**REVIEW ARTICLE** 



## Improving access to evidence-based interventions for trauma-exposed adults in low- and middle-income countries

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#### Abstract

In low- and middle-income countries (LMICs), the mental health consequences of trauma exposure pose a substantial personal, societal, and economic burden. Yet, the significant need for evidence-based mental health treatment remains largely unmet. To unlock the potential for mental health care for trauma survivors in lower-resource contexts, it is critical to map treatment barriers and identify strategies to improve access to evidence-based, culturally appropriate, and scalable interventions. This review, based on an International Society for Traumatic Stress (ISTSS) briefing paper, describes the treatment gap facing adults with traumatic stress in LMICs and identifies the barriers that contribute to this gap. We then highlight strategies for enhancing access to effective treatments for these populations, including task-sharing, the use of culturally adapted and multiproblem interventions, and digital tools to scale access to appropriate care. Finally, we offer recommendations for policymakers, researchers, and service providers to guide an agenda for action to close the treatment gap for trauma survivors in LMICs.

Over two thirds of adults living in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) have experienced at least one traumatic event in their lifetime (Benjet et al., 2016). Among trauma survivors in these settings, mental health difficulties, such as posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and depression, are common. For example, in sub-Saharan African countries, the pooled prevalence of PTSD has been estimated to be 22% (Ng et al., 2020). In countries that have experienced war and conflict, which are predominantly LMICs, the aggregate prevalence rates of PTSD and depression have been estimated at 29% and 24%, respectively (Lim et al., 2022). Moreover, trauma survivors in LMICs often present with forms of trauma-related distress that are not consistent with Western psychiatric diagnoses, including somatic symptoms, impacts on spirituality, and loss of social status (Kohrt & Hruschka, 2010; Michalopoulos et al., 2020).

According to the World Health Organization (WHO; 2022), mental health is a universal human right. Improving access to effective treatments for trauma-related mental health difficulties is, therefore, a human rights imperative. Moreover, this unmet mental health need carries a substantial economic cost: Through a combination of disability and premature mortality, PTSD and depression in LMICs account for over 2,000 and 40,000 lost healthy life years, respectively (Mathers et al., 2006). Ensuring better treatment access to reduce this burden can yield substantial economic and health benefits in lower-resource countries (Chisholm et al., 2016). In this review, based on an International Society for Traumatic Stress (ISTSS)

briefing paper (Kaminer et al., 2023), we describe the treatment gap facing adults who are experiencing symptoms related to trauma exposure in LMICs, identify the obstacles that drive this gap, and highlight strategies that show promise for enhancing access to effective treatment for this population. We then offer recommendations for policymakers, researchers, and service providers to guide an agenda for action going forward.

# CURRENT ACCESS TO TREATMENT IN LMICs

A growing evidence base supports the effectiveness of psychological interventions to address trauma-related mental health difficulties in lower-resource settings (Morina et al., 2017; Singla et al., 2017). Despite this, treatment access in LMICs lags far behind in comparison to high-income countries (HICs). Although there is some variation across different countries, overall, only 20% of adults living with PTSD in LMICs have had contact with a mental health specialist or general medical provider in the past year compared with 51% in HICs (Stein et al., 2023). Even when considering a broader range of treatment providers (e.g., counselors, spiritual advisors, herbalists, acupuncturists, other healing professionals), treatment access in LMICs is still significantly lower than in HICs for both lifetime (14% vs. 47%) and 12-month PTSD (25% vs. 59%; Thornicroft et al., 2018). Although more severe PTSD symptoms are associated with better treatment access in HICs, this is not the case in LMICs, where even trauma survivors living with severe symptoms often do not receive any form of treatment.

Access to quality evidence-informed interventions is even more scarce. In LMICs, only 5% of adults with PTSD who have had contact with a specialist or general medical provider receive adequate psychotherapy, and only 18% receive any form of effective treatment; in contrast, these figures are 21% and 41%, respectively, in HICs (Stein et al., 2023). Increasing treatment access without improving the quality of available treatments will do little to address the burden of traumatic stress in lower-resource countries. There is limited data on treatment access for trauma survivors with mental health difficulties other than PTSD, but there are likely unmet treatment needs among these survivors as well. Given the extent of the treatment gap for trauma-related mental health concerns, there is an urgent need to identify and address barriers to accessing quality evidence-based trauma treatments in LMIC contexts.

## **TREATMENT BARRIERS IN LMICs**

According to data from 22 countries in the WHO's World Mental Health Surveys, common treatment barriers for trauma survivors with PTSD include a low perceived need for treatment (e.g., individuals do not think they need help or believe their symptoms are not sufficiently distressing to warrant treatment), a range of other attitudinal barriers (e.g., a belief that the problem will get better on its own, preference to handle the problem by one's self, a lack of confidence in the effectiveness of treatment, concern regarding stigma), and structural barriers related to treatment resources (e.g., the unavailability of mental health specialists and nearby services, a lack of transport to attend distant services, treatment cost) (Thornicroft et al., 2018). In low-income and lower-middle-income countries, the most commonly reported treatment barrier across all levels of PTSD severity is a low perceived need for treatment (i.e., 58% of respondents with severe PTSD and 76% of those with mild/moderate PTSD), followed by other attitudinal barriers (39% and 22%, respectively) and, finally, structural barriers (26% and 8%, respectively). It is notable that even in the most resource-constrained regions of the world, individuals with PTSD more commonly report treatment barriers linked to perceptions and attitudes than structural factors. A crucial first step toward increasing treatment uptake and access for trauma-affected individuals in LMICs is, therefore, improving public awareness and mental health literacy regarding the impact of trauma and addressing stigmatized attitudes about seeking help for trauma-related mental health difficulties.

The second step toward improving access to evidencebased trauma interventions in LMICs is to remove structural treatment barriers to allow trauma survivors to act upon new understandings of their symptoms and find help. Having any form of health insurance is an important predictor of treatment access for adults with PTSD in LMICs (Stein et al., 2023). Although a variety of health insurance schemes have been implemented in LMICs in recent years (Osei Afriyie et al., 2022), two thirds of lowincome countries do not include mental health as part of national health insurance (WHO, 2022). Addressing this exclusion is an important step toward closing the treatment gap in LMICs. However, increasing mental health coverage for trauma survivors in lower-resource contexts is not a matter of improved health insurance alone but rather also requires innovative methods of service delivery that can enhance access to acceptable, affordable, and effective trauma treatment.

## **IMPROVING ACCESS TO EVIDENCE-BASED TRAUMA** INTERVENTIONS IN LMICs

Although empirical evidence supports several interventions for adult PTSD (Bisson et al., 2020), these treatment protocols were largely developed and evaluated in HICs (Singla et al., 2017). However, there is now a growing evidence base demonstrating that these interventions can be effectively adapted for LMICs using a combination of strategies to reduce attitudinal treatment barriers and circumvent structural constraints.

### **Task-sharing**

Lower-resource countries often have as few as two mental health specialists per 100,000 residents compared with more than 70 specialists per 100,000 people in HICs (WHO, 2017). Training and supervising nonspecialist providers to deliver basic mental health tasks can substantially improve access to, and the dissemination of, mental health treatment (Patel, 2009; WHO, 2022). Within this task-sharing approach, nonspecialist providers can include community health workers selected specifically to deliver only these services or existing primary health care staff, such as nurses (Mutamba & Kumar, 2022).

Task-sharing initiatives have the potential to increase the size of the mental health workforce in LMICs, especially in underserviced rural areas, thereby helping to reduce structural barriers to treatment (Hoeft et al., 2018). In addition, enabling trauma-affected individuals to access support from culturally accepted community members rather than specialists in medical settings that tend to be associated with severe mental illness, can help reduce perceived stigma connected to help-seeking (Bolton, 2019). Nonspecialist providers who are cultural insiders can also play a role in psychoeducation initiatives aimed at addressing a low perceived need for treatment and increasing intervention awareness and acceptability within local communities (Kane et al., 2015).

Emerging evidence from randomized controlled trials supports the use of task-shared interventions for trauma survivors in LMICs. For example, among survivors of sexual violence in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), an adaptation of cognitive processing therapy (CPT; Resick et al., 2017) delivered by community health workers was found to be effective in reducing PTSD, combined depression and anxiety symptoms, and functional impairment at posttreatment and 6-month follow-up (Bass et al., 2013). Among survivors of systematic violence in rural areas of Kurdistan, behavioral activation treatment for depression (BATD; Lejuez et al., 2011) was shown to have significant

effects on depression and dysfunction, whereas CPT significantly reduced dysfunction (Bolton, Bass, et al., 2014). In the DRC, an adaptation of narrative exposure therapy (NET; Schauer et al., 2011) delivered to female former child soldiers by community-based lay counselors was effective in treating PTSD, aggression, and depression (Robjant et al., 2019).

There are, however, several challenges to disseminating task-shared trauma interventions at scale in LMICs. For example, staff in primary health care settings already have onerous workloads, and there is high turnover among community health workers due to a lack of accreditation, job security, and adequate pay (Bolton, 2019). In addition, nonspecialist providers need adequate training and supervision to ensure they deliver interventions with adequate skill and fidelity (Petersen et al., 2014). It is not yet clear how the effectiveness of trauma interventions delivered by nonspecialists compares with that of interventions delivered by mental health specialists. Research that directly compares the outcomes of trauma interventions delivered by different cadres of providers in LMICs can inform decisions about the amount and type of support needed to bring nonspecialist providers to optimal competence. Developing local trainers and supervisors can ensure there is a sustainable capacity to grow new cadres of nonspecialist providers in LMICs going forward (Murray et al., 2011). However, in-person supervision by a trained expert still represents a bottleneck in scaling the implementation of interventions due to a shortage of skilled providers in LMICs and sustainability challenges once research funding for projects discontinues (Fairburn & Patel, 2017). Newer models for scaling supervision, such as training nonspecialist providers to peer-deliver supervision through measurement-based models with user-friendly digital platforms, represent an innovative approach to tackle this bottleneck (Singla et al., 2020).

Moving forward, researchers need to focus on evaluating feasible models of scaling up task-shared trauma interventions in routine health and community settings to meaningfully increase the number of people with traumarelated difficulties who can access treatment (Bolton, 2019). Implementation science offers valuable theories and methods to enhance the uptake of task-shared mental health treatments in health and community settings in LMICs (Bauer & Kirschner, 2020; Le et al., 2022) given the contextual needs and conditions (Nilsen & Bernhardsson, 2019).

## **Cultural adaptation**

Understanding what constitutes trauma, the presentation of posttraumatic reactions, the definition of what constitutes "abnormal" reactions, and norms about help-seeking all vary immensely across cultural settings (Chentsova-Dutton & Maercker, 2019; Kohrt & Hruschka, 2010). Strategies to improve access to treatment for trauma-related mental health difficulties in LMICs should, therefore, be framed by cultural considerations.

First, culturally appropriate strategies are critical to addressing attitudinal treatment barriers (Na et al., 2016). For example, "low perceived need for treatment" needs to be carefully unpacked in each LMIC, as such perceptions may differ across cultural—and even regional—contexts (Lewis-Fernández & Kirmayer, 2019; Thornicroft et al., 2018). Similarly, the content of stigmatized beliefs and attitudes may have specific local nuances. For example, in postconflict Northern Uganda, ex-combatants with PTSD commonly experience stigmatization due to their previous association with a rebel group (Schneider et al., 2018), whereas stigma and shame associated with sexual trauma are common among women presenting for HIV treatment in South Africa (Watt et al., 2017). Qualitative research that explores trauma survivors' insider knowledge of barriers to help-seeking in local settings can illuminate such cultural and contextual complexities (Byrow et al., 2020). Findings can then inform the content of public awareness programs to address attitudinal treatment barriers. In addition, social contact strategies, whereby individuals with lived experience of traumatic stress share their experiences with others in their community, have been shown to be an effective and culturally grounded strategy for reducing stigma (Thornicroft et al., 2016; WHO, 2022).

Second, culturally congruent assessment tools are necessary for early and accurate detection of trauma survivors who need treatment referral. Although the use of psychiatric categories outlined in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (5th ed., text rev.; DSM-5-TR; American Psychiatric Association, 2022) and International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems (11th rev.; ICD-11; WHO, 2019) and assessment methods based on these categories have a role to play in LMICs, these could fail to detect culturally based trauma responses, resulting in lost opportunities for treatment (Michalopoulos et al., 2020). The Cambodian Somatic Symptom and Syndrome Inventory (Hinton et al., 2013) and the Egyptian Somatic Symptom and Syndrome Inventory (Jalal et al., 2017) are examples of culturally congruent measures of traumatic stress that can enhance the accurate detection of individuals who need intervention.

Third, cultural adaptations of mental health interventions can enhance treatment acceptability (Padmanathan & De Silva, 2013) and effectiveness (Hall et al., 2016 Smith et al., 2020). These benefits have also been reported for culturally adapted trauma interventions in LMIC settings (Brunnet et al., 2021; Kaysen et al., 2013). For example, Jalal et al. (2017) developed culturally adapted cognitive behavior therapy for the Egyptian population, incorporating Islamic beliefs and rituals to overcome stigmatizing attitudes and enhance willingness to engage in treatment. Where available, culturally congruent assessment tools should be incorporated as outcome measures when evaluating the effectiveness of culturally adapted interventions for traumatic stress in LMICs.

Finally, cultural considerations can inform the identification of suitable nonspecialist providers within a task-sharing approach. For example, in Zimbabwe, the Friendship Bench project trains grandmothers to deliver evidence-based skills to reduce depression (Chibanda et al., 2015). The research team gathered information systematically in the early stages by using theory-of-change mapping with key local stakeholders. Consequently, this program is a standout model that leverages high-status social resources (i.e., elders) in local communities and partnership communities. Similar approaches could be adopted to identify suitable nonspecialist providers for trauma interventions in specific LMIC settings.

Despite the demonstrated benefits of cultural adaptation, a recent review found a striking gap in studies that systematically document cultural adaptation processes in the development of PTSD interventions (Ennis et al., 2020). There are few studies that go beyond surface-level adaptations (e.g., changes to language and terminology only) to report substantive, deep-level cultural adaptations to the content and delivery of interventions (e.g., modifying explanations to fit with cultural values, adding sessions/techniques, increasing therapist self-disclosure for greater trust) while still preserving the core treatment elements. In addition, none of the reviewed studies included co-design with people with lived experiences of traumatic events and/or distress related to these events. This represents a missed opportunity to enhance treatment engagement and effectiveness.

## **Digital interventions**

Although there is still a digital divide between HICs and LMICs, the use of mobile phones and smartphone applications (i.e., apps) is rapidly increasing in LMICs and can be leveraged to augment mental health services in several ways (Merchant et al., 2020; WHO, 2022). First, digital technology can be harnessed to address attitudinal treatment barriers. For example, public antistigma campaigns can be delivered on social media to increase reach and impact at the population level (Naslund & Deng, 2021). The effectiveness of such large-scale digital messaging in addressing trauma-related stigma in LMICs should be evaluated. On a more targeted scale, an online intervention using social contact, psychoeducation, and cognitive reappraisal of negative mental health beliefs was found to reduce self-stigma and increase help-seeking behaviors in a sample of refugee men in Australia (Nickerson et al., 2020). This suggests that similar digital strategies may be effective when directed at specific groups of trauma survivors living in LMIC settings (e.g., women accessing services for gender-based violence, survivors of natural disasters). The anonymity and asynchronicity of many webbased mental health interventions may also help bypass the stigma associated with accessing traditional in-person mental health care and provide a more acceptable modality for treatment engagement (Naslund & Deng, 2021).

Beyond addressing attitudinal treatment barriers, digital interventions can play a significant role in addressing structural challenges. For example, nonspecialist providers in remote or rural areas can be trained and supervised using digital technologies, increasing treatment access for trauma survivors who live far from formal mental health services (Naslund et al., 2019). Moreover, digital mental health interventions may be far less costly to disseminate at scale than traditional in-person treatment and, even when data costs are considered, less costly to access for individuals without health insurance (Muñoz, 2022).

Digital interventions for traumatic stress within LMIC settings are only beginning to be evaluated, but early findings are promising. In Egypt, a culturally adapted, online version of PTSD Coach (Possemato et al., 2016) was found to reduce the stigma of treatment-seeking (Ellis et al., 2022) and demonstrated reductions in PTSD symptoms at 3-month follow-up, although the effects were small in magnitude (Miller-Graff et al., 2021). A counselor-supported version of the PTSD Coach mobile app was found to have a high level of acceptability and was effective in reducing PTSD and stress symptoms in a South African sample (Bröcker et al., 2024). Although these preliminary studies are encouraging, building on this limited evidence base should be an important focus of future research. Including individuals with lived experience of traumatic stress in the development and design of digital interventions for specific LMIC settings can enhance both treatment acceptability and effectiveness (Ellis & Miller-Graff, 2021).

## FLEXIBLE, MULTIPROBLEM APPROACHES

As discussed, there is evidence that treatments targeting PTSD symptoms can be effective in LMIC contexts. However, many trauma survivors in LMICs present with a broad array of comorbid disorders or distress symptoms beyond PTSD, including depression (Hoppen & Morina, 2019) and substance use disorders (Kaysen

ISTSS International Society WILEY 5 et al., 2023). Such survivors may struggle to engage in and complete trauma-focused treatment when comorbid difficulties are not addressed (Gutner & Pressau, 2019). Other survivors have subclinical symptoms that do not meet the threshold for PTSD treatment but may still cause distress and impair functioning (McLaughlin et al., 2015). Consequently, transdiagnostic interventions that target multiple outcomes across a spectrum of severity may offer added efficiency and effectiveness to mental health service provision (Gutner et al., 2016). There is growing evidence that transdiagnostic approaches are effective in trauma-affected populations in LMICs. For example, the "common elements treatment approach" (CETA; Murray et al., 2014), which combines evidence-based treatment components in a flexible manner, has been found to lead to significant reductions in multiple mental health outcomes in traumaexposed LMIC populations when delivered by community health workers (Bolton, Lee, et al., 2014; Bonilla-Escobar et al., 2018; Weiss et al., 2015). Problem Management Plus (PM+; Dawson et al., 2015) and Self-Help Plus (SH+; Karyotaki et al., 2021), developed by the WHO as transdiagnostic, scalable mental health interventions that can be delivered by nonspecialist providers, have both been found to effectively address a range of outcomes, including distress, depression, anxiety, and PTSD symptoms, in individuals living in LMIC contexts that include conflict,

et al., 2023; Rahman et al., 2016; Schäfer et al., 2023). Addressing a range of mental health difficulties within a single intervention can save time in busy, underresourced public health settings and reduce the likelihood of repeat visits for untreated comorbidities. In addition, transdiagnostic approaches allow for the simplified, cost-efficient training of nonspecialist providers compared with developing competencies in several diagnosis-specific protocols; offer flexibility in treatment delivery; and can be readily adapted across contexts (Guttner & Pressau, 2019). Transdiagnostic approaches, therefore, have the potential for greater reach and sustainability in contexts with limited financial and human resources for the delivery of trauma interventions.

violence, and adversity (Bryant et al., 2017; Karyotaki

Some transdiagnostic interventions also aim to reduce the risk for other public health issues that commonly affect trauma-exposed populations in LMICs. For example, NETfacts (Robjant et al., 2022), an adaptation of NET, was found to reduce mental health symptoms, violence perpetration, and stigma towards sexual violence in the DRC. CETA has been found to reduce interpersonal partner violence among Zambian adults living with HIV (Murray et al., 2020), and its effectiveness in improving HIV treatment outcomes is currently being trialed with women experiencing intimate partner violence in

South Africa (Pascoe et al., 2022). By addressing a multiplicity of outcomes within a single, brief intervention, treatment access for trauma survivors with comorbid mental and behavioral health difficulties can be scaled up considerably within lower-resource settings. Although multiproblem approaches show promise in LMICs, further research is needed to evaluate their effectiveness compared to diagnosis-specific treatments and assess their long-term sustainability, particularly when delivered by nonspecialist providers (Guttner & Pressau, 2019).

## RECOMMENDATIONS

The scale of untreated mental health needs among adult trauma survivors in LMICs and the economic burden that this poses to already resource-constrained settings necessitate urgent collaborative action from policymakers, researchers, and service providers. Based on the evidence reviewed in this paper, we offer the following recommendations.

## Public health and policy

- 1. In LMICs that currently have or are planning to implement national health insurance schemes, treatment coverage for PTSD and other trauma-related disorders should be included.
- 2. Mental health literacy and stigma reduction programs should be implemented to address attitudinal barriers to seeking help for traumatic stress. These programs should be tailored to address context-specific attitudes, beliefs, and norms that hinder help-seeking, drawing on research with local populations of trauma survivors. Individuals with lived experience of traumatic stress should be involved in the delivery of these programs using social contact strategies.
- 3. LMICs should invest in the development of a cadre of adequately compensated community health workers to provide psychoeducation programs and trauma interventions. This can substantially reduce the treatment gap, especially in rural and remote areas. Capacitating community health workers to engage in peer-delivered supervision using digital platforms can ensure the ongoing growth of this mental health workforce. In the long term, this investment will be offset by a reduction in the economic and health burden posed by traumatic stress in LMICs.
- 4. Funding agencies should include task-shared, culturespecific trauma interventions as a priority for health and programming budgeting. Targeted programming efforts should be developed for marginalized and vul-

nerable groups in LMICs that are at higher risk of trauma exposure and/or traumatic stress (e.g., persecuted religious minorities, people living with HIV/AIDS, survivors of intimate partner violence).

## Researchers

- 1. Research on improving access to evidence-based trauma interventions in LMICs should be led or co-led by researchers in LMICs to ensure contextually and culturally relevant research approaches and findings.
- 2. Treatment barriers in specific LMIC contexts should be explored using qualitative research approaches that can capture the nuance and complexity of local experiences. These can then inform large-scale quantitative studies documenting the prevalence and correlates of contextually relevant treatment barriers.
- 3. There is a need for the development of evidence-based screening and detection tools that include culturally congruent expressions of trauma-related distress along-side more universal aspects of traumatic stress, such as PTSD.
- 4. Head-to-head comparisons between trauma interventions delivered by specialist versus nonspecialist providers in LMIC settings should be conducted to inform decisions about the amount of training and supervision needed to bring nonspecialist providers up to optimal competence.
- 5. Research in LMICs should extend beyond evaluating the effectiveness of task-shared trauma interventions at the level of clinical trials to focus on implementation processes for disseminating these interventions in community settings and existing health systems.
- 6. Cultural adaptations of evidence-based trauma interventions should be developed and evaluated in specific LMIC settings, with the involvement of local experts and community navigators. Adaptations should include both surface-level (e.g., language) and deeplevel components (e.g., modifying explanations to fit with cultural values, or integrating local religious or cultural rituals). Involving people with lived experience of trauma and/or traumatic stress is crucial in all stages of intervention development, including piloting phases, wherein their feedback can be actioned for greater acceptability by the target beneficiaries.
- 7. Culturally congruent outcome measures should be used alongside measures of *DSM*- or *ICD*-based traumarelated mental disorders to evaluate the effectiveness of culturally adapted evidence-based trauma interventions in LMICs.
- 8. Additional research in LMIC settings is needed to evaluate the feasibility and effectiveness of digital



platforms for the (a) training of nonspecialist providers, (b) delivery of large-scale psychoeducation and antistigma programs, and (c) dissemination of trauma intervention programs. Given connectivity and data constraints in many LMICs, research should focus on developing and evaluating digital strategies that have low requirements for internet connectivity and mobile data usage. For example, the PTSD Coach mobile app requires no postdownload data usage.

 Researchers should compare the feasibility and effectiveness of PTSD-focused interventions versus multiproblem transdiagnostic interventions for different populations of trauma survivors in LMICs to establish what works best for whom.

## Trauma practitioners and service providers in LMICs

- When delivering mental health interventions to trauma survivors in LMICs, culturally congruent, evidencebased assessment tools should be used to inform treatment decisions and monitor treatment progress. Validated trauma symptom measures that include key local idioms related to distress and measure treatment targets deemed important to the local population should be used where available.
- 2. There are evidence-based diagnosis-specific and multiproblem interventions for traumatic stress in LMICs. When selecting among these interventions, those that have been culturally adapted for the specific LMIC settings in which practitioners are based are likely to be most acceptable and effective for recipients.

## CONCLUSION

In LMICs, critically low access to trauma interventions for adults is the result of a range of demand- and supplyside barriers at different stages in the help-seeking process. However, there is promising empirical evidence that task-sharing, cultural adaptation, digital interventions, and flexible, multiproblem approaches can contribute to addressing these barriers. None of these is a standalone solution, but they are well-suited to working in tandem to synergistically increase quality treatment access in lowerresource contexts. Moving forward, it is important to build on the existing evidence base, identifying both strategies that can be applied across LMICs and those that are relevant to specific local contexts. Moreover, addressing challenges to implementation will be vital for increasing the population reach of evidence-based trauma interventions. We have offered recommendations for action that policymakers, researchers, and trauma service providers can take as they work together toward closing the treatment gap for adult trauma survivors in LMICs.

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