author:

John R Hurst
Professor of Respiratory Medicine
UCL Respiratory
University College London
London
UK

j.hurst@ucl.ac.uk

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Conflict of Interest

The Authors have no conflicts of interest to declare in relation to this work.

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Abstract

OBJECTIVES: There is growing recognition around the importance of multi-morbidity in low- and middle-income country (LMIC) settings, and specifically the need for pragmatic intervention studies to reduce the risk of developing multi-morbidity, and of mitigating the complications and progression of multi-morbidity in LMICs. One of many challenges in completing such research has been the selection of appropriate outcomes measures. A 2018 Delphi exercise to develop a core-outcome set for multi-morbidity research (COSmm) did not specifically address the challenges of multi-morbidity in LMICs where the global burden is greatest, patterns of disease often differ and health systems are frequently fragmented. We therefore aimed to summarise and critically review outcome measures suitable for studies investigating mitigation of multi-morbidity in low- and middle-income country (LMIC) settings..

SETTING: LMIC

PARTICIPANTS: people with multi-morbidity.

OUTCOME MEASURES: identification of all outcome measures

RESULTS: We present a critical review of outcome measures across eight domains: mortality, quality of life, function, health economics, health-care access and utilization, treatment burden, measures of 'healthy living', and self-efficacy and social functioning.

CONCLUSIONS: Studies in multi-morbidity are necessarily diverse and thus different outcome measures will be appropriate for different study designs. Presenting the diversity of outcome measures across domains should provide a useful summary for researchers, encourage the use of multiple domains in multi-morbidity research, and provoke debate and progress in the field

TRIAL REGISTRATION: Not applicable.

Strengths and Limitations

- There is no existing review of outcome measures suitable for use in studies to mitigate multi-morbidity in LMIC settings.
- The article is the written by the Global Alliance for Chronic Diseases researchers.
- It is not a systematic review.
- Further work is required to develop a core-outcome set for use in LMIC.

Introduction

There is growing recognition around the importance of multi-morbidity in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) [1]. Multi-morbidity, as defined by the United Kingdom Academy of Medical Sciences (AMS) refers to “*the co-existence of two or more chronic conditions, each of which is either a physical non-communicable disease of long duration, a mental health condition of long duration, or an infectious disease of long duration*” [1]. The AMS report highlights challenges in delivering multi-morbidity research [2], including the selection of appropriate outcome measures. In 2018, Smith completed a Delphi exercise to develop a core-outcomes set for multi-morbidity research (COSmm) [3]. The highest scoring outcomes were health-related quality of life, mental health outcomes and mortality. Whilst ground-breaking, this process did not specifically target the challenges of multi-morbidity in LMICs where the global burden is greatest, patterns of disease often differ and health systems are frequently fragmented.

The Global Alliance for Chronic Diseases (GACD) is an alliance of health-research funders, whose research teams form a network of multidisciplinary researchers from both LMICs and high-income countries (HICs). We aim to reduce the impact of non-communicable diseases (NCDs) through a focus on implementation science research in LMICs, and high-priority populations in HICs. Recognizing synergies across our disease-specific programmes, in 2017 we formed a Multi-Morbidity Working Group and published a GACD Researchers’ Statement concluding that “*a greater focus on multi-morbidity is overdue and necessary to successfully improve global health outcomes*”, thus acknowledging the specific challenge of multi-morbidity in the LMIC context [4]. The statement went on to propose three strategic objectives, one of which was to change the way research is commissioned, funded and delivered when considering NCDs in LMICs.

Discussion with research funders subsequently highlighted that one barrier to funding research addressing multi-morbidity in LMICs was a perceived lack of robust outcome measures. We have therefore developed this GACD Researchers’ perspective on outcome measures suitable for studies of multi-morbidity in LMICs, taking into account the challenges of (routine) data collection, and patient-provider factors such as differences in interpreting social constructs and health literacy. The intent is to build on the COSmm work [3]. Derived from a common base of expertise in NCD implementation research in LMICs, we present a diversity of potential measures that can accommodate different aspects of impact in LMICs, ranging from individual level outcomes to health service and health system effects. This is not an attempt to provide a core outcome measures set. Rather, together, the potential outcome measures inform different evaluations of effectiveness and/or process for multi-morbidity. We present these as a useful resource for those designing and reviewing intervention studies for multi-morbidity in LMIC settings, and hope this initiative may promote harmonization across studies that will be essential to better map the impact of multi-morbidity in LMIC settings.

Method

Potential outcome measures suitable for studies of multi-morbidity in LMICs were collected through a survey among the GACD multi-morbidity working group, and distilled by the writing committee (the Authors) into categories. All measures had to be suitable for use in multi-morbidity intervention studies in LMIC, either at the individual or the population level, and from an implementation science perspective. Criteria for suitability included ease of measurement, generalizability and statistical considerations. Each outcome approach is fully described below. The initial synthesis was reviewed by members of the GACD Multi-Morbidity Working Group for additional comments and suggestions (the Contributors). The resulting narrative review summarizes the group's collective thoughts within each domain of outcome measures studied.

Patient and Public Involvement

Patients or the public were not involved in the design, conduct, reporting, or dissemination plans of our research.

Outcome Measures for Multi-Morbidity Interventions in LMIC

1. Mortality

Death is the final common outcome for all individuals. Thus (premature) mortality is the most broadly applicable, generalizable, and comparable outcome for multi-morbidity research. Indeed, mortality was considered as an "essential" core outcome measure for multi-morbidity research according to the COSmm consensus [3].

However, precisely because mortality is so broadly applicable, it suffers from a lack of specificity. While cause-specific mortality is a potential solution to the issue of specificity, this approach moves away from the goal of multi-morbidity-based outcome consideration. In addition, mortality does not reflect the quality of life that an individual experiences during the time of survival; particularly in the context of multi-morbidity, both disability and quality-of-life considerations are important in terms of an individual's experience of illness, wellness and life. Indeed, death is not always the most important outcome from a patient-centered perspective, as has been demonstrated in studies assessing patient preferences of different potential health outcomes [5-7] and conceptualized as Disability-Adjusted Life Years.

Practical challenges with mortality as an outcome measure include statistical power and sample size for an outcome that is relatively rare compared to other outcomes and proxies, potentially requiring much longer follow-up periods, except for older and/or more severely affected populations. It is, however, generally easy to measure and while the primary cause may be ascertained through techniques such as verbal autopsy (2016 WHO VA standard) [8], assessing the contribution of multi-morbidity at verbal autopsy is more challenging. Whilst misclassifying the cause of death can impact the effect size for cause-specific mortality, power will be preserved for all-cause mortality. In some LMICs, ascertainment of deaths remains difficult due to the lack of mature vital registry systems and cultural traditions promoting deaths at home with delay in reporting.

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3 Thus, mortality as an outcome for multi-morbidity research has been infrequently utilized,
4 particularly in the context of LMIC settings [9-11]. Demographic surveillance sites that have a
5 long record of verbal autopsy could, however, provide a useful data reservoir to examine
6 associations between multi-morbidity and mortality
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10 **2. Generic Quality of Life scales**

11 Health-related quality of life (HRQoL) instruments measure multidimensional wellbeing and
12 functioning. Such scales may be generic such as EQ-5D and SF-36, or disease (/area) specific.
13 While disease-specific measures may have better content and face validity as well as better
14 responsiveness and sensitivity to change compared to generic measures, generic measures are
15 (by definition) not disease specific and likely better for comparison of HRQoL among different
16 diseases and for diseases in combination, an important consideration for multi-morbidity
17 research.
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21 Among generic tools, the COSmm consensus [3] ranked the EQ-5D, SF36 and '12, and Global
22 quality of life (WHOQOL-BREF) most highly
23
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25 The EQ-5D [12] has been widely used since introduction in the 1990s, facilitating health-
26 economic analysis (see below). It is designed to be completed by the participant and is
27 available in multiple languages and thus widely applicable. The EQ-5D questionnaire has two
28 components (health-state description and evaluation). In the health state description, health
29 status is measured across five dimensions: mobility, self-care, usual activities, pain/discomfort,
30 and anxiety/depression. In the evaluation section, the respondents evaluate their overall health
31 status using a visual analogue scale.
32
33

34 The SF-36 [13] has 36 questions across eight domains: vitality, physical functioning, bodily pain,
35 general health perceptions, physical role functioning, emotional role functioning, social role
36 functioning and mental health.
37
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39 The WHOQOL-BREF [14] is an abbreviated version of the WHOQOL-100 quality of life
40 assessment, originally developed by the WHOQOL Group working across fifteen international
41 field centers to develop a quality of life assessment applicable across multiple settings.
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44 HRQoL tools have a number of advantages over mortality as an outcome, being amenable to
45 changes in the short term. HRQoL outcomes are particularly meaningful as the aim of clinical
46 treatment and management is generally optimizing quality of life. Consequently, managing
47 multi-morbidity needs to take quality of life into account both as an outcome marker, but also an
48 input factor into formulating clinical management. Practical considerations in LMIC include the
49 availability of valid translations in local languages, and the challenges of use in populations with
50 low literacy or understanding of visual-analogue scales. Other unanswered questions include
51 whether thresholds for minimum clinically important differences on these scales should be
52 altered in the context of multi-morbidity. Notably, some common NCDs such as hypertension
53 are not generally associated with significant symptom burden.
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3. Multi-dimensional indices of function

The AMS [1] recommended that reports of multi-morbidity should provide details of functional deficits, or disabilities and frailty. In both instances the recommendation was made that this should be coded using a standardized classification scheme. For the former, the WHO Disability Assessment Schedule 2.0 (WHODAS 2.0) or the International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF) were suggested. For the latter, the cumulative deficit model of frailty or Fried's phenotype model was recommended (see below).

WHO Disability Assessment Schedule

The WHODAS 2.0 has been widely used in epidemiological and observational studies in LMICs. It is a self-administered 12 item questionnaire that assesses six different adult life tasks over the preceding month. The specific areas covered are 1) understanding and communication; 2) self-care; 3) mobility; 4) interpersonal relationships; 5) work and household roles and 6) community and civic roles. WHODAS has been included as a secondary outcome measure in three multi-morbidity trials in LMIC (currently unreported [15-17]).

Frailty assessment instruments:

There are many methods to assess frailty including the Fried Index, the Frailty Index and the British Frailty Index. While these have been used to examine the prevalence, correlates or outcomes of frailty in LMIC, further validation is still required in these settings [18]. Of the various metrics, the Fried Index [19] has been the most commonly used in LMIC. This index measures frailty by the presence of three or more of five physical deficits - exhaustion, weakness, slowness, low levels of activity and weight loss. Three of the items are collected using questionnaires, but slowness is assessed using a walking test and weakness by assessing grip strength. The Frailty Index has also been commonly used in LMICs and uses the presence or absence of medical conditions or poor performance on functional tasks to assess the number of deficits present and thus frailty [18]. Using frailty as an outcome measure for intervention studies in patients with multi-morbidity in LMIC is limited by factors such as a lack of equipment, and the question remains as to how susceptible to change such measurements are, and what a minimum clinically important difference (MCID) might be. Despite this, frailty instruments remain an important outcome in LMIC settings given that frailty may be a confounding factor in self-care, treatment adherence and family burden.

Assessment of physical functioning:

Physical functioning measures are commonly studied outcomes. The most frequently used indices include activities of daily living (such as eating, dressing and toileting), instrumental activities of daily living (such as shopping and answering phone calls), and the Barthel Index (self-reported outcomes on degree of assistance needed for mobility, self-care and continence). Smith [3] described activities of daily living, physical function and physical activity as core outcomes in multi-morbidity interventions. For ADL the following measures received greatest support: Frenchay Activities Index (FAI), Nottingham Extended Activities of Daily Living (NEADL) and the Instructions for Activities of Daily Living questionnaire (ADL/ IADL), but these have not been evaluated in the context of LMICs.

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3 The modified Rankin Scale is an example of a disease-specific (in this case, stroke) composite
4 outcome measure including rating of functioning from no interference with daily life, through
5 various degrees of disability to death. These outcomes are relatively easy to assess and have
6 particular relevance in LMICs as people generally express strong desires in maintaining
7 physical functioning including their ability to work, avoiding financial consequences and burden
8 on family caregiving.
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11 12 13 **4. Health Economic indices**

14 The AMS report [1] highlighted the economic burden of multi-morbidity in LMICs and thus health
15 economic indices are a rational choice as multi-morbidity outcome measures. However, most
16 economic data on multi-morbidity were gathered in HICs and the question arises as to whether
17 measurement instruments, data and outcomes commonly used to assess cost implications of
18 multi-morbidity in HICs are applicable to LMIC settings.
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21 One of the most common economic evaluations of healthcare interventions makes use of a
22 technique called cost-effectiveness analysis and specifically the *incremental cost-effectiveness*
23 *ratio* (ICER) [20]. The method to calculate the ICER is not disease specific, making it just as
24 suitable to assess multi-morbidity interventions as single disease interventions. However, it
25 requires specific attention to the definitions and collection of costs and effect data in LMICs.
26 Within this ratio, costs and effects can be defined, measured, and calculated in different ways,
27 of which some are more suitable in economic assessment of multi-morbidity interventions in
28 LMICs than others. Interpretation of the ratio may differ in different settings.
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32 In healthcare, interventions can impact different types of direct and indirect costs within and
33 outside healthcare systems. The different costs to be included in cost-effectiveness analysis
34 depends on the perspective that is taken (e.g. the healthcare payer, the society, the patient, or
35 the family). Costs that directly result from the intervention and that which occur within
36 healthcare systems should be included when a healthcare payer perspective is taken.
37 However, in LMICs that lack universal health coverage, the perspective of the patient and family
38 may be more relevant and a key focus could be on out-of-pocket costs. Examples of indirect
39 costs are work productivity losses and these costs are especially relevant when a patient or
40 societal perspective is taken.
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44 In health economic studies, the effect of intervention uses a measure that is independent of a
45 specific disease: the quality-adjusted life year (QALY). The QALY is a combination of utility
46 (preferably measured using the EQ-5D) and survival. With the EQ-5D, certain health states are
47 defined, to which a specific utility is assigned. Utility is the value a society gives to a specified
48 health state and for each country a specific algorithm should be estimated from large general
49 population samples. In many LMIC settings these still need to be further developed to allow for
50 generalizable models of effectiveness.
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54 While most HICs have defined guidelines and make use of fixed thresholds or ranges to assess
55 whether a certain ICER is considered cost-effective, such guidelines and thresholds are
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3 generally lacking in LMICs. This complicates the interpretation of cost-effectiveness analyses in
4 LMICs. As a general rule, the World Health Organization (WHO) defines an intervention that
5 costs less than three times the gross domestic product per capita as cost-effective [21]. It is
6 important to note that the economic analyses discussed here are not specific to multi-morbidity,
7 but are nonetheless suitable for the study of multi-morbidity.
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10 11 12 **5. Health Care Access and Utilization**

13 Multi-morbidity is associated with repeated care seeking, often at different providers. This not
14 only results in multiple interactions with health care settings through outpatient and inpatient
15 admissions but also involves para-medical services and practitioners of traditional medicine.
16

17
18 Although we identified no study that has specifically looked at generating or testing multi-
19 morbidity related healthcare access indices in LMICs, the WHO Study on Global Ageing and
20 Adult Health (SAGE) which focused on LMICs tracked indicators specific to multi-morbidity in
21 ageing populations [22, 34]. These included the number of outpatient visits in the last 12
22 months, overnight hospital stays in the past three years, and the number of overnight stays in
23 hospital in the past 12 months. A UK National Health Service document [24] outlines equity
24 indicators that may also map multi-morbidity relevant in LMIC settings, and some of these have
25 direct healthcare access relevance such as emergency hospitalizations for chronic conditions
26 and repeat emergency hospitalizations in the same year. Access to medicines listed on the
27 WHO Essential Medications list would provide another metric, as would recommendations on
28 attention to comorbidity and pharmacological interactions in treatment guidelines.
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32 This lack of LMIC specific multi-morbidity indices to plot healthcare access leads to a critically
33 important avenue of research that could draw on that conducted in HICs [25]. The latter work
34 lists a range of objectives that need to be addressed in healthcare practices catering to clients
35 with multi-morbidity and lists a set of preventive services for such cases which health facilities
36 should provide. Health-seeking behaviour is a further dimension related to healthcare access
37 that is shaped by unique socioeconomic and cultural contexts faced by patients in LMICs. We
38 suggest it would be useful to develop health-seeking behaviour indices relevant across LMICs.
39 This needs a contextual framework to best understand what is feasible and what can be tracked
40 within specific LMIC settings, acknowledging the challenges introduced by the fragmentation of
41 care and the multiplicity of levels of provision of care in the public and private sectors. Such
42 indices could be linked with existing monitoring frameworks used to assess Universal Health
43 Coverage [26].
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48 The Global Burden of Disease initiative has recently incorporated a new metric at national level
49 termed the Healthcare Access and Quality (HAQ) Index [27]. The HAQ index is a scale from 0
50 to 100, calculated by measuring mortality rates from causes that should not be fatal (amenable
51 mortality) in the presence of effective medical care. This correlates with the Socio-demographic
52 Index, a measure of overall development consisting of income *per capita*, average years of
53 education, and total fertility rates.
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6. Treatment burden

The burden of treatment, a relatively new concept, emerged from disease-centered healthcare systems in response to the growing needs of coping with chronic conditions. In the context of multi-morbidity, this may be considered as the workload and impact on a patient as a result of receiving medical care [28]. High treatment burden may lead to overwhelmed patients who struggle to access healthcare and adhere to suggested treatment whilst coordinating their own care and other aspects of life, a particular issue among patients with multi-morbidity. As a consequence, polypharmacy and non-adherence to treatment and poor clinical outcomes may follow, resulting in an even higher burden of treatment, a deterioration cycle depicted in the Cumulative Complexity Model [29]. Therefore, assessing treatment burden is a priority in order to achieve better quality healthcare, and treatment burden is a potential outcome measure in interventions directed against multi-morbidity. There is also the challenge, more pronounced in LMICs, that in areas of no care there can be no 'burden' from treatment which it is impossible to access.

Assessing the burden of treatment is not an easy task. It generally requires multi-dimensional measures that are tailored to the medical condition(s), health system(s) and cultural background. Tailoring to specific conditions may diminish value in multi-morbidity. Eton proposed a conceptual framework of treatment burden based on qualitative inquiries to patients with chronic conditions, consisting of three themes and 15 subthemes [30]. A number of tools for evaluating treatment burden for patients with multi-morbidity have been developed in the past few years. Eton designed and validated the Patient Experience with Treatment and Self-management (PETS) [31]. The Treatment Burden Questionnaire (TBQ) is another instrument, consisting of 15 items [32] and later further adapted [33, 34]. In 2018, Duncan published the Multimorbidity Treatment Burden Questionnaire (MTBQ), a ten-item measure initially validated in primary care in the United Kingdom [35]. The Healthcare Task Difficulty (HCTD) questionnaire is an 11-question tool designed to measure only one aspect – perceived difficulty in performing healthcare management tasks [36]. Finally, the Multi-morbidity Illness Perceptions Scale (MULTIPLes), unlike other instruments, was designed to measure the perceived impact of multi-morbidity [37]. The scale includes treatment burden (six questions) as one of the subscales.

As these questionnaires are relatively new, validation and translation for different populations and geographic areas remain limited, especially in LMICs. Exploring the notion and measurement of treatment burden in LMIC remains relatively unexplored [34, 38].

There are a number of remaining issues to be considered before applying these tools in LMICs. Firstly, the strengths and limitations of each tool should be examined as careful validation has often not been conducted in such settings. Secondly, using mixed methods may help identify relevant issues relating to differences in contexts, cultures and health system structures. Thirdly, as all of these instruments have been available for less than a decade, longitudinal evidence of change over time is absent.

7. Measures of 'Healthy Living'

Multi-morbidity is complex to operationalize, which makes common denominators very relevant. Measures of 'Healthy Living' are direct common denominators for being at risk of developing individual components of multi-morbidity, and thus measuring change in these measures provides potential generic outcomes of interventions to mitigate future multi-morbidity. Most current behavioral interventions have targeted only one behaviour at a time.

Healthy living encompasses many different aspects of health and wellbeing, including diet, physical activity including sedentary behaviour, tobacco and alcohol consumption, developing health literacy, maintaining good hygiene, and sanitation. Most current behavioral interventions have targeted only one behaviour at a time.

Diet: Dietary assessments are complex. Self-reported dietary intake measurements are the most common form of dietary assessments, which include prospective recording of actual food consumed or retrospective recall [39, 40]. With respect to multi-morbidity, the focus must be on long-term usual intake. Dietary diversity scores are one such measure that can be estimated for the individual, or the household using counts of food items (food variety score) or food groups (dietary diversity score) consumed over a pre-specified period [41, 42]. Dietary diversity can be estimated at the Household level using the Household Dietary Diversity Score (HDDS), which assesses household access to a variety of foods, or at individual level for women and children respectively using the Minimum Dietary Diversity for Women of Reproductive Age tool (MDD-W) and WHO Infant and Young Child Minimum Dietary Diversity Tool (IYCF-MDD) [43].

Physical activity (PA) including sedentary behaviour: Convincing interventional evidence showing a clear dose-response relationship between PA and improved health outcomes comes mainly from HICs, although associations of PA with reduced cardiovascular mortality and morbidity are available globally [44]. Sedentary behaviour, defined as those that involve sitting or reclining and low levels of energy expenditure during waking hours [45], has also been associated with having at least two morbidities, independent of light, moderate or vigorous PA [45, 46] in HICs and LMICs. The global physical activity questionnaire (GPAQ) that is part of the WHO STEPwise Approach to Chronic Disease Risk Factor Surveillance data collection tool [47] is a commonly used tool to collect self-reported data on PA. The GPAQ which is a shorter (16-item) version of the longer International Physical Activity questionnaire (IPAQ) also assesses sitting time in addition to PA in three domains (work, travel and leisure-time). This is used to estimate the duration of moderate to vigorous physical activity (MVPA) or intensity in terms of MET (metabolic equivalent)-minutes per week of total and domain-specific activities. However, agreement between PA estimated by GPAQ and more objective measures has been moderate at best. Objective measures of PA allow real-time monitoring and can be easily completed using an application on a mobile device or a wearable pedometer or accelerometer, although this has mostly been tested in HIC settings. Considering the rapid acceleration of smart phone ownership in LMIC, and the availability of cheaper but robust wearable devices, these are now viable options and an optional tool to capture objective PA has since been incorporated into the GPAQ.

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3 *Tobacco and alcohol use:* Tobacco use has been consistently linked as a causative factor for
4 chronic respiratory disorders such as chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, cardiovascular
5 disease and many cancers including lung cancer. Similarly, alcohol use has strong associations
6 with NCDs. Ever and current use of tobacco or current use of alcohol are commonly used
7 assessments in addition to questions focusing on frequency and amount of consumption, and
8 these are part of the WHO STEPS instrument [47]. Where available, verification of smoking
9 status can be achieved through measurement of carbon monoxide or urinary cotinine.
10 Assessment of household, environmental and occupational airborne exposures are more
11 complex.
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15 *Healthy living index:* In addition to individual risks and behaviors, composite indicators that
16 assess healthy living may be more relevant in the context of multi-morbidity. Tools to assess
17 the environment in terms of its potential to offer opportunities for healthy living have been
18 limited, especially in LMICs. Environmental Profile of a Community's Health (EPOCH) is a
19 quantitative tool designed to capture community perceptions of tobacco, nutrition, and social
20 environments, validated in five countries (China, India, Brazil, Colombia, and Canada) [48, 49].
21 EPOCH comprises an objective assessment of the physical environment, and an interviewer-
22 administered questionnaire on residents' perceptions of their community to capture both
23 objective and subjective measures of the environment [48]. The Community Healthy Living
24 Index (CHLI), developed in the US assessed the environmental support potential of a
25 community across five domains assessing a specific venue: schools, afterschool child care
26 sites, work sites, neighborhoods, and communities-at-large [50]. Such tools could be adapted
27 for use in LMICs.
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34 **8. Self-efficacy and social functioning**

35 Self-efficacy and social functioning relate to social determinants of health such as age, gender,
36 marital status, family background, employment, education level and socioeconomic status [51-
37 57], affecting in turn how an individual is able to look after their health conditions (self-efficacy)
38 and interact in society with other individuals leading a fulfilling life (social functioning). This
39 raises the important question of whether indices of self-efficacy and social functioning may be
40 suitable as outcomes measures in studies to mitigate multi-morbidity in LMIC settings.
41
42

43 There are limited studies that explore which social determinants are more influential than others
44 in determining self-efficacy and social functioning. Positive personality traits and higher self-
45 esteem demonstrated in adolescence positively affect self-efficacy [58]. Competent behaviour,
46 such as skills of focusing on others' well-being, affiliative behaviours/interpersonal cooperation
47 and participation, which are culturally valued and socially competent are associated with higher
48 self-efficacy [59-60]. Liebke and colleagues [61] reported that loneliness and social functioning
49 are associated. Loneliness may be caused by impaired social skills, such as maintaining
50 conversations or expressing feelings, which are essential to adequate social functioning [61].
51 Values placed on social determinants of health may vary across different cultures. Differences
52 in cultural traditions may affect the sources of self-efficacy belief systems [51, 54, 55].
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3 Given the multitude of cultural factors affecting the precursors of self-efficacy and social
4 functioning, populations in LMICs may have fewer opportunities to develop such skills.
5 Therefore, whilst measures of self-efficacy and social functioning could be used as multi-
6 morbidity outcome measure in LMIC, a single index is unlikely to be useful across all settings.
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10 **Conclusions**

11 The case has been made for the growing global importance of multi-morbidity, the need for
12 pragmatic intervention studies to reduce the risk of developing multi-morbidity in LMIC settings,
13 and of mitigating the complications and progression of multi-morbidity. One of many challenges
14 in such research has been the selection of appropriate outcomes measures.
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18 We present the GACD Researchers' perspective on outcome measures suitable for multi-
19 morbidity intervention studies in the context of LMICs. We have considered outcome measures
20 across eight domains (Figure 1). Some represent direct measurements of clinical outcomes,
21 whilst others represent intermediate variables on the pathway to multi-morbidity. Some
22 measures are single, others are composite. They vary in their ease of collection. It is critical to
23 choose appropriate outcomes for the study design selected in order to demonstrate and
24 understand the effect of an intervention. Studies in multi-morbidity are necessarily diverse and
25 thus different outcome measures will be appropriate for different study designs. As with the
26 COSmm consensus [3], we recognize the importance of mortality and health-related quality of
27 life as multi-morbidity outcomes, and these are suitable for use in LMIC settings. Many other
28 outcomes from the COSmm work, including patient-reported impacts and behaviors (such as
29 treatment burden and self-efficacy); physical activity and function, and health systems indicators
30 (notably health economic indices) are also suitable for LMIC settings, though in the context and
31 with the caveats that we have described above.
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36 The diversity of outcome measures across domains demonstrated here should provide a useful
37 summary for researchers, and encourage the use of multiple domains in multi-morbidity
38 research, rather than just a single outcome measure. Ultimately, the proof of utility for these
39 outcome measures will be the demonstration that an effective multi-morbidity intervention can
40 improve the health of the community in which it is tested. Meanwhile, there remains the urgent
41 need for further study and development of outcome measures suitable for multi-morbidity
42 intervention studies in the context of LMIC.
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46 This work is not intended to be a core outcome set, nor a systematic review. Instead, we
47 present a critical, narrative synthesis describing the range of outcome measures that might be
48 selected for use in such settings, and their challenges. We anticipate this will be useful to other
49 researchers designing and conducting such studies, and to provoke debate and progress in the
50 field.
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Figure Legend

FIGURE 1: *Eight domains of outcome measures for multi-morbidity interventions in LMIC.*

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Contributorship

The concept of the paper arose from discussion at the GACD Multi-Morbidity Working Group. Individual sections of the manuscript were drafted by the named authors, coordinated by JRH, with all contributors providing important intellectual content and approving this final version for submission.

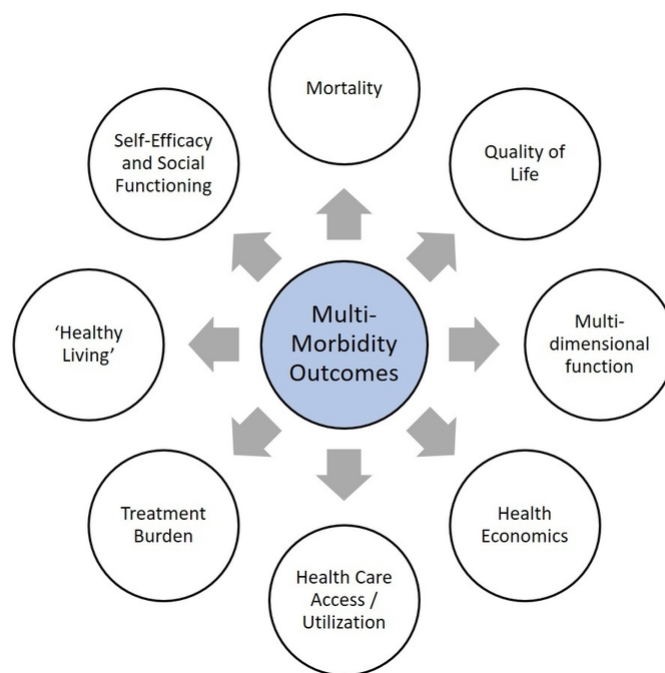


FIGURE 1: Eight domains of outcome measures for multi-morbidity interventions in LMIC.

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A Critical Review of Multi-Morbidity Outcome Measures suitable for Low- and Middle Income Country Settings: perspectives from the Global Alliance for Chronic Diseases (GACD) Researchers

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A Critical Review of Multi-Morbidity Outcome Measures suitable for Low- and Middle Income Country Settings: perspectives from the Global Alliance for Chronic Diseases (GACD) Researchers

John R Hurst, Gina Agarwal, Job F M van Boven, Meena Daivadanam, Gillian S Gould, Erick Wan-Chun Huang, Pallab K Maulik, J Jaime Miranda, Mayowa O Owolabi, Shahirose Sadrudin Premji, Joan B Soriano, Rajesh Vedanthan, Lijing L Yan, Naomi S Levitt*

***: on behalf of the GACD Multi-Morbidity Working Group contributors:**

Ricardo Araya, Kirsten Bobrow, Niels H Chavannes, F Xavier Gómez-Olivé, Shabbar Jaffar, Bruce J Kirenga, Rianne M J J van der Kleij, Muralidhar M Kulkarni, Laura Loli-Dano, Patricio Lopez-Jaramillo, Shane Norris, Josefien van Olmen, Gary Parker, Trishul Siddharthan, Kamran Siddiqi, Najma Siddiqi, Antigona C Trofor

Corresponding Author:

John R Hurst
Professor of Respiratory Medicine
UCL Respiratory
University College London
London
UK

j.hurst@ucl.ac.uk

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Conflict of Interest

The Authors have no conflicts of interest to declare in relation to this work.

KEYWORDS: Multimorbidity; Outcome Assessment, Health Care;

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Abstract

OBJECTIVES: There is growing recognition around the importance of multi-morbidity in low- and middle-income country (LMIC) settings, and specifically the need for pragmatic intervention studies to reduce the risk of developing multi-morbidity, and of mitigating the complications and progression of multi-morbidity in LMICs. One of many challenges in completing such research has been the selection of appropriate outcomes measures. A 2018 Delphi exercise to develop a core-outcome set for multi-morbidity research (COSmm) did not specifically address the challenges of multi-morbidity in LMICs where the global burden is greatest, patterns of disease often differ and health systems are frequently fragmented. We therefore aimed to summarise and critically review outcome measures suitable for studies investigating mitigation of multi-morbidity in low- and middle-income country (LMIC) settings.

SETTING: LMIC.

PARTICIPANTS: people with multi-morbidity.

OUTCOME MEASURES: identification of all outcome measures.

RESULTS: We present a critical review of outcome measures across eight domains: mortality, quality of life, function, health economics, health-care access and utilization, treatment burden, measures of 'healthy living', and self-efficacy and social functioning.

CONCLUSIONS: Studies in multi-morbidity are necessarily diverse and thus different outcome measures will be appropriate for different study designs. Presenting the diversity of outcome measures across domains should provide a useful summary for researchers, encourage the use of multiple domains in multi-morbidity research, and provoke debate and progress in the field.

TRIAL REGISTRATION: Not applicable.

Strengths and Limitations

- There is no existing review of outcome measures suitable for use in studies to mitigate multi-morbidity in LMIC settings.
- The article is the written by the Global Alliance for Chronic Diseases researchers.
- It is not a systematic review.
- Further work is required to develop a core-outcome set for use in LMIC.

Introduction

There is growing recognition around the importance of multi-morbidity in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) [1]. Multi-morbidity, as defined by the United Kingdom Academy of Medical Sciences (AMS) refers to “*the co-existence of two or more chronic conditions, each of which is either a physical non-communicable disease of long duration, a mental health condition of long duration, or an infectious disease of long duration*” [1]. The AMS report highlights challenges in delivering multi-morbidity research [2], including the selection of appropriate outcome measures. In 2018, Smith completed a Delphi exercise to develop a core-outcomes set for multi-morbidity research (COSmm) [3]. The highest scoring outcomes were health-related quality of life, mental health outcomes and mortality. Whilst ground-breaking, this process did not specifically target the challenges of multi-morbidity in LMICs where the global burden is greatest, patterns of disease often differ and health systems are frequently fragmented.

The Global Alliance for Chronic Diseases (GACD) is an alliance of health-research funders, whose research teams form a network of multidisciplinary researchers from both LMICs and high-income countries (HICs). We aim to reduce the impact of non-communicable diseases (NCDs) through a focus on implementation science research in LMICs, and high-priority populations in HICs. Recognizing synergies across our disease-specific programmes, in 2017 we formed a Multi-Morbidity Working Group and published a GACD Researchers’ Statement concluding that “*a greater focus on multi-morbidity is overdue and necessary to successfully improve global health outcomes*”, thus acknowledging the specific challenge of multi-morbidity in the LMIC context [4]. The statement went on to propose three strategic objectives, one of which was to change the way research is commissioned, funded and delivered when considering NCDs in LMICs.

Discussion with research funders subsequently highlighted that one barrier to funding research addressing multi-morbidity in LMICs was a perceived lack of robust outcome measures. We have therefore developed this GACD Researchers’ perspective on outcome measures suitable for studies of multi-morbidity in LMICs, taking into account the challenges of (routine) data collection, and patient-provider factors such as differences in interpreting social constructs and health literacy. The intent is to build on the COSmm work [3]. Derived from a common base of expertise in NCD implementation research in LMICs, we present a diversity of potential measures that can accommodate different aspects of impact in LMICs, ranging from individual level outcomes to health service and health system effects. This is not an attempt to provide a core outcome measures set. Rather, together, the potential outcome measures inform different evaluations of effectiveness and/or process for multi-morbidity. We present these as a useful resource for those designing and reviewing intervention studies for multi-morbidity in LMIC settings, and hope this initiative may promote harmonization across studies that will be essential to better map the impact of multi-morbidity in LMIC settings.

Method

Potential outcome measures suitable for studies of multi-morbidity in LMICs were collected through a survey among the GACD multi-morbidity working group, and distilled by the writing committee (the Authors) into categories through consensus discussion. All GACD researchers were invited to take part in the multi-morbidity working group and those expressing interest were then invited to provide suggestions for suitable outcome measures via free-text e-mail to the group leads. In total, 31 group members participated (listed as the Authors and Contributors), with representation from all WHO Regions except the Eastern Mediterranean. GACD researchers have considerable collective experience conducting implementation science trials in LMIC settings. All measures had to be suitable for use in multi-morbidity intervention studies in LMIC, either at the individual or the population level, and from an implementation science perspective. Criteria for suitability included ease of measurement (such as availability of data, ease of data collection, availability of local translations and cost), generalizability (applicability of the proposed outcome across diverse populations within and between LMIC settings) and statistical considerations (the feasibility of demonstrating a clinically significant change with conventional statistical significance). Each outcome approach is fully described below. The initial synthesis was reviewed by members of the GACD Multi-Morbidity Working Group for additional comments and suggestions (the Contributors). The resulting narrative review summarizes the group's collective thoughts within each domain of outcome measures studied.

Patient and Public Involvement

Patients or the public were not involved in the design, conduct, reporting, or dissemination plans of our research.

Outcome Measures for Multi-Morbidity Interventions in LMIC

1. Mortality

Death is the final common outcome for all individuals. Thus (premature) mortality is the most broadly applicable, generalizable, and comparable outcome for multi-morbidity research. Indeed, mortality was considered as an "essential" core outcome measure for multi-morbidity research according to the COSmm consensus [3].

However, precisely because mortality is so broadly applicable, it suffers from a lack of specificity. While cause-specific mortality is a potential solution to the issue of specificity, this approach moves away from the goal of multi-morbidity-based outcome consideration. In addition, mortality does not reflect the quality of life that an individual experiences during the time of survival; particularly in the context of multi-morbidity, both disability and quality-of-life considerations are important in terms of an individual's experience of illness, wellness and life. Indeed, death is not always the most important outcome from a patient-centered perspective, as has been demonstrated in studies assessing patient preferences of different potential health outcomes [5-7] and conceptualized as Disability-Adjusted Life Years.

Practical challenges with mortality as an outcome measure include statistical power and sample size for an outcome that is relatively rare compared to other outcomes and proxies, potentially

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3 requiring much longer follow-up periods, except for older and/or more severely affected
4 populations. It is, however, generally easy to measure and while the primary cause may be
5 ascertained through techniques such as verbal autopsy (2016 WHO VA standard) [8], assessing
6 the contribution of multi-morbidity at verbal autopsy is more challenging. Whilst misclassifying
7 the cause of death can impact the effect size for cause-specific mortality, power will be
8 preserved for all-cause mortality. In some LMICs, ascertainment of deaths remains difficult due
9 to the lack of mature vital registry systems and cultural traditions promoting deaths at home with
10 delay in reporting.
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14 Thus, mortality as an outcome for multi-morbidity research has been infrequently utilized,
15 particularly in the context of LMIC settings [9-11]. Demographic surveillance sites that have a
16 long record of verbal autopsy could, however, provide a useful data reservoir to examine
17 associations between multi-morbidity and mortality.
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21 **2. Generic Quality of Life scales**

22 Health-related quality of life (HRQoL) instruments measure multidimensional wellbeing and
23 functioning. Such scales may be generic such as EQ-5D and SF-36, or disease (/area) specific.
24 While disease-specific measures may have better content and face validity as well as better
25 responsiveness and sensitivity to change compared to generic measures, generic measures are
26 (by definition) not disease specific and likely better for comparison of HRQoL among different
27 diseases and for diseases in combination, an important consideration for multi-morbidity
28 research. Tools to assess the related construct of self-reported well-being have been reviewed
29 and summarized elsewhere [12].
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33 Among generic tools, the COSmm consensus [3] ranked the EQ-5D, SF36 and '12, and Global
34 quality of life (WHOQOL-BREF) most highly.
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37 The EQ-5D [13] has been widely used since introduction in the 1990s, facilitating health-
38 economic analysis (see below). It is designed to be completed by the participant and is
39 available in multiple languages and thus widely applicable. The EQ-5D questionnaire has two
40 components (health-state description and evaluation). In the health state description, health
41 status is measured across five dimensions: mobility, self-care, usual activities, pain/discomfort,
42 and anxiety/depression. In the evaluation section, the respondents evaluate their overall health
43 status using a visual analogue scale.
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47 The SF-36 [14] has 36 questions across eight domains: vitality, physical functioning, bodily pain,
48 general health perceptions, physical role functioning, emotional role functioning, social role
49 functioning and mental health.
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51 The WHOQOL-BREF [15] is an abbreviated version of the WHOQOL-100 quality of life
52 assessment, originally developed by the WHOQOL Group working across fifteen international
53 field centers to develop a quality of life assessment applicable across multiple settings.
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3 HRQoL tools have a number of advantages over mortality as an outcome, being amenable to
4 changes in the short term. HRQoL outcomes are particularly meaningful as the aim of clinical
5 treatment and management is generally optimizing quality of life. Consequently, managing
6 multi-morbidity needs to take quality of life into account both as an outcome marker, but also an
7 input factor into formulating clinical management. Practical considerations in LMIC include the
8 availability of valid translations in local languages (these are more often available for the more
9 commonly used tools, in the more commonly used languages, but coverage remains
10 incomplete), and the challenges of use in populations with low literacy or understanding of
11 visual-analogue scales. Other unanswered questions include whether thresholds for minimum
12 clinically important differences on these scales should be altered in the context of multi-
13 morbidity. Notably, some common NCDs such as hypertension are not generally associated
14 with significant symptom burden.
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20 **3. Multi-dimensional indices of function**

21 The AMS [1] recommended that reports of multi-morbidity should provide details of functional
22 deficits, or disabilities and frailty. In both instances the recommendation was made that this
23 should be coded using a standardized classification scheme. For the former, the WHO
24 Disability Assessment Schedule 2.0 (WHODAS 2.0) or the International Classification of
25 Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF) were suggested. For the latter, the cumulative deficit
26 model of frailty or Fried's phenotype model was recommended (see below).
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30 **WHO Disability Assessment Schedule**

31 The WHODAS 2.0 has been widely used in epidemiological and observational studies in LMICs.
32 It is a self-administered 12 item questionnaire that assesses six different adult life tasks over the
33 preceding month. The specific areas covered are 1) understanding and communication; 2) self-
34 care; 3) mobility; 4) interpersonal relationships; 5) work and household roles and 6) community
35 and civic roles. WHODAS has been included as a secondary outcome measure in three multi-
36 morbidity trials in LMIC (currently unreported [16, 17]).
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40 **Frailty assessment instruments:**

41 There are many methods to assess frailty including the Fried Index, the Frailty Index and the
42 British Frailty Index. While these have been used to examine the prevalence, correlates or
43 outcomes of frailty in LMIC, further validation is still required in these settings [18]. Of the
44 various metrics, the Fried Index [19] has been the most commonly used in LMIC. This index
45 measures frailty by the presence of three or more of five physical deficits - exhaustion,
46 weakness, slowness, low levels of activity and weight loss. Three of the items are collected
47 using questionnaires, but slowness is assessed using a walking test and weakness by
48 assessing grip strength. The Frailty Index has also been commonly used in LMICs and uses
49 the presence or absence of medical conditions or poor performance on functional tasks to
50 assess the number of deficits present and thus frailty [18]. Using frailty as an outcome measure
51 for intervention studies in patients with multi-morbidity in LMIC may be limited by factors such as
52 a lack of equipment (for example, to measure grip strength), and the question remains as to
53 how susceptible to change such measurements are, and what a minimum clinically important
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3 difference (MCID) might be. Despite this, frailty instruments remain an important outcome in
4 LMIC settings given that frailty may be a confounding factor in self-care, treatment adherence
5 and family burden.
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8 **Assessment of physical functioning:**

9 Physical functioning measures are commonly studied outcomes. The most frequently used
10 indices include activities of daily living (such as eating, dressing and toileting), instrumental
11 activities of daily living (such as shopping and answering phone calls), and the Barthel Index
12 (self-reported outcomes on degree of assistance needed for mobility, self-care and continence).
13 Smith [3] described activities of daily living, physical function and physical activity as core
14 outcomes in multi-morbidity interventions. For ADL the following measures received greatest
15 support: Frenchay Activities Index (FAI), Nottingham Extended Activities of Daily Living
16 (NEADL) and the Instructions for Activities of Daily Living questionnaire (ADL/ IADL), but these
17 have not been evaluated in the context of LMICs.
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21 The modified Rankin Scale is an example of a disease-specific (in this case, stroke) composite
22 outcome measure including rating of functioning from no interference with daily life, through
23 various degrees of disability to death. These outcomes are relatively easy to assess and have
24 particular relevance in LMICs as people generally express strong desires in maintaining
25 physical functioning including their ability to work, avoiding financial consequences and burden
26 on family caregiving.
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31 **4. Health Economic implications**

32 The AMS report [1] highlighted the economic burden of multi-morbidity in LMICs and thus health
33 economic implications are relevant in any consideration of multi-morbidity outcome measures.
34 However, most economic data on multi-morbidity were gathered in HICs and the question arises
35 as to whether measurement instruments, data and outcomes commonly used to assess cost
36 implications of multi-morbidity in HICs are applicable to LMIC settings.
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39 One of the most common economic evaluations of healthcare interventions makes use of a
40 technique called cost-effectiveness analysis and specifically the *incremental cost-effectiveness*
41 *ratio* (ICER) [20]. The method to calculate the ICER is not disease specific, making it just as
42 suitable to assess multi-morbidity interventions as single disease interventions. However, it
43 requires specific attention to the definitions and collection of costs and effect data in LMICs.
44 Within this ratio, costs and effects can be defined, measured, and calculated in different ways,
45 of which some are more suitable in economic assessment of multi-morbidity interventions in
46 LMICs than others. Interpretation of the ratio may differ in different settings.
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50 In healthcare, interventions can impact different types of direct and indirect costs within and
51 outside healthcare systems. The different costs to be included in cost-effectiveness analysis
52 depends on the perspective that is taken (e.g. the healthcare payer, the society, the patient, or
53 the family). Costs that directly result from the intervention and which occur within healthcare
54 systems should be included when a healthcare payer perspective is taken. However, in LMICs
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3 that lack universal health coverage, the perspective of the patient and family may be more
4 relevant and a key focus could be on out-of-pocket costs. Examples of indirect costs are work
5 productivity losses and these costs are especially relevant when a patient or societal
6 perspective is taken.
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9 In health economic studies, the effect of intervention uses a measure that is independent of a
10 specific disease: the quality-adjusted life year (QALY). The QALY is a combination of utility
11 (preferably measured using the EQ-5D) and survival. With the EQ-5D, certain health states are
12 defined, to which a specific utility is assigned. Utility is the value a society gives to a specified
13 health state and for each country a specific algorithm should be estimated from large general
14 population samples. In many LMIC settings these still need to be further developed to allow for
15 generalizable models of effectiveness.
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19 While most HICs have defined guidelines and make use of fixed thresholds or ranges to assess
20 whether a certain ICER is considered cost-effective, such guidelines and thresholds are
21 generally lacking in LMICs. This complicates the interpretation of cost-effectiveness analyses in
22 LMICs. As a general rule, the World Health Organization (WHO) defines an intervention that
23 costs less than three times the gross domestic product per capita as cost-effective [21]. It is
24 important to note that the implications of economic analyses discussed here are not challenges
25 specific to multi-morbidity, but are nonetheless suitable for the study of multi-morbidity.
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30 **5. Health Care Access and Utilization**

31 Multi-morbidity is associated with repeated care seeking, often at different providers. This not
32 only results in multiple interactions with health care settings through outpatient and inpatient
33 admissions but also involves para-medical services and practitioners of traditional medicine.
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36 Although we identified no study that has specifically looked at generating or testing multi-
37 morbidity related healthcare access indices in LMICs, the WHO Study on Global Ageing and
38 Adult Health (SAGE) which focused on LMICs tracked indicators specific to multi-morbidity in
39 ageing populations [22, 23]. These included the number of outpatient visits in the last 12
40 months, overnight hospital stays in the past three years, and the number of overnight stays in
41 hospital in the past 12 months. A UK National Health Service document [24] outlines equity
42 indicators that may also map multi-morbidity relevant in LMIC settings, and some of these have
43 direct healthcare access relevance such as emergency hospitalizations for chronic conditions
44 and repeat emergency hospitalizations in the same year. Access to medicines listed on the
45 WHO Essential Medications list would provide another metric, as would recommendations on
46 attention to comorbidity and pharmacological interactions in treatment guidelines.
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50 This lack of LMIC specific multi-morbidity indices to plot healthcare access leads to a critically
51 important avenue of research that could draw on that conducted in HICs [25]. The latter work
52 lists a range of objectives that need to be addressed in healthcare practices catering to clients
53 with multi-morbidity and lists a set of preventive services for such cases which health facilities
54 should provide. Health-seeking behaviour is a further dimension related to healthcare access
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3 that is shaped by unique socioeconomic and cultural contexts faced by patients in LMICs. We
4 suggest it would be useful to develop health-seeking behaviour indices relevant across LMICs.
5 This needs a contextual framework to best understand what is feasible and what can be tracked
6 within specific LMIC settings, acknowledging the challenges introduced by the fragmentation of
7 care and the multiplicity of levels of provision of care in the public and private sectors. Such
8 indices could be linked with existing monitoring frameworks used to assess Universal Health
9 Coverage [26].
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13 The Global Burden of Disease initiative has recently incorporated a new metric at national level
14 termed the Healthcare Access and Quality (HAQ) Index [27]. The HAQ index is a scale from 0
15 to 100, calculated by measuring mortality rates from causes that should not be fatal (amenable
16 mortality) in the presence of effective medical care. This correlates with the Socio-demographic
17 Index, a measure of overall development consisting of income *per capita*, average years of
18 education, and total fertility rates.
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23 **6. Treatment burden**

24 The burden of treatment, a relatively new concept, emerged from disease-centered healthcare
25 systems in response to the growing needs of coping with chronic conditions. In the context of
26 multi-morbidity, this may be considered as the workload and impact on a patient as a result of
27 receiving medical care [28]. High treatment burden may lead to overwhelmed patients who
28 struggle to access healthcare and adhere to suggested treatment whilst coordinating their own
29 care and other aspects of life, a particular issue among patients with multi-morbidity. As a
30 consequence, polypharmacy and non-adherence to treatment and poor clinical outcomes may
31 follow, resulting in an even higher burden of treatment, a deterioration cycle depicted in the
32 Cumulative Complexity Model [29]. Therefore, assessing treatment burden is a priority in order
33 to achieve better quality healthcare, and treatment burden is a potential outcome measure in
34 interventions directed against multi-morbidity. There is also the challenge, more pronounced in
35 LMICs, that in areas of no care there can be no 'burden' from treatment which it is impossible to
36 access.
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41 Assessing the burden of treatment is not an easy task. It generally requires multi-dimensional
42 measures that are tailored to the medical condition(s), health system(s) and cultural
43 background. Tailoring to specific conditions may diminish value in multi-morbidity. Eton
44 proposed a conceptual framework of treatment burden based on qualitative inquiries to patients
45 with chronic conditions, consisting of three themes and 15 subthemes [30]. A number of tools
46 for evaluating treatment burden for patients with multi-morbidity have been developed in the
47 past few years. Eton designed and validated the Patient Experience with Treatment and Self-
48 management (PETS) [31]. The Treatment Burden Questionnaire (TBQ) is another instrument,
49 consisting of 15 items [32] and later further adapted [33, 34]. In 2018, Duncan published the
50 Multimorbidity Treatment Burden Questionnaire (MTBQ), a ten-item measure initially validated
51 in primary care in the United Kingdom [35]. The Healthcare Task Difficulty (HCTD)
52 questionnaire is an 11-question tool designed to measure only one aspect – perceived difficulty
53 in performing healthcare management tasks [36]. Finally, the Multi-morbidity Illness
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3 Perceptions Scale (MULTIPLES), unlike other instruments, was designed to measure the
4 perceived impact of multi-morbidity [37]. The scale includes treatment burden (six questions) as
5 one of the subscales.
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8 As these questionnaires are relatively new, validation and translation for different populations
9 and geographic areas remain limited, especially in LMICs. Exploring the notion and
10 measurement of treatment burden in LMIC remains relatively unexplored [34, 38], as does the
11 important concept of patient-reported experience measures in LMIC settings which may
12 themselves affect health outcomes [39].
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15 There are a number of remaining issues to be considered before applying these tools in LMICs.
16 Firstly, the strengths and limitations of each tool should be examined as careful validation has
17 often not been conducted in such settings. Secondly, using mixed methods incorporating
18 experiences and opinions from patients and healthcare providers may help identify relevant
19 issues relating to differences in contexts, cultures and health system structures. Thirdly, as all of
20 these instruments have been available for less than a decade, longitudinal evidence of change
21 over time is absent.
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26 **7. Measures of 'Healthy Living'**

27 Multi-morbidity is complex to operationalize, which makes common denominators very relevant.
28 Measures of 'Healthy Living' are direct common denominators for being at risk of developing
29 individual components of multi-morbidity, and thus measuring change in these measures
30 provides potential generic outcomes of interventions to mitigate future multi-morbidity. Most
31 current behavioral interventions have targeted only one behaviour at a time.
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34 Healthy living encompasses many different aspects of health and wellbeing, including diet,
35 physical activity including sedentary behaviour, tobacco and alcohol consumption, developing
36 health literacy, maintaining good hygiene, and sanitation. Most current behavioral interventions
37 have targeted only one behaviour at a time.
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41 *Diet:* Dietary assessments are complex. Self-reported dietary intake measurements are the
42 most common form of dietary assessments, which include prospective recording of actual food
43 consumed or retrospective recall [40, 41]. With respect to multi-morbidity, the focus must be on
44 long-term usual intake. Dietary diversity scores are one such measure that can be estimated for
45 the individual, or the household using counts of food items (food variety score) or food groups
46 (dietary diversity score) consumed over a pre-specified period [42, 43]. Dietary diversity can be
47 estimated at the Household level using the Household Dietary Diversity Score (HDDS), which
48 assesses household access to a variety of foods, or at individual level for women and children
49 respectively using the Minimum Dietary Diversity for Women of Reproductive Age tool (MDD-W)
50 and WHO Infant and Young Child Minimum Dietary Diversity Tool (IYCF-MDD) [44].
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54 *Physical activity (PA) including sedentary behaviour:* Convincing interventional evidence
55 showing a clear dose-response relationship between PA and improved health outcomes comes
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3 mainly from HICs, although associations of PA with reduced cardiovascular mortality and
4 morbidity are available globally [45]. Sedentary behaviour, defined as those that involve sitting
5 or reclining and low levels of energy expenditure during waking hours [46], has also been
6 associated with having at least two morbidities, independent of light, moderate or vigorous PA
7 [46, 47] in HICs and LMICs. The Global Physical Activity Questionnaire (GPAQ) that is part of
8 the WHO STEPwise Approach to Chronic Disease Risk Factor Surveillance data collection tool
9 [48] is a commonly used tool to collect self-reported data on PA. The GPAQ which is a shorter
10 (16-item) version of the longer International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ) also
11 assesses sitting time in addition to PA in three domains (work, travel and leisure-time). This is
12 used to estimate the duration of moderate to vigorous physical activity (MVPA) or intensity in
13 terms of MET (metabolic equivalent)-minutes per week of total and domain-specific activities.
14 However, agreement between PA estimated by GPAQ and more objective measures has been
15 moderate at best. Objective measures of PA allow real-time monitoring and can be easily
16 completed using an application on a mobile device or a wearable pedometer or accelerometer,
17 although this has mostly been tested in HIC settings. Considering the rapid acceleration of
18 smart phone ownership in LMIC, and the availability of cheaper but robust wearable devices,
19 these are now viable options and an optional tool to capture objective PA has since been
20 incorporated into the GPAQ.
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26 *Tobacco and alcohol use:* Tobacco use has been consistently linked as a causative factor for
27 chronic respiratory disorders such as chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, cardiovascular
28 disease and many cancers including lung cancer. Similarly, alcohol use has strong associations
29 with NCDs. Ever and current use of tobacco or current use of alcohol are commonly used
30 assessments in addition to questions focusing on frequency and amount of consumption, and
31 these are part of the WHO STEPS instrument [48]. Where available, verification of smoking
32 status can be achieved through measurement of carbon monoxide or urinary cotinine.
33 Assessment of household, environmental and occupational airborne exposures are more
34 complex.
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38 *Healthy living index:* In addition to individual risks and behaviors, composite indicators that
39 assess healthy living may be more relevant in the context of multi-morbidity. Tools to assess
40 the environment in terms of its potential to offer opportunities for healthy living have been
41 limited, especially in LMICs. Environmental Profile of a Community's Health (EPOCH) is a
42 quantitative tool designed to capture community perceptions of tobacco, nutrition, and social
43 environments, validated in five countries (China, India, Brazil, Colombia, and Canada) [49, 50].
44 EPOCH comprises an objective assessment of the physical environment, and an interviewer-
45 administered questionnaire on residents' perceptions of their community to capture both
46 objective and subjective measures of the environment [49]. The Community Healthy Living
47 Index (CHLI), developed in the US assessed the environmental support potential of a
48 community across five domains assessing a specific venue: schools, afterschool child care
49 sites, work sites, neighborhoods, and communities-at-large [51]. Such tools could be adapted
50 for use in LMICs.
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8. Self-efficacy and social functioning

Self-efficacy and social functioning relate to social determinants of health such as age, gender, marital status, family background, employment, education level and socioeconomic status [52-58], affecting in turn how an individual is able to look after their health conditions (self-efficacy) and interact in society with other individuals leading a fulfilling life (social functioning). This raises the important question of whether indices of self-efficacy and social functioning may be suitable as outcomes measures in studies to mitigate multi-morbidity in LMIC settings.

There are limited studies that explore which social determinants are more influential than others in determining self-efficacy and social functioning. Positive personality traits and higher self-esteem demonstrated in adolescence positively affect self-efficacy [59]. Competent behaviour, such as skills of focusing on others' well-being, affiliative behaviours/interpersonal cooperation and participation, which are culturally valued and socially competent are associated with higher self-efficacy [60, 61]. Liebke and colleagues [62] reported that loneliness and social functioning are associated. Loneliness may be caused by impaired social skills, such as maintaining conversations or expressing feelings, which are essential to adequate social functioning [62]. Values placed on social determinants of health may vary across different cultures. Differences in cultural traditions may affect the sources of self-efficacy belief systems [52, 55, 56].

Given the multitude of cultural factors affecting the precursors of self-efficacy and social functioning, populations in LMICs may have fewer opportunities to develop such skills. Therefore, whilst measures of self-efficacy and social functioning could be used as multi-morbidity outcome measure in LMIC, a single index is unlikely to be useful across all settings.

Conclusions

The case has been made for the growing global importance of multi-morbidity, the need for pragmatic intervention studies to reduce the risk of developing multi-morbidity in LMIC settings, and of mitigating the complications and progression of multi-morbidity. One of many challenges in such research has been the selection of appropriate outcomes measures.

We present the GACD Researchers' perspective on outcome measures suitable for multi-morbidity intervention studies in the context of LMICs. We have considered outcome measures across eight domains (Figure 1). Some represent direct measurements of clinical outcomes, whilst others represent intermediate variables on the pathway to multi-morbidity. Some measures are single, others are composite. They vary in their ease of collection and cost. It is critical to choose appropriate outcomes for the study design, cultural context and participant preference in order to demonstrate and understand the effect of an intervention, and our aim is therefore not to suggest a preference of one outcome measure over any other. Studies in multi-morbidity are necessarily diverse and thus different outcome measures will be appropriate for different study designs. As with the COSmm consensus [3], we recognize the key importance of mortality and health-related quality of life as multi-morbidity outcomes, and these are suitable for use in LMIC settings. Many other outcomes from the COSmm work, including patient-reported impacts and behaviors (such as treatment burden and self-efficacy), physical activity

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3 and function, and health systems indicators (notably health economic indices) are also suitable
4 for LMIC settings, though in the context and with the caveats that we have described above.
5 Some of the challenges applying these outcome measures in LMIC are also relevant in HIC.
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8 The diversity of outcome measures across domains demonstrated here should provide a useful
9 summary for researchers, and encourage the use of multiple domains in multi-morbidity
10 research, rather than just a single outcome measure. Ultimately, the proof of utility for these
11 outcome measures will be the demonstration that an effective multi-morbidity intervention can
12 improve the health of the community in which it is tested. Meanwhile, there remains the urgent
13 need for further study and development of outcome measures suitable for multi-morbidity
14 intervention studies in the context of LMIC.
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17 There are limitations to this work, which is not intended to be a core outcome set, nor a
18 systematic review. Development of both these would be an important contribution to the field,
19 as would further work to understand the perceptions of these outcome measures from people
20 directly affected by multi-morbidity and tools suitable for assessing patient-reported experience
21 in the context of multi-morbidity. Here, we present a critical, narrative synthesis describing the
22 range of outcome measures that might be selected for use in such settings, and their
23 challenges. The key strength of our work is the broad representation of views from GACD
24 researchers who have considerable collective experience of implementation science research in
25 LMIC settings. We anticipate this will be useful to other researchers designing and conducting
26 such studies, and to provoke debate and progress in the field.
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32 **Figure Legend**

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35 **FIGURE 1:** *Eight domains of outcome measures for multi-morbidity interventions in LMIC.*
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38 **Data Availability**

39 No additional data available.
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Contributorship

41
42 The concept for this paper arose from discussion at the GACD Multi-Morbidity Working Group
43 chaired by JRH. The authors (JRH, GA, JFMvB, MD, GSG, EW-CH, PKM, JJM, MOO, SSP,
44 JBS, RV, LLY and NSL) planned and conducted the e-mail survey. All authors and contributors
45 (RA, KB, NHS, FXG-O, SJ, BJK, RMJJvdK, MMK, LL-D, PL-J, SN, JvO, GP, TS, KS, NS, ACT)
46 provided suggestions for outcome measures. Individual sections of the manuscript were drafted
47 by the authors, coordinated by JRH into a first complete draft. All authors revised this initial
48 draft. All authors and contributors provided important intellectual content on the revised draft
49 and approved the final version for submission.
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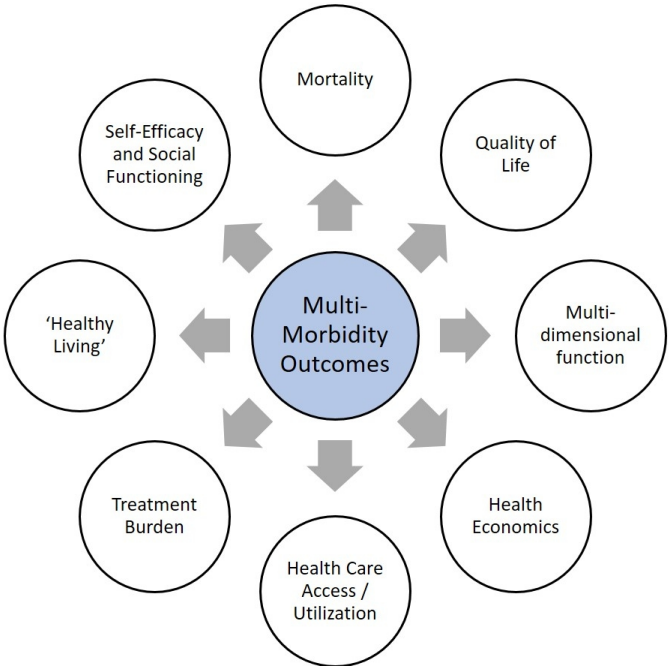


FIGURE 1: Eight domains of outcome measures for multi-morbidity interventions in LMIC.

84x56mm (400 x 400 DPI)