Psychometric properties of the Mexican version of the opening minds stigma scale for health care providers (OMS-HC) (#85385)

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Psychometric properties of the Mexican version of the opening minds stigma scale for health care providers (OMS-HC)

Hugo Noel Valdivia Ramos ¹, Jazmín Mora-Ríos ^{Corresp., 2}, Guillermina Natera ², Liliana Mondragón ²

Corresponding Author: Jazmín Mora-Ríos Email address: morarj@imp.edu.mx

Background Health care providers are one of the main roups that stigmatize individuals with mental health problems. Apathy, accusation, fatalism, and morbid curiosity are the most common forms of stigmatization encountered, which are associated with inadequate treatment, reduced treatment adherence, decreased help-seeking behavior, an increased risk of relapse, and complications with other medical conditions. The aim of this study was to examine the psychometric properties of an adapted Spanish version of the Opening Minds Stigma Scale (OMS-HC) among healthcare providers in Mexico and identify certain stigmatizing attitudes within this group.

Methods An ex-post facto cross-sectional observational study was conducted with 556 health care providers in Mexico with an average age of 29.7 years, mostly women (80.4%). Validity was examined through confirmatory factor analysis. Differences between gender, discipline, occupation, and educational attainment were analyzed using multivariate methods.

Results The factor structure of the OMS-HC, consisting of three subscales identified by the original authors of the instrument (attitudes of healthcare providers towards people with mental illness, secrecy/help-seeking, and social distance), was confirmed. The model demonstrated good fit (x^2 /df = 2.36, RMSEA = .050, CFI = .970, TLI = .962, SRMR = .054, NFI = 0.95, PNFI = 0.742) and adequate internal consistency (α = .73). Significant differences were found by discipline, educational attainment, and current academic semester. Higher scores were observed on the OMS-HC scale among nursing and medical professionals, undergraduate students, and those in early semesters.

Conclusions. The Spanish version of the OMS-HC is a valid and reliable tool for evaluating stigma, enabling further research on the issue in Mexico and Latin America.

Programa de Maestría y Doctorado de Ciencias Médicas y Odontológicas, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Ciudad de México, Ciudad de México, Mexico

² Dirección de Investigaciones Epidemiológicas y Psicosociales, Instituto Nacional de Psiquiatría Ramón de la Fuente Muñiz, Ciudad de México, Ciudad de México, México



1 Psychometric properties of the Mexican version of the 2 **Opening Minds Stigma Scale for Health Care** 3 **Providers (OMS-HC)** 4 5 6 7 Hugo Noel Valdivia¹, Jazmín Mora-Ríos², Guillermina Natera², Liliana Mondragón² 8 ¹ Programa de Maestría y Doctorado de Ciencias Médicas y Odontológicas, Universidad 9 Nacional Autónoma de México UNAM, Ciudad de México, México 10 ² Dirección de Investigaciones Epidemiológicas y Psicosociales, Instituto Nacional de Psiquiatría 11 12 Ramón de la Fuente Muñiz, Ciudad de México, México 13 Corresponding Author: 14 Jazmín Mora Ríos 15 16 Dirección de Investigaciones Epidemiológicas y Psicosociales, Instituto Nacional de Psiquiatría Ramón de la Fuente Muñiz, Ciudad de México, Calzada México Xochimilco No. 101, San 17 18 Lorenzo Huipulco, Tlalpan, México Email address: morarj@imp.edu.mx 19



Abstract

21 Background

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- 23 problems. Apathy, accusation, fatalism, and morbid curiosity are the most common forms of
- 24 stigmatization encountered, which are associated with inadequate treatment, reduced treatment
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- 43 Conclusions. The Spanish version of the OMS-HC is a valid and reliable tool for evaluating
- stigma, enabling further research on the issue in Mexico and Latin America.

Introduction

- 47 Mental health disorders and substance abuse are currently one of the leading causes of disability
- 48 worldwide, accounting for 13% of the global disease burden (WHO, 2021). In the case of
- 49 Mexico, they represent 16% of all disability-adjusted life years (DALYs) and 33.5% of all years
- 50 lived with disability (YLDs) (*PAHO*, 2018). The stigma associated with mental health disorders
- 51 impedes timely and effective care for individuals. This issue is particularly relevant in low- and
- 52 middle-income countries where limited research and attention may exacerbate the problem more
- 53 than in high-income countries (Wainberg et al., 2017).

Stigma is defined as the co-occurrence of labeling, stereotyping, separation, loss of status, and discrimination in a situation where power is exercised (*Link B & Phelan, 2001*). In addition to coping with their condition, those with mental health disorders are forced to deal with misinformation on the part of society, and being the object of prejudice and rejection, which affects their well-being and quality of life (*Martinez & Hishaw, 2016*).



Stigmatizing attitudes toward individuals with mental health disorders have been identified in health care providers in various disciplines and health care services, including specialized ones. These attitudes take on various forms, such as mockery, indifference, blame, fatalism, and morbid curiosity. Unfortunately, these negative attitudes can lead to poor care, treatment non-adherence, increased risk of relapse, and other medical complications (*Livingston & Boyd, 2010; Dubreucq, Plasse & Franck, 2021*).

In recent decades, there has been a growing interest in reducing stigma among health care providers. This is due to the need to combat discriminatory practices and improve medical care for people with mental health disorders (*Griffiths et al., 2014*). The scientific literature has documented several stigmatizing attitudes in health care providers, which have been associated with their age, educational attainment, and work experience (*Mora-Ríos, Ortega-Ortega & Natera, 2016; Rivera-Segarra, Varas-Díaz & Santos-Figueroa, 2019*). Although some studies have disagreed over these results (*Kopera et al., 2015; Carrara et al., 2019*) it has been found that increased contact with people with mental health disorders can reduce stigmatizing attitudes (*Griffiths et al., 2014; Stuber et al., 2014*). These findings suggest that technical knowledge and skills alone may not be enough to achieve behavior change among healthcare providers (*Schulze, 2007*).

Therefore, it is crucial to have instruments for measuring stigmatization that are valid, reliable, and adapted to the cultural characteristics of each region (*Yang et al., 2014*). However, a systematic review has pointed out issues in stigma assessment, such as the high number of items and a lack of validity in some cases (*Sastre-Rus et al., 2019*). Despite these challenges, it is essential to continue developing and validating instruments to measure stigmatization in health care providers, since they are essential for identifying and addressing stigmatizing attitudes and practices, improving care quality, and fostering inclusion and respect toward those with mental health disorders.

The Opening Minds Stigma Scale for Health Care Personnel (OMS-HC) was developed to assess the attitudes of health care providers toward mental illness (*Kassam et al., 2012*). Originally consisting of twenty items, it was adjusted to two-factors structure with twelve items. However, further validation by *Modgill et al.* (2014) resulted in a three-factor version with fifteen items. This version of the instrument has demonstrated adequate psychometric properties, including good internal consistency both globally ($\alpha = 0.79$) and in the three subscales comprising it: 1) attitudes of health care providers toward those with mental illness ($\alpha = 0.68$), 2) secrecy/help-seeking ($\alpha = 0.67$) and 3) social distance ($\alpha = 0.69$). The OMS-HC scale has been widely adopted in international research (*Papish et al., 2013; Sastre-Rus et al., 2019; Sapag et al., 2019*) and used to evaluate interventions in various populations, professional settings, and online educational programs (*Knaak, Ungar & Patten, 2015; Fernandez et al., 2016; Chang et al., 2017*). To obtain a brief measurement tool for assessing stigma in health care providers, this study aimed to provide a Spanish version of the OMS-HC scale for health care providers in Mexico and to examine its factorial structure, internal consistency, and psychometric properties. In addition, possible differences in stigma levels are explored through sociodemographic



variables such as age, gender, educational attainment, occupation, discipline, and the current academic semester in which students are enrolled.

Materials & Methods

104 Study Design

An ex post facto, cross-sectional observational study was designed. The research team established contact with four family medicine health clinics in Mexico City and three universities, which expressed their interest in participating in the study. Subsequently, approval was obtained from the participating institutions and dates were scheduled for administering the questionnaires. The institutions provided the necessary facilities to carry out the instrument application and allowed the voluntary invitation of individuals from the fields of medicine, nursing, psychology, and social work.

Data collection was carried out in two stages. The first stage involved 143 participants and was conducted in person between February and March 2020. The second stage, which involved 462 participants, was conducted between September and December, during the COVID-19 health emergency, and participants were invited to collaborate through an online platform. Before answering the questionnaires, the participants were provided with an informed consent.

Participants

Non-probabilistic convenience sampling was used. To determine the correct sample size, the authors used the recommendation of *MacCallum et al.* (1999) to obtain a sample equal to or greater than 500 participants to obtain stable estimates considering communalities, number of factors, and items.

A total of 605 students and professionals in the health care field participated in the study, all of whom met the inclusion criteria of being over 18 years of age, residing in Mexico City, and working in the health care field as either a student or a professional. Table 1 displays the sociodemographic characteristics of the participants. The analysis included only completed questionnaires, resulting in an effective sample of 556 participants (92%). The mean age of the participants was 29.7 years (SD = 9.45), with 80.4% of them being female and the remaining 19.6% being male. Most of the participants came from the disciplines of medicine (59%) and nursing (20.3%), and 79.5% held a bachelor's degree. For those engaged in professional training, the semester in which they were enrolled was considered ranging from the first semester of undergraduate programs to graduate programs. In addition, it was observed that 23.4% were pursuing a specialty.

134 [Table 1]

Instruments

- To evaluate the attitudes of health care providers toward individuals with mental disorders, the
- 137 Spanish adaptation of the Opening Minds Scale for Health Care Providers (OMS-HC) was
- 138 utilized. The original OMS-HC, developed by Kassam et al. (2012) in English, has a factorial



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structure consisting of two dimensions that account for 45% of the variance using twelve of the twenty proposed items. These dimensions include attitudes of health care providers toward mental illness ($\alpha = 0.75$) and attitudes of secrecy toward mental illness ($\alpha = 0.72$). The first dimension contains seven items, while the second contains five. The scale has adequate levels of global internal consistency ($\alpha = 0.82$) and an interclass correlation of 0.66 (95% CI [0.54, 0.75]).

For this study, the fifteen-item version of the scale was used, based on the factorial validation proposed by *Modgill et al.* (2014), in which three dimensions were identified: 1) attitudes of health care providers toward people with mental illness, 2) secrecy/help-seeking, and 3) social distance. The answer form includes a five-point Likert scale (completely agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, and completely disagree). Higher scores on the scale indicate greater stigmatization. Items 2, 6, 7, 8, and 14 are reverse scored. A section on sociodemographic data was included, comprising age, gender, educational attainment, occupation, discipline, and the semester in which participants are enrolled (in the case of those undergoing training).

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- **Procedure**
- The authors have permission to use the OMS-HC instrument from the copyright holders, in this 154
- case Kassam et al. (2012). The Spanish adaptation of the scale was developed using the rational 155
- criteria method with direct translation, which involved a consensus among experts who analyze 156
- the contents of the scale in the original language to ensure its correct translation (Sousa & 157
- Rojianasrirat, 2011). The expert panel comprised three researchers with experience in mental 158
- health who evaluated the theoretical relevance, clarity of writing, and appropriate language for 159
- the Mexican population. Additionally, a pilot test was conducted with fifteen medical students 160
- 161 who evaluated the clarity of the instructions and items using a dichotomous scale (clear or
- ambiguous). The instrument underwent adaptation in five main phases until a culturally relevant 162
- version was obtained for the study population (Fig 1). The Spanish adaptation can be found in 163
- the supplementary information in this study (see File S1). 164
- [Figure 1] 165

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Figure 1. The adaptation process of the OMS-HC scale to the Spanish version. 166

Data collection for factor analysis was conducted in two stages. At first, participants completed the questionnaires on the premises of the institutions involved, taking an average of eight minutes to complete the questionnaire. In the second, corresponding to the period of the pandemic, data were collected through an online platform.

Ethical considerations

- 172 The study was approved by the ethics committee of the National Autonomous University of
- Mexico, registration number Ext/01/2019. The study adhered to the ethical criteria established in 173
- the international ethical guidelines for biomedical research in humans (CIOMS, 2016). The study 174
- entailed minimal risk and participation was voluntary. The informed consent form included an 175
- explanation of the objectives of the study, while ensuring confidentiality, privacy, and other 176
- 177 ethical guarantees for the participants.
- 178 **Data Analysis**



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Descriptive statistics were used to analyze sociodemographic data. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to evaluate the factorial structure of the instrument. Before the CFA, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) sampling adequacy index and Bartlett's assumption of sphericity were calculated. A parallel analysis was conducted to corroborate the factorial structure suggested by *Modgill et al.* (2014). The model was subsequently calculated using a three-factor CFA using the weighted least squares estimator with adjusted mean and variance (WLSMV) (*Li*, 2016).

Multiple indicators were employed to assess the model's fit (*Hu & Bentler*, 1999; Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger & Müller, 2003). The Chi-Square Ratio between the Degrees of Freedom (x^2/df) was used to measure the discrepancy between the data and the hypothesized model, with a result between one and three considered as a good fit (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger & Müller, 2003). The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) was used as an index based on covariances; the model is acceptable if its value is less than 0.05 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) was used to contrast the loss produced by the change from the proposed model to the null model, in which a value equal to or greater than 0.95 is deemed optimal (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) was used to indicate the proportion of total information explained by the model, and a value equal to or greater than 0.95 was considered a good level of fit (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger & Müller, 2003). The Normalized Fit Index (NFI) was utilized to indicate the proportion of variance and covariance explained by the model compared to the null model, with values close to one being considered a good level of fit. The Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) was included, and a value below 0.08 was considered a good fit (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger & Müller, 2003). The Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI) was used to evaluate the relationship between the constructs and the theory, and a model was deemed to have a good fit if the value was greater than 0.60, which improved the closer it was to one (Mulaik et al., 1989).

The overall internal consistency of the instrument and by subscale was obtained through Cronbach's alpha coefficient (*Tavakol & Dennick, 2011*). The means of the OMS-HC were calculated and compared with the sociodemographic data using Student's t-tests and ANOVA, with Tukey's test utilized as a post-hoc analysis. Before analysis, data homogeneity was assessed by Levene's test. Mann-Whitney and Kruskal-Wallis U tests were performed as nonparametric analysis to confirm results. The relationship between quantitative variables was analyzed using Spearman's Rho. All analyses were performed using R statistical software version 4.0.3 (*R Core Team, 2016*) and G*Power software version 3.1.9.7 (*Erdfelder, Faul & Buchner, 1996*).

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Results

- For this analysis, a total of 556 participants who completed all items on the OMS-HC questionnaire were included in the sample. The data showed a satisfactory sample adequacy
- 217 measure (KMO) of 0.782, as well as a significant Bartlett sphericity test with df = 105,



suggesting that the data was suitable for factor analysis. Further analysis, using parallel analysis, identified the presence of three common factors.

To confirm the appropriateness of the three-factor model for this sample, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed. The three-factor model demonstrated consistency with the proposed theoretical model and showed good fit indicators. Specifically, the Chi-Square Ratio between the Degrees of Freedom (193.765 / 82) was 2.36, the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) was 0.050, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) was 0.970, the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) was 0.962, the Normalized Fit Index (NFI) was 0.95, the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) was 0.054, and the Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI) was 0.742.

All of the standardized loads of the items were higher than the criterion of 0.3, indicating that the items were well-represented by their respective factors. Additionally, the covariances by factor indicated correlation among the three subscales. The final solution of the model is presented in Figure 2.

232 [Figure 2]

Figure 2. Factorial solution of the OMS-HC.

Table 2 presents the results of the internal consistency analysis and item correlation of the OMS-HC scale. Corrected correlation values between each item and the total questionnaire score ranged from 0.23 to 0.57, with all items showing a corrected correlation above 0.2. Cronbach's alpha values if each item was removed did not indicate significant changes in the global value of the scale. The global internal consistency of the scale was adequate with an alpha value of 0.73. Cronbach's alpha values per subscale were 0.61, 0.60, and 0.51 for health care providers' attitudes toward people with mental illness, social distance, and secrecy/help-seeking respectively.

[Table 2]

Table 3 describes the means and standard deviations of the three subscales and their respective items. Both the total score of the OMS-HC (M = 30.80, SD = 6.77) and its dimensions: secrecy/help-seeking (M = 9.33, SD = 2.75), attitudes toward mental illness (M = 11.60, SD = 3.28) and social distance (M = 9.86, SD = 3.05) have lower values than their respective mean scores. The item "If I were under treatment for a mental illness, I would not disclose this to any of my colleagues." obtained the highest average (M = 3.07, SD = 1.17), while the item "I would be reluctant to seek help if I had a mental illness." obtained the lowest average (M = 1.56, SD = 0.86).

251 [Table 3]

Table 4 presents the relationship between the sociodemographic variables and the total score of the OMS-HC. The results indicate that gender and occupation did not display any significant differences (p = 0.897 and p = 0.203, respectively), while discipline did, with a small effect size (p < 0.01, f = 0.20). Specifically, the medicine and nursing groups had the highest levels of stigma, and significant differences were observed between them (95% CI [-3.857, -0.114], p-Tukey = 0.036), as well as between medicine and clinical psychology (95% CI [.421, -



4.913], p-Tukey = 0.012), nursing and clinical psychology (95% CI [2.055, 7.251], p-Tukey = <0.001), and clinical psychology and other disciplines (95% CI [-7.380, -.796], p-Tukey = 0.008).

Regarding the educational attainment variable, significant differences were found between groups with a small effect size (p = 0.018, f = 0.134), particularly between master's degrees and technical education (95%CI [.597, 8.797], p-Tukey = 0.017), with the latter showing the highest levels of stigmatization. When the sample was restricted to "students" and "both" only (n = 332) and analyzed by current academic semester, the lowest levels of stigmatization were observed among those who were most academically advanced. Significant differences were found with a medium effect size (p = <0.001, d = 0.309), specifically between 1st-4th semester students and graduate program (95%CI [0.035, 11.206], p-Tukey = 0.047), between 5th-6th semester and 9th-10th semester students (95%CI [2.109, 10.473], p-Tukey = <0.001), between 5th-6th semester and social service students (95%CI [0.056, 7.739], p-Tukey = 0.044), and between 5th-6th semester and graduate program (95%CI [2.825, 11.304], p-Tukey = <0.001), as well as between specialties and graduate level students (95%CI [0.328, 7.902], p-Tukey = 0.023). Lastly, no correlation was found between the age variable and the OMS-HC score (rho = 0.072, p = 0.092). [Table 4]

Discussion

The findings of this research indicate that the OMS-HC scale is a valid, reliable instrument for assessing stigmatizing attitudes associated with mental illness in health care providers in Mexico. The measures to assess the fit of the model were adequate (Mulaik et al., 1989; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger & Müller, 2003) and the three subscales identified correspond to the factorial structure proposed by Modgill et al. (2014). Additionally, the global reliability of the scale ($\alpha = 0.73$) was similar to that obtained in other adaptations. For example, in Singapore α was found to be 0.75 (Chang et al., 2017), in Canada it was 0.77 (van der Maas et al., 2018), in Chile it was 0.69 (Sapag et al., 2019), in Hungary it was also 0.73 (Őri et al., 2020), and in Germany it was 0.74 (Zuaboni et al., 2021). The subscales presented an internal consistency greater than 0.60 except for secrecy/help-seeking, which is consistent with previous studies (Chang et al., 2017; Sapag et al., 2019; Zuaboni et al., 2021). Tavakol et al. (2011) have noted that subscales with few items tend to have low Cronbach's alpha values, suggesting that the secrecy/help-seeking subscale components might require a higher level of theoretical development. The internal consistency evaluation showed that all items significantly contributed to the scale. Moreover, it was observed that the elimination of any item does not produce an increase in the global value of the scale.

The results of the administration of the OMS-HC by health care providers were examined, with a general mean score of 30.80 (SD = 6.77) among the 556 participants in the sample. Given that the minimum score of the scale is fifteen points and the maximum seventy-



 five, the result is consistent with other international studies conducted in Singapore (M = 35.7, SD = 6.4) (*Chang et al., 2017*), Canada (M = 30.38, SD = 6.72) (*van der Maas et al., 2018*), and Chile (M = 34.55, SD = 7.02) (*Sapag et al., 2019*). However, while it is recommended to develop locally adapted measurements that consider cultural aspects, providing evidence of the validity of the OMS-HC in the Mexican population will allow for cross-regional comparative studies (*Yang et al., 2007; Yang et al., 2014*). Overall, the findings suggest that stigmatizing attitudes among health care providers in the sample are comparable to those in other settings. Therefore, future research should explore the similarities and differences in these attitudes across different cultures and sociodemographic factors to identify additional variables that could be associated with stigma.

The comparison of the means of the OMS-HC with sociodemographic characteristics found no significant relationships between stigmatization levels and age or gender variables. This is consistent with previous research using the same scale (*Chang et al., 2017; Destrebecq et al., 2017; Sapag et al., 2019*), suggesting that these variables alone do not seem to be related to stigma. However, these variables may be related to other conditions such as education, personal experience, and mental health literacy. No significant differences were found in this sample regarding the relationship between stigma and occupation (student, professional, or both). This finding would seem to reinforce the results of previous studies by *Kopera et al.* (2015) and *Carrara et al.* (2019), suggesting that everyday contact does not necessarily modify negative attitudes toward those with mental health disorders. Although professionals have more frequent contact with these individuals than students, the quality of social interactions may be negatively impacted by factors such as organizational culture, structural stigma, and work overload, as suggested by *Henderson et al.* (2014) Therefore, it is essential to consider how these external conditions may influence the stigma reduction process.

On the other hand, the results of this study indicate that the type of health discipline has a certain effect on stigma levels. Specifically, nursing, and medical groups had higher stigmatization scores than clinical psychology staff, which is consistent with other studies (Chang et 2017; Sapag et al., 2019). Lauber et al. (2006) suggest that professional background may have a slight influence on perpetuating negative stereotypes, whereas Cleary et al. (2009) note that differences in stigmatization levels may be due to variations in the role and responsibilities of health care providers in treating individuals with mental health disorders, such as familiarity with the recovery process, the importance of therapeutic rises, symptom management, and the causes of mental illness.

An association was found between educational attainment and stigmatization. Although the effect size is moderate, it was observed that the level of stigma decreases as educational attainment increases. This trend was also observed in the student subsample, with stigma scores being lower in later than early semesters, where a medium effect was observed. According to *Evans-Lacko et al.* (2010), the presence of certain types of knowledge could contribute to the reduction of stigmatization, especially those associated with symptom recognition and the





diversity of effective treatments. This could also be related to a higher level of experience and quality of contact during clinical practice (*Henderson et al.*, 2014).

The findings of the present study point to the need to create specially designed interventions to reduce the stigmatization of mental illness by health care providers at various levels of care. Attitudinal factors, particularly those related to social contact, are one of the main components for the reduction of stigmatization in this group (*Stuber et al.*, 2014). It is therefore necessary to study its effects on and between different contexts.

Limitations of the study

First, it is important to note that convenience non-probability sampling was used, which limits the generalization of the findings to other population groups. Therefore, it is essential to realize criteria validity studies with other stigmatization scales, including scales of mental health literacy and discrimination intentions. Secondly, stigma-related issues can generate biases due to social desirability, which could have led to low scores on the OMS-HC. However, this limitation can be mitigated by the self-report format in which the questionnaires were administered, in addition to the confidentiality measures that allowed participants to respond anonymously. Thirdly, it should be pointed out that certain contact-related variables, such as regular experience with mental health patients or having had a mental health problem themselves or with a family member, could be determinants for the development of certain stigmatizing attitudes. However, these variables were not included in the study and could be considered in future research for a better understanding of the stigma and discrimination phenomenon in this context.

Conclusions

The OMS-HC scale is a valid and reliable tool for measuring the stigmatization of mental illness among healthcare providers. The Spanish adaptation of the OMS-HC scale will enable cross-cultural and cross-disciplinary comparisons, as well as evaluate the effectiveness of interventions designed to reduce stigmatizing attitudes. The findings of this study reveal the presence of stigmatizing attitudes in the Mexican population. Therefore, targeted interventions in the healthcare sector at different levels of care are necessary to address this issue. As health care providers are often the first point of contact for individuals with mental health disorders, urgent research on stigmatizing attitudes toward mental health among healthcare providers in Latin America is needed.

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Data Availability

- 379 The following information was supplied regarding data availability:
- 380 Data is available in the Supplementary Files.

381

382 383

Supplemental Information

- 384 S1 File. Opening Minds Stigma Scale for Health Care Providers (OMS-HC) Adapted Version in
- 385 Spanish. (PDF)
- 386 S2 File. Raw data.

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Figure 1

Figure 1. The adaptation process of the OMS-HC scale to the Spanish version.

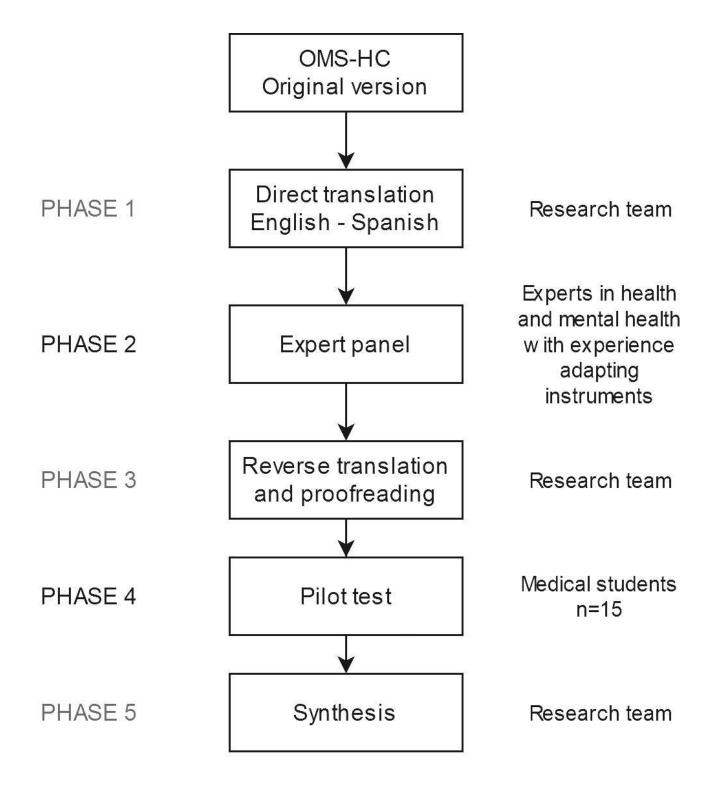




Figure 2

Figure 2. Factorial solution of the OMS-HC.

AT = Attitudes of health personnel toward people with mental illness; DH = Disclosure/help-seeking; SD = Social Distance. Item numbers refer to the version adapted by Modgil et al. (2014).

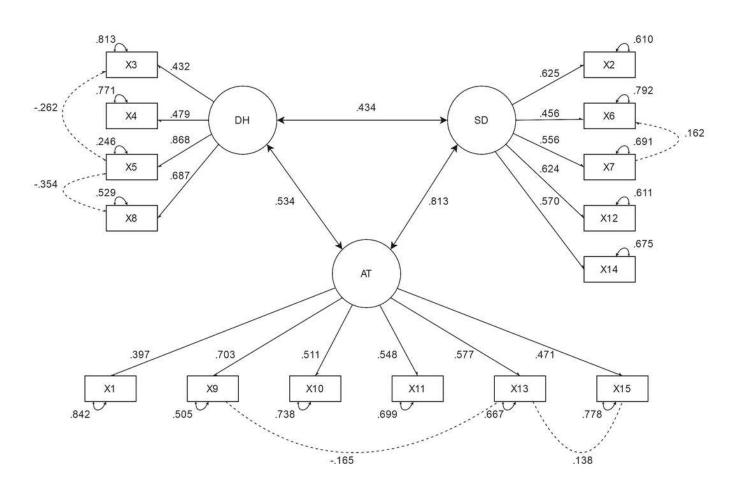




Table 1(on next page)

Table 1. Sociodemographic characteristics of sample.



1 **Table 1.** Sociodemographic characteristics of sample.

Characteristic	n = 556	%
Age		
(Years)	18–72	
(Mean)	29.7	
Gender		
Female	447	80.4
Male	109	19.6
Discipline		
Medicine	328	59
Nursing	113	20.3
Clinical psychology	71	12.8
Others	44	7.9
Educational attainment		
Technical education	23	4.1
Bachelor's degree	442	79.5
Master's degree	81	14.6
Doctoral degree	10	1.8
Occupation		
Student	246	44.2
Professional	224	40.3
Both	86	15.5
Current academic semeste	er ^a	
1°-4° semester	17	5.1
5°-6° semester	44	13.2
7°-8° semester	58	17.4
9°-10° semester	40	12
Social service	57	17.1
Specialization	78	23.4
Graduate program	38	11.4

Note. ^aOnly "student" and "both" categories were included (n = 332).

3



Table 2(on next page)

Table 2. Internal consistency analysis and item correlation of the OMS-HC scale.



1 Table 2. Internal consistency analysis and item correlation of the OMS-HC scale.

Item Number	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Item 1	0.35	0.72
Item 2i	0.41	0.72
Item 3	0.23	0.73
Item 4	0.34	0.72
Item 5	0.37	0.72
Item 6i	0.31	0.73
Item 7i	0.48	0.71
Item 8i	0.37	0.72
Item 9	0.57	0.70
Item 10	0.40	0.72
Item 11	0.43	0.72
Item 12	0.52	0.71
Item 13	0.43	0.72
Item 14i	0.35	0.72
Item 15	0.37	0.72

Notes. Item numbers refer to the version adapted by Modgil et al. (2014). "i" refers to items that

³ have been reverse coded for scoring.



Table 3(on next page)

Table 3. Means and standard deviations of the OMS-HC scale.



1 **Table 3.** Means and standard deviations of the OMS-HC scale.

Item	M	SD
Attitudes of health care providers toward people with mental illness	11.60	3.28
1. I am more comfortable helping a person who has a physical illness than I am		1.07
helping a person who has a mental illness.		
9. Despite my professional beliefs, I have negative reactions towards people who	1.87	0.91
have mental illness.		
10. There is little I can do to help people with mental illness.	1.83	0.99
11. More than half of people with mental illness don't try hard enough to get	1.86	0.88
better.		
13. Health care providers do not need to be advocates for people with mental	1.73	0.89
illness.		
15. I struggle to feel compassion for a person with a mental illness.	1.77	0.88
Disclosure/help-seeking	9.33	2.75
3. If I were under treatment for a mental illness, I would not disclose this to any	3.07	1.17
of my colleagues.		
4. I would see myself as weak if I had a mental illness and could not fix it myself.	2.54	1.25
5. I would be reluctant to seek help if I had a mental illness.	1.56 2.16	0.86
8i. If I had a mental illness, I would tell my friends.		1.01
Social Distance	9.86	3.05
2i. If a colleague with whom I work told me they had a managed mental illness,	1.69	0.90
I would be as willing to work with him/her.		
6i. Employers should hire a person with a managed mental illness if he/she is	1.78	0.92
the best person for the job.		
7i. I would still go to a physician if I knew that the physician had been treated	2.13	0.98
for a mental illness.		
12. I would not want a person with a mental illness, even if it were appropriately	2.34	1.06
managed, to work with children.		
14i. I would not mind if a person with a mental illness lived next door to me.	1.93	1.05
OMS-HC total	30.80	6.77

Notes. Item numbers refer to the version adapted by Modgil et al. (2014). "i" refers to items that

5 scale.

6

³ have been reverse coded for scoring. Text presented here is the original English text.

⁴ Participants answered the items in Spanish from the cross-culturally adapted version of the



Table 4(on next page)

Table 4. Sociodemographic variables and their relationship with the OMS-HC



1 **Table 4.** Sociodemographic variables and their relationship with the OMS-HC

Variables	M	SD	F	df	p-value	ES
Gender						
Female	30.81	6.91	2.678	1,554	0.897	0.014
Male	30.72	6.20				
Discipline						
Medicine	30.62	6.82	7.687	3,552	<0.01**	0.200
Nursing	32.61	6.64				
Clinical psychology	27.95	5.77				
Others	32.04	6.76				
Educational attainment						
Technical education	33.95	6.36	3.390	3,552	0.018*	0.134
Bachelor's degree	30.95	6.78				
Master's degree	29.25	6.63				
Doctoral degree	29.10	5.93				
Occupation						
Student	30.22	6.59	1.601	2,553	0.203	0.075
Professional	31.25	6.84				
Both	31.26	7.07				
Current academic semester ^a						
1°-4° semester	32.64	6.48	5.747	6,325	<0.001**	0.309
5°-6° semester	34.09	5.25				
7°-8° semester	30.68	6.51				
9°-10° semester	27.80	6.68				
Social service	30.19	6.10				
Specialization	31.14	7.43				
Graduate program	27.02	5.58				

² Notes. aOnly "student" and "both" categories were included (n = 332). *The correlation is

³ significant at the 0.05 level (bilateral). **The correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

^{4 (}bilateral). Results were confirmed by the nonparametric Mann-Whitney and Kruskal-Wallis U

⁵ tests.