



Deposited via The University of Leeds.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper:

<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/id/eprint/184440/>

Version: Accepted Version

---

**Article:**

Liu, Q, Liu, Z, Lin, S et al. (2022) Perceived accessibility and mental health consequences of COVID-19 containment policies. *Journal of Transport and Health*, 25. 101354. p. 101354. ISSN: 2214-1405

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jth.2022.101354>

---

© 2022 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved. This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>.

**Reuse**

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs (CC BY-NC-ND) licence. This licence only allows you to download this work and share it with others as long as you credit the authors, but you can't change the article in any way or use it commercially. More information and the full terms of the licence here: <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/>

**Takedown**

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing [eprints@whiterose.ac.uk](mailto:eprints@whiterose.ac.uk) including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.

1 Perceived Accessibility and Mental Health Consequences of COVID-19 Containment Policies:  
2 The Case of Kunming, China

3 Qiyang Liu<sup>1</sup>, Zhengying Liu<sup>1</sup>, Siyi Lin<sup>2</sup>, Pengjun Zhao<sup>1,3\*</sup>

4 <sup>1</sup> School of Urban Planning and Design, Peking University Shenzhen Graduate School, China

5 <sup>2</sup> Institute for Transport Studies, University of Leeds, United Kingdom

6 <sup>3</sup> College of Urban and Environmental Sciences, Peking University, China

7 **Abstract**

8 **Background:** Individuals have experienced various degrees of accessibility impact during the COVID-19  
9 pandemic, which may consequently have influenced their mental health. Although efforts have been made  
10 to understand the mental health consequences of COVID-19 containment measures, the impacts of  
11 accessibility remain underexplored.

12 **Methods:** Based on 186 family interviews, a 569-respondent panel survey was designed and distributed  
13 monthly from February to October 2020 in Kunming, China. A 3-wave cross-lagged panel model was  
14 developed to understand the causal relationship between mental health and perceived accessibility of daily  
15 necessities, key services, and social activities.

16 **Results:** Goodness-of-fit indicators imply that the hypothesised model fits the observed data well:  $\chi^2/df =$   
17 2.221, AGFI = 0.910, NFI = 0.907, CFI = 0.933, RMSEA = 0.052. The results indicate that perceived  
18 accessibility of daily necessities and social activities had lagged effects on mental health status. The within-  
19 wave effects show that perceived accessibility of daily necessities (0.619,  $p < 0.01$ ) and social activities  
20 (0.545,  $p < 0.01$ ) significantly influenced respondents' mental health during the peak of the pandemic whilst  
21 perceived accessibility of social activities dominantly influenced their mental health after restrictions were  
22 lifted (0.779,  $p < 0.01$ ). Perceived accessibility of public services such as healthcare did not significantly  
23 influence respondents' mental health in any wave. COVID-19 containment policies had different mental  
24 outcomes across population groups. Disadvantaged people experienced mental health issues due to  
25 accessibility of daily necessities and social activities until the lifting of compulsory QR-code-for-buses,  
26 whilst better-off populations had better mental health during the early phase of the outbreak and rapidly  
27 recovered their mental health after mobility restrictions eased.

28 **Conclusion:** Reduced perceived accessibility of daily necessities and social activities may be an underlying  
29 cause of mental health problems. Relative accessibility deprivation exacerbated mental health inequities  
30 during the COVID-19 pandemic.

31 **Keywords:** Perceived accessibility, mental health, inequity, COVID-19.

32

33 **1. Introduction**

34 The impact of the unprecedented COVID-19 pandemic has been momentous. By mid-July 2021,  
35 there were more than 190 million confirmed cases across 220 countries and territories, causing more than  
36 four million deaths. Since the novel coronavirus emerged in early December 2019 and swept across China  
37 in the following month, various interventions restricting human mobility have been implemented nationwide  
38 (e.g., Zhou et al., 2020). Due to the containment effect of these measures, work resumed in early March.  
39 After the tide of COVID-19 ebbs, there will be a reef of individuals and households changed by  
40 psychological trauma and social fragmentation from which it may take years to recover. As van Hoof (2020)  
41 wrote, “(COVID-19 containment policy) is arguably the largest psychological experiment ever conducted.”  
42 Despite highly praised containment effects (e.g., Chinazzi et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2020), the results of this  
43 experiment are just beginning to come to light.

44 WHO has expressed concerns about the mental health consequences of the pandemic in several  
45 documents (e.g., WHO, 2020). An increase in mental illnesses has been observed across the world (e.g.,  
46 Kola et al., 2021; Serafini et al., 2020). Furthermore, there have been mental health inequities, as socially  
47 disadvantaged populations have had worse mental health outcomes (e.g., Huang & Zhao, 2021; O’Connor  
48 et al., 2021). Although many countries rapidly developed COVID-19 mental health action plans (e.g., Li et  
49 al., 2020), their effectiveness in low- and middle-income countries such as China is questionable because  
50 they lack well-established mental healthcare systems, and such resources are extremely limited and unevenly  
51 distributed (Dong & Bouey, 2020). Therefore, factors such as accessibility recovery may play more crucial  
52 roles in mental health rehabilitation in these circumstances.

53 Beyond the mental health consequences of the pandemic itself, the impacts of containment policies  
54 that restricted mobility could be more far-reaching (Cusack, 2021; Dam et al., 2020; Musselwhite et al., 2021;  
55 Pfefferbaum & North, 2020). The mental health effects of this mobility reduction have been mainly  
56 considered from two perspectives: (a) mobility restrictions resulted in decreases in physical activities,  
57 particularly in low-income communities, exacerbating existing health inequities (Cortinez-O’Ryan, 2020);  
58 and (b) mobility reduction may influence people’s access to public services (Steptoe & di Gessa, 2021). Our  
59 previous study exploring the mobility issues of senior citizens during the COVID-19 peak revealed that  
60 people were forced to remain mobile to acquire daily necessities and to keep a sense of social belonging (Liu  
61 et al., 2021b). Although many researchers have investigated the mental health impacts of containment  
62 policies such as lockdown measures and quarantines, how such mobility restrictions influence mental health  
63 is still unexplored. In this paper, we argue that *containment policies influenced people’s mental health via*  
64 *accessibility loss and mental health inequity was aggravated where relative accessibility deprivation*  
65 *occurred.*

66 Since objectively measured accessibility cannot reflect perceptions of the ease with which  
67 something is reached (e.g., Lättman et al., 2016, 2018, 2020) and mental health concerns are more about  
68 subjective feelings, perceived accessibility was used in this study. We used a generalised definition of  
69 perceived accessibility—the ease with which particular things and activities (i.e., daily necessities, key  
70 public services, and social activities) essential to living a satisfactory life can be reached (see Liu et al.,  
71 2021a). Perceived accessibility was disaggregated into three outcomes, which allowed us to investigate  
72 further the most important activities for mental health outcomes at different stages of the pandemic. To bridge  
73 the gap in the causal relationships between perceived accessibilities and mental health outcomes, a monthly  
74 survey from February to October 2020 in Kunming, China was used to develop a cross-lagged panel model.

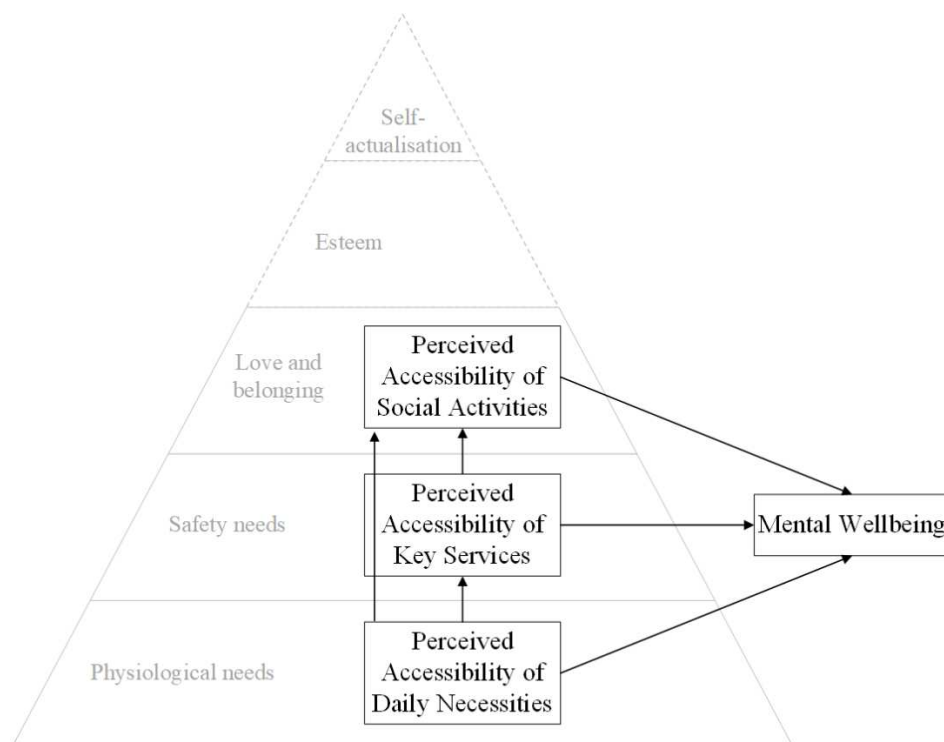
75 Thus, this paper (a) identifies the causal relationship between perceived accessibility and self-  
76 reported mental health status; (b) explains how (the lifting of) containment policies has brought about mental

77 health inequities; and (c) scrutinises the role of perceived accessibility in the three specific mental health  
78 outcomes in three phases of the pandemic.

79 Subsequent sections are organised as follows: Section 2 presents the conceptual framework and  
80 hypotheses; Section 3 introduces the methodology, including survey design and data and the analytical  
81 approach; and empirical results are presented in Section 4 and discussed and concluded in Section 5.

## 82 2. Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses

83 As Figure 1 shows, the basic theory underlying this conceptual framework is that unmet needs  
84 influence mental health (e.g., Henwood et al., 2015; Lester et al., 1983) and that mobility is crucial for  
85 fulfilling human needs not only by getting to destinations where activities were undertaken, but also due to  
86 its own affective and emotive associations (Musselwhite et al., 2015). Nordbakke and Schwanen (2014)  
87 discussed the theoretical underpinning of the relationship between mobility and different dimensions of  
88 needs. Since they focused more on physical access to out-of-home activities, they found that unmet activity  
89 needs cannot be fully explained by transport-related factors. This is partly because activities fulfilling various  
90 needs can be accessed without travelling either in home or via the increasingly adopted online participation  
91 (e.g., Ang & Chen, 2019; Varghese & Jana, 2019). It was especially noticeable during the early phase of  
92 COVID-19 that most activities had to be accessed without going out. However, the linkage between unmet  
93 needs and mental health in the transport arena was mostly built upon reduced mobility (e.g., Burdett et al.,  
94 2021; Devaraj & Patel, 2021; Park & Kim, 2021), whilst needs fulfilled by other means were not considered.  
95 This can be problematic in the context of COVID-19 because the way people access certain activities is  
96 always a mixture of physical and virtual and it greatly depends on the local pandemic severity and the  
97 containment interventions. Therefore, in this study we use the generalised notion of perceived accessibility  
98 (Liu et al., 2021a), which blurs the distinction between physical and virtual accessibility and only considers  
99 the outcome of the needs it is actually fulfilling. So, in this conceptual framework, different dimensions of  
100 perceived accessibility are directly linked to mental health.



101

103 Perceived accessibility has increasingly been a research focus of the accessibility literature (e.g.,  
104 Friman et al., 2020; Yasumoto et al., 2020) not only because conventional measurements of accessibility  
105 have overlooked people's feeling, experiences, and perceptions, which vary (Curl et al., 2011), but also  
106 because perceived accessibility may lead to conflicting conclusions on objectively measuring accessibility  
107 (Lättman et al., 2018). As the aim of this study is to investigate the mental health consequences of COVID-  
108 19 and its containment interventions, measuring physical distance or travel time to valued destinations could  
109 be especially problematic because, for example, daily necessities that fulfil physiological needs are widely  
110 accessible in urban areas without travelling (e.g., Zanetta et al., 2021). Practically, it is difficult to capture  
111 the mixture of physical and virtual accessibility, which has been changing irregularly during COVID-19.  
112 Moreover, perceived accessibility is apparently more suitable for a study concerning mental health  
113 consequences because the notion itself reflects the ease with which activities fulfilling different needs can  
114 be reached by other means than objectively measured physical accessibility (Lättman et al., 2019).

115 Different dimensions of perceived accessibility draw on Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of human needs,  
116 namely physiological, safety, love and belonging, esteem, and self-actualisation. The theory suggests that  
117 needs higher up in the hierarchy can only be attended to when needs lower down are adequately fulfilled,  
118 and that once basic needs (physiological and safety) are met, social needs become more prominent (Maslow,  
119 1968). Hagerty and Williams (2020) suggested that the mental health consequences of COVID-19 are closely  
120 related to needs for love and belonging, but less directly associated with esteem and self-actualisation needs.  
121 Also, according to the results of our exploratory qualitative study with 186 families (519 residents) during  
122 the peak of COVID-19 (Liu, 2021; Liu et al., 2021b), the fulfilment of physiological and love and belonging  
123 needs was considerably threatened due to the reduced accessibility of food and other daily necessities and  
124 the lack of opportunities to interact with other people. However, few were concerned about key elements of  
125 esteem and self-actualisation needs such as achievement, the desire for reputation, and self-fulfilment.  
126 Therefore, we posit three perceived accessibility factors corresponding to three lower-level needs in the  
127 conceptual framework. The remainder of this section clarifies each causal relationship between perceived  
128 accessibility factors and mental health.

129 The perceived accessibility of daily necessities corresponds to Maslow's physiological needs.  
130 Previous studies revealed that citizens, especially disadvantaged populations, faced difficulties in acquiring  
131 daily necessities such as food, facemasks, and medicines early in the pandemic (Liu, 2021; Liu et al., 2021a,  
132 2021b). Lacking access to satisfactory food matches the widely reported COVID-related food insecurity in  
133 the literature (e.g., Mishra & Rampal, 2020) and it is clear that insecure access to food is associated with  
134 mental health issues (e.g., Melchior et al., 2009; Nagata et al., 2019). Since older and less technology-savvy  
135 people usually acquire food from wet and informal markets, which were widely closed in the first few weeks  
136 of the outbreak and have been practically demonised by both the media and academics (e.g., Petrikova et al.,  
137 2020), they must acquire food from community grocery stores, which they generally consider low quality,  
138 unsafe, and expensive (Liu, 2021). Consequently, a lack of accessibility of satisfactory food may lead to  
139 mental health consequences. Facemasks may provide a sense of self-protection, thereby improving mental  
140 health (Cotrin et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020) due to the publicity on the efficacy of facemasks and  
141 containment policies that require compulsory facemask wearing in public spaces (see Gill, 2020).

142 **Hypothesis 1:** perceived accessibility of daily necessities has a positive lagged effect on people's mental  
143 health status (and vice versa: **Hypothesis 4**).

144 The perceived accessibility of public services corresponds to safety needs. Although the  
145 accessibility of public services such as healthcare did not appear to be a major concern in our qualitative  
146 study, access to healthcare is an important factor with possible mental health consequences (e.g., Masters et  
147 al., 2021; Wang et al., 2020). Furthermore, Maslow’s safety needs are closely related to access to public  
148 services such as healthcare, school and social welfare. Hence, we also investigate the relationship between  
149 perceived accessibility of key public services and self-reported mental health.

150 **Hypothesis 2:** perceived accessibility of key public services has a positive lagged effect on people’s mental  
151 health status (and vice versa: **Hypothesis 5**).

152 Perceived accessibility of social activities corresponds to Maslow’s love and belonging needs. Our  
153 qualitative research suggested that lack of opportunities to engage with society by participating in social  
154 activities was the major reason for people’s resistance to and antipathy towards mobility restrictions during  
155 the early phase of COVID-19 (Liu, 2021; Liu et al., 2021b). People who could effectively interact with others  
156 complained much less about containment policies and mentioned mental health issues such as loneliness,  
157 depression, and anxiety less. This is in line with previous studies indicating the important mental health  
158 effects of social activities (e.g., Cohen et al., 2006; Mackenzie & Abdulrazaq, 2021).

159 **Hypothesis 3:** perceived accessibility of social activities has a positive lagged effect on people’s mental  
160 health status (and vice versa: **Hypothesis 6**).

161 Hypotheses concerning the relationships of perceived accessibility of daily necessities, perceived  
162 accessibility of key public services, and perceived accessibility of social activities with self-reported mental  
163 health status within the same wave also address the hierarchical structure of perceived accessibility of  
164 activities corresponding to different levels of human needs.

### 165 **3. Data and Analytical Approach**

166 A mixed-methods approach was adopted to enable us qualitatively to understand the complex nature  
167 of the social impacts of containment interventions and quantitatively to investigate the impacts of perceived  
168 accessibility on mental health status during the COVID-19 outbreak in China. Qualitative data were first  
169 used to explore the consequences of COVID-19 and its containment policies (partly reported in Liu et al.,  
170 2021). They then informed the design of a monthly survey to test the hypotheses. For brevity, this paper  
171 mainly reports quantitative results on perceived accessibility and mental health issues. The results of  
172 qualitative analyses are reported elsewhere (Liu, 2021; Liu et al., 2021b), and hence are only used to interpret  
173 quantitative results in this paper.

#### 174 *3.1 Survey Design and Data*

175 To test the hypothesised causal relationship between perceived accessibility and mental health status,  
176 three to five quotes from family interview participants that tied in with each main theme were initially  
177 selected to form a 113-statement pilot survey. Among them, six items related to mental health concerns such  
178 as depression, stress, and anxiety were replaced by combining four widely used psychiatric rating  
179 instruments, including the Self-Rating Anxiety Scale (Zung, 1971), Centre for Epidemiological Studies-  
180 Depression Scale (Radloff, 1977), Stanford Acute Stress Reaction Questionnaire (Cardena et al., 2000), and  
181 Paranoia Scale (Fenigstein & Venable, 1992). All statement items in the questionnaire were recorded on a 6-  
182 point Likert Scale because (a) avoiding a neutral responses may effectively discourage inattentiveness, (b)  
183 neutral responses are less frequently selected to express a neutral position, often meaning “I don’t know”,  
184 which may influence the modelling results, and (c) 6-point Likert scales have higher reliability than 5-point

185 scales and it is difficult to state the degree of agreement in 8-point Likert scales (see also Liu et al., 2020).  
 186 The coding for the responses was 1 for strongly disagree, 2 for moderately disagree, 3 for slightly disagree,  
 187 4 for slightly agree, 5 for moderately agree, and 6 for strongly agree. A pilot survey involving 28 family  
 188 interview participants and 44 experts in relevant research fields was conducted to refine the statement items  
 189 in the final survey. Items were eliminated because of ambiguity or vagueness, or to increase Cronbach's  $\alpha$   
 190 values.

191 The shortened survey with 87 items was conducted monthly from February to October 2020 in  
 192 Kunming, China. Hard-copy and online questionnaires were distributed to family interview participants,  
 193 who were asked to share the link with their acquaintances via the most widely used social media app, WeChat.  
 194 This strategy was adopted because (a) it allowed us to collect data from many disadvantaged populations  
 195 such as older people who would be excluded by doing online surveys, (b) it was difficult to approach  
 196 respondents via a common random sampling procedure during the peak of the pandemic when public space  
 197 such as commercial areas and a variety of residential areas were closed to visitors, and (c) the sample  
 198 acquired by such procedure is expected to be randomised and this procedure has been widely adopted in both  
 199 the transport and public health literature (e.g., Li et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2020). We received 1,572 responses  
 200 in the first wave of data collection, which ran from February 24-28. All the following eight waves of data  
 201 collection took place in the last week of the month. A final sample of 569 individuals who had completed all  
 202 the nine waves of data collection was obtained. In the three-wave cross-lagged panel model, June was  
 203 selected as the second wave not only because it came between the lifting of travel restrictions in March and  
 204 the lifting of compulsory QR-code-for-buses use from the beginning of July to Mid-August, but also because  
 205 it was an especially interesting period considering the mental health inequities of COVID-19 containment  
 206 policies. As Figure 2 shows, the seriousness of mental health issues for the whole sample decreased more  
 207 slowly after June, whilst that of over 60-year-olds and low-income people decreased considerably faster after  
 208 June. Because uniform time intervals between observations are preferred in cross-lagged models (e.g.,  
 209 Kuiper & Ryan, 2018), we used data from October as the post-lifting of QR-code-for-buses scenario.

210 The sociodemographic characteristics of these respondents are shown and compared to the Kunming  
 211 population in Table 1 (Statistics Bureau of Kunming, 2020). The sample has more older people (27.8%,  
 212 urban Kunming: 22.2%) whilst the 46-60-year-olds are underrepresented (25.1%, urban Kunming: 35.5%).  
 213 There is no official statistic about the monthly household disposable income of different income groups, but  
 214 the average monthly household disposable income is calculated 10,492.2 CNY (disposable income per capita  
 215 of urban residents 46,289 CNY  $\times$  average household size 2.72/12 months). Although there is no statistic  
 216 about the other two employment groups, the sample obviously contains more retired people. It was difficult  
 217 to attain representative population samples for a city of 7 million permanent residents, especially during the  
 218 early phase of the pandemic when people were encouraged to stay at home. This bias in the sample is not  
 219 considered very problematic for the analysis since the study focus on analysing the effects of perceived  
 220 accessibility corresponding to different needs rather than on determining a representative pan-Kunming  
 221 response to containment interventions.

222 **Table 1. Sociodemographic Characteristics of the Final Sample**

		Frequency	Percentage	Kunming
Age	18-30	87	15.3	12.2
	31-45	181	31.8	30.1
	46-60	143	25.1	35.5
	Above 60	158	27.8	22.2
Gender	Male	276	48.5	51.2
	Female	293	51.5	48.8

Monthly household disposable income (CNY)	< 6000	167	29.3	
	6,000-9,999	171	30.0	
	10,000-19,999	166	29.2	
	> 20,000	65	11.4	
Employment status	Employed	357	62.7	65.3
	Unemployed	52	9.1	
	Retired	160	28.1	
Residential Area	Within 1st ring road	128	22.5	
	Between 1st and 2nd ring road	194	34.1	
	Between 2nd and 3rd ring road	183	32.2	
	Outside 3rd ring road	64	11.2	

### 223 3.2 Analytical Approach

224 A three-wave cross-lagged panel model is developed to test for causal relationships between  
225 people's mental health status and perceived accessibility of daily necessities, public services, and social  
226 activities in the conceptual framework (see Figure 1). Cross-lagged panel models are discrete time structural  
227 equation models (SEMs) used to analyse panel data where observations are recorded at multiple times  
228 (Kenny, 2014). Although it has received criticism (Hamaker et al., 2015; Mund & Nestler, 2019), many  
229 believe that the cross-lagged panel model is a valid technique to examine the relationships between variables  
230 over time and therefore causal influences between variables (de Haas et al., 2021; Hawkey et al., 2010;  
231 Kroesen et al., 2017). Since this study focuses on perceived accessibility and mental health status, only 27  
232 relevant items were used in this study (Table 2).

233 **Table 2. Constructs and Items**

Construct	Item	Wave 1		Wave 2		Wave 3	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Perceived accessibility of daily necessities	PADN1 – It is difficult to get the food I want	4.85	.999	3.37	1.117	1.18	.631
	PADN2 – It is difficult to get toilet paper	3.49	1.782	3.10	1.045	1.17	.589
	PADN3 – It is difficult to get facemasks	4.57	1.003	3.66	1.253	1.22	.704
	PADN4 – It is difficult to get medicines	4.78	1.059	3.52	1.308	1.41	.626
Perceived accessibility of key services	PAKS1 – I cannot visit the hospital easily	4.06	1.506	2.78	1.483	2.05	.942
	PAKS2 – I cannot visit the pharmacy easily	4.42	1.377	2.64	1.248	1.86	.705
	PAKS3 – I do not have sufficient access to the social security system	2.74	1.963	2.51	1.382	2.23	1.194
	PAKS4 – I do not have sufficient access to educational resources	4.19	1.728	2.94	1.875	1.50	.448
Perceived accessibility of social activities	PASA1 – I cannot participate in leisure activity easily	5.26	.592	2.79	1.096	1.61	.601
	PASA2 – I cannot interact with friends easily	4.56	1.262	2.14	1.412	1.38	.536
	PASA3 – I miss the cardroom	4.38	1.139	2.63	1.064	1.72	.833
	PASA4 – I cannot go out for a party if I want	5.40	.447	3.74	1.136	2.88	1.215
	PASA5 – I cannot go to the gym if I want	4.35	1.224	1.46	1.104	1.67	.838
Mental health	MW1 – I feel more nervous and anxious than usual	4.90	.602	2.42	1.125	1.49	.744
	MW2 – I feel afraid for no reason at all	4.31	1.365	2.44	1.542	1.56	.831
	MW3 – I get upset easily	5.08	.485	2.52	1.537	1.51	.975
	MW4 – I have nightmares	5.02	.569	2.43	1.326	1.45	.324
	MW5 – I feel weak and get tired easily	4.84	.891	2.69	1.458	1.55	.379
	MW6 – I feel distant from my own emotions	2.83	1.251	2.56	1.229	2.36	.937
	MW7 – I feel detached from other people	3.62	1.364	3.18	1.422	2.54	1.236
	MW8 – I am slow to respond	3.45	1.952	3.01	1.987	2.62	1.345
	MW9 – I feel a sense of timelessness	3.96	1.021	3.12	1.155	2.46	1.400
	MW10 – I can feel my heart beating fast	2.45	.893	2.15	.762	2.33	.705

MW11 – There might be negative comments being circulated about me	4.56	1.325	2.96	1.524	1.62	.426
MW12 – People deliberately try to irritate me	4.49	1.523	2.87	1.553	1.58	.334
MW13 – People are trying to make me upset	4.78	1.256	3.03	1.130	1.80	.592
MW14 – People might be hostile towards me	4.63	.758	3.16	1.319	1.68	.488

234 In the analytical approach, we first conducted an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to identify latent  
 235 variables underlying the observed items, followed by a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to test how well  
 236 measures of the constructs are consistent with the generated modal, and finally an SEM to probe the causal  
 237 relationship between perceived accessibility and people’s mental health.

238 The corrected item-total correlations were calculated to test the coherence between each item and  
 239 other items in the same construct (McCrae et al., 2011). PAKS3 was discarded because its corrected item-  
 240 total correlations in W1 and W3 (0.272 and 0.310 respectively) were lower than the acceptable value, 0.35-  
 241 0.9 (Liu et al., 2020), which indicates that the pattern of perceived accessibility of the social security system  
 242 was different from the perceived accessibility of other public services. PASA4, PASA5, and MW10 were  
 243 also discarded because of low corrected item-total correlations in all three waves. This suggests that the  
 244 perceived ease of participating in parties and visiting gyms/sport facilities was inconsistent with the  
 245 perceived accessibility of leisure activities and social interactions. After eliminating PAKS3, PASA4, PASA5,  
 246 and MW10, the corrected item-total correlations ranged from 0.408 to 0.865.

247 CFA was performed to test the within-block dimensionality of each construct. CFA is preferred over  
 248 EFA and item response technique (IRT) because EFA is more of a hypothesis-generating approach than a  
 249 test and in IRT, items are usually not used in Likert-type scales (Ziegler & Hagemann, 2015). Achieving  
 250 unidimensionality is crucial in theory development, because “the computation of a comprise score is  
 251 meaningful only if each of the measures is acceptably unidimensional” (Koufteros, 1999). There is sufficient  
 252 evidence of unidimensionality, as the loadings of items in their intended blocks ranged from 0.816 to 0.947.

253 After testing item discrimination and unidimensionality, an EFA on the 24 items was conducted to  
 254 extract latent factors. Principal axis factoring (PAF) was adopted because principal component analysis is  
 255 only useful for dimensionality reduction. Since constructs were expected to be correlated, we used the  
 256 oblique rotation method with *Oblimin*. The PAF analysis revealed a 9-factor structure for the observed items.  
 257 Factors whose eigenvalues were greater than 1 explained 74% of the variance. Items MW6-9 were eliminated  
 258 because their loadings were below the cut-off value for a significant contribution to the corresponding  
 259 construct of 0.6 (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006) and eliminating these four items significantly increased  
 260 the Cronbach’s  $\alpha$ s of mental health in all three waves. It is noteworthy that MW6-9 were selected from the  
 261 SASRQ, which implies that these items may indicate another latent variable, “self-reported stress.” However,  
 262 for simplicity, we kept it a 9-factor solution. After removing the four mental health items, all the remaining  
 263 items loaded strongly on their intended constructs. No item needed to be eliminated concerning the  
 264 possibility of a statistical artifact that was reflected by high cross-loadings (Podsakoff et al., 1997).  
 265 Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  values of latent factors ranged from 0.838 to 0.972, which indicated satisfactory construct  
 266 reliability.

267 After conducting the exploratory study, confirmatory analyses were employed to test the generated  
 268 model. The *t*-value for each loading was computed to assess the convergence validity of generated factors.  
 269 The results indicate that items that should be theoretically related are in fact related, as all items exceed the  
 270 0.05 level of significance. Item reliability was estimated by  $R^2$  values. The  $R^2$  values ranged from 0.544 to  
 271 0.891, providing evidence of acceptable item reliability.

272 We then used the software package AMOS 25 to estimate the structure model, which specified the  
 273 causal relationship between perceived accessibility of daily necessities, perceived accessibility of public

274 services, perceived accessibility of social activities, and self-reported mental health status. All three groups  
275 of goodness-of-fit measures (absolute fit indices, relative fit indices, and parsimony fit indices) were used,  
276 and here we report only the most widely used indices (Hooper et al., 2008):  $\chi^2/df = 2.221$ , GFI = 0.936, AGFI  
277 = 0.910, NFI = 0.907, CFI = 0.933, SRMR = 0.049, RMSEA = 0.052. These indices indicate a good fit for  
278 the hypothesised model.

## 279 **4. Empirical Analysis**

### 280 *4.1 Descriptive Results*

281 Descriptive analyses were performed to sketch a preliminary description of changes in respondents'  
282 mental health status and the perceived accessibility of daily necessities, public services, and social activities.  
283 The *t*-test results show that perceived accessibility of daily necessities and social activities significantly  
284 changed after the lifting of travel restrictions and compulsory QR-code-for-buses. Perceived accessibility of  
285 public services significantly increased after the lifting of travel restrictions, but the effect of lifting  
286 compulsory QR-code-for-buses was not statistically significant. This is likely an indicator of the transport-  
287 related social impacts of COVID-19 containment (see also Liu et al., 2021). Except for items that were  
288 eliminated in the exploratory study (MW6-10), items corresponding to self-reported mental health status  
289 significantly changed in W2 and W3. These results revealed a mental health rehabilitation after the  
290 coronavirus had been effectively controlled in Mainland China and the gradual lifting of travel restrictions.

291 As Table 2 shows, respondents experienced serious accessibility problems in the early phase of the  
292 pandemic. Most daily necessities and public services could not be sufficiently accessed and social needs  
293 could not be fulfilled by participating in activities at that time. As Figure 2 shows, the average mental health  
294 status of the sample recovered from a slightly negative level in W1 to a slightly positive level in W2 and a  
295 moderately positive level in W3, but the two vulnerable populations—senior citizens and low-income  
296 groups—struggled to recover their mental health.

297 As Figure 2 shows, over 60-year-olds had extremely serious mental health issues in the early phase  
298 of the pandemic. Despite their slow rehabilitation, they reported moderately serious mental health issues in  
299 June, almost 6 months after the outbreak of the pandemic. After the compulsory QR-code-for-buses started  
300 loosening at the beginning of July, there was a much faster mental health recovery in over 60-year-olds,  
301 which reached a positive level in October. There was a similar trend in the low-income group. The youngest  
302 population group showed a moderately good mental health status in February, when other groups were  
303 having serious mental health issues such as anxiety, stress, and depression. However, the mental health status  
304 of the youngest group increasingly worsened in the next 2 months and its average mental health status fell  
305 lower than that of 31-60-year-olds from April to August. This is probably because young people felt more  
306 comfortable staying at home in the first month of the pandemic. As discussed in our previous papers (Liu,  
307 2021; Liu et al., 2021b), many young respondents deemed February 2020 the nicest time, because they could  
308 effectively communicate and play with others online without worrying about their work or study and their  
309 parents' nagging. They were also easily addicted to online chatting and games. Their dependency on virtual  
310 accessibility was higher after 1 month of cyber social reality, which may negatively impact their mental  
311 health in the longer-term, especially when in-person accessibility is again needed (Liu et al., 2021a).

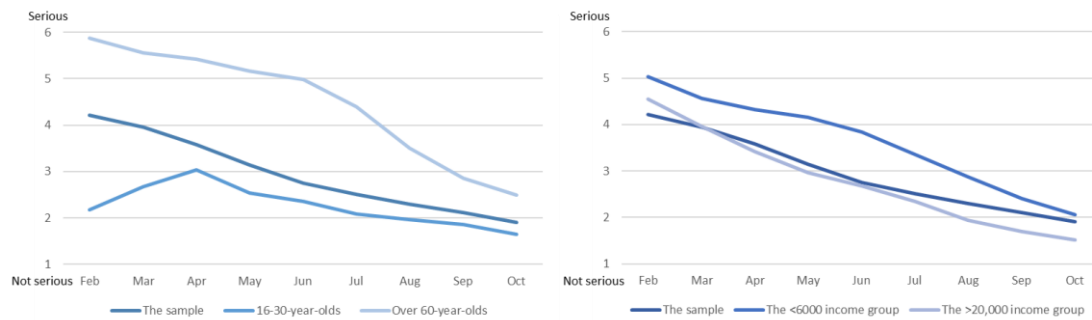


Figure 2. Changes in the seriousness of mental health issues

312  
313

314 Figure 2 shows intuitively the mental health inequity across different population groups. The mental  
315 health condition of vulnerable groups was influenced not only by the massive psychological pressure of  
316 fearing COVID-19 infection, but also by mobility restriction policies whose impacts on perceived  
317 accessibility varied across population groups.

#### 318 4.2 Modelling Results

319 To understand mental health inequities during the COVID-19 pandemic and its correlations with the  
320 perceived accessibility of three particular opportunities better, a three-wave cross-lagged panel model was  
321 employed to investigate the relationships between perceived accessibility of daily necessities, perceived  
322 accessibility of key services, perceived accessibility of social activities, and self-reported mental health  
323 conditions.

##### 324 4.2.1. Cross-lagged effects

325 Table 3 presents the cross-lagged effects of perceived accessibility of daily necessities, key services,  
326 social activities, and self-reported mental health status. The results supported the hypothesised lagged impact  
327 of perceived accessibility of daily necessities on self-reported mental health status. Respondents who  
328 reported higher levels of perceived accessibility of daily necessities during the early COVID-19 pandemic  
329 often had positive mental health status in Wave 2. After the lifting of travel restrictions, those who had easier  
330 access to daily necessities were still more mentally positive than others in Wave 3. Access to daily necessities  
331 was identified an important issue in the mental health status of isolated people during an epidemic (e.g.,  
332 Jeong et al., 2016). Due to various mobility restrictions, most citizens had difficulties in acquiring daily  
333 necessities such as food in the early stage of COVID-19 in China (e.g., Xinhuanet, 2020). However, the  
334 mental health consequences of lacking access to daily necessities have yet to be investigated. Our results  
335 suggested that accessibility of daily necessities has had long-term impacts on people's mental health.  
336 Hypothesis 1 was supported.

337 Hypothesis 2 we postulated that perceived accessibility of key public services such as healthcare  
338 would significantly influence self-reported mental health status. Quite unexpectedly, the lagged effects of  
339 perceived accessibility of self-reported mental health status were only partially supported—the Wave 2  
340 perceived accessibility of key public services did not significantly influence self-reported mental health  
341 status after the lifting of mobility restrictions and compulsory QR-code-for-buses. Also, as Table 3 shows,  
342 the impact of perceived accessibility of key public services in Wave 1 on self-reported mental health status  
343 was relatively small. Therefore, lack of perceived accessibility of key public services may not be a major  
344 cause of mental health issues. Hypothesis 2 was partially supported.

345 The impacts of perceived accessibility of social activities on self-reported mental health status were  
 346 in line with our expectation—significant lagged effects were found in both waves. This suggests that  
 347 interacting with other people and participating in leisure activities during the pandemic led to positive mental  
 348 health outcomes. As many interviewees who resisted mobility restrictions in the first few weeks of the  
 349 pandemic explained, staying at home was intolerable, because they lost all connection to society. This is  
 350 consistent with numerous studies indicating the close association between social activities and mental health  
 351 (e.g., Kawachi & Berkman, 2001). Hypothesis 3 was supported.

352 However, we found no evidence supporting the lagged effects of self-reported mental health on  
 353 perceived accessibility of daily necessities and public services. Self-reported mental health status in the first  
 354 month of COVID-19 had a significantly positive correlation with perceived accessibility of social activities  
 355 after the lifting of travel restrictions. In other words, respondents who had better mental health status during  
 356 the peak of the pandemic perceived social activities as more accessible after the ease of travel restrictions.  
 357 This shows the interconnectedness between the capability of people to access services and the accessibility  
 358 of destinations (e.g., Smith et al., 2012), and, furthermore, the results suggest that mental and emotional  
 359 wellbeing may play an important role in formulating people’s perceptions of accessibility. Hypotheses 4 and  
 360 5 were not supported. Hypothesis 6 was partially supported.

361 **Table 3. Cross-lagged Effects**

Variable		Estimate	Variable		Estimate
Wave 1 →	Wave 2		Wave 2 →	Wave 3	
PADN	MW	.514 <sup>a</sup>	PADN	MW	.327 <sup>b</sup>
PAKS		.104 <sup>b</sup>	PAKS		.019
PASA		.683 <sup>a</sup>	PASA		.408 <sup>a</sup>
MW	PADN	.157	MW	PADN	.121
	PAKS	.065		PAKS	-.032
	PASA	.251 <sup>a</sup>		PASA	.186

<sup>a</sup>  $p < 0.01$ , <sup>b</sup>  $p < 0.05$ .

362 *4.2.2. Within-wave effects between perceived accessibility of daily necessities, key public services, social*  
 363 *activities, and self-reported mental health status*

364 As Table 4 shows, initial self-reported mental health status was significantly influenced by perceived  
 365 accessibility of daily necessities and social activities. This suggests that those who struggled to acquire daily  
 366 necessities and engage with society were more likely to report mental health issues such as depression and  
 367 anxiety during the peak of COVID-19. In the first wave, access to daily necessities was the main factor  
 368 influencing mental health, revealing a public panic due to the uncertainty about whether citizens could  
 369 acquire daily necessities such as satisfactory food, facemasks, and medicines. This is corroborated by  
 370 worldwide evidence showing people’s excessive hoarding of various daily necessities in the early phase of  
 371 the pandemic (e.g., Nie et al., 2021; Sim et al., 2020).

372 Mental health status was associated with perceived accessibility of daily necessities and social  
 373 activities in Wave 2, but the effect of perceived accessibility faded with the lifting of mobility restrictions.  
 374 After the lifting of the compulsory QR-code-for-buses (Wave 3), perceived accessibility of social activities  
 375 dominantly influenced self-reported mental health status. Perceived accessibility of daily necessities was no  
 376 longer significantly correlated with self-reported mental health status after people, especially the  
 377 disadvantaged, could conveniently use public transport. This is probably because, on the one hand, the

378 outbreak of COVID-19 was successfully controlled in Yunnan Province; on the other hand, daily necessities  
 379 became accessible to most respondents after the lifting of containment interventions. This may be an  
 380 indicator of an effective COVID-19 rehabilitation, since numerous studies have identified participation in  
 381 social activities as one of the most important factors influencing mental health status (e.g., Cohen et al., 2006;  
 382 Richardson et al., 2017; Stafford et al., 2007) but the impacts of access to daily necessities on mental health  
 383 were usually not considered before the pandemic.

384 The effect of perceived accessibility of key public services on self-reported mental health status,  
 385 however, was not significant in any wave. This is unexpected, because accessibility of healthcare should by  
 386 all means provide a sense of safety and security (e.g., Fonad et al., 2006) and previous studies found that  
 387 insufficient access to healthcare was correlated with higher risk of mental health issues such as depression  
 388 and anxiety during COVID-19, especially for disadvantaged groups (e.g., Germain & Yong, 2020; Palm et  
 389 al., 2021; van Hees et al., 2020). This is probably because previous studies focused on migrants, ethnic  
 390 minorities, or people who needed treatment, but our sample consisted mainly of local residents and people  
 391 who did not need follow-up treatment. Therefore, for our respondents, visiting a hospital/pharmacy was not  
 392 an urgent need.

393 In terms of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, access to daily necessities significantly influenced  
 394 perceived accessibility of public services and social activities in the first two waves, but its impact on social  
 395 activities was not significant after the ease of compulsory QR-code-for-buses. Safety needs fulfilled by  
 396 accessibility of public services were significantly associated with belongingness and love needs in all three  
 397 waves. This suggests that perceived accessibility is essential for fulfilling fundamental human needs. These  
 398 results are in line with Maslow's (1970) refined theory that more basic needs must be somehow met prior to  
 399 higher-level needs based on particular external circumstances.

400 **Table 4. Within-Wave Effects and Effects of Sociodemographic Variables**

	Wave 1				Wave 2				Wave 3			
	PADN	PAKS	PASA	MW	PADN	PAKS	PASA	MW	PADN	PAKS	PASA	MW
PADN		.830 <sup>a</sup>	.542 <sup>a</sup>	.619 <sup>a</sup>		.714 <sup>a</sup>	.365 <sup>b</sup>	.286 <sup>a</sup>		.228 <sup>b</sup>	.153	.057
PAKS			.263 <sup>a</sup>	.124		.381 <sup>a</sup>	.577 <sup>a</sup>	.063			.309 <sup>a</sup>	.074
PASA				.545 <sup>a</sup>				.508 <sup>a</sup>				.779 <sup>a</sup>
Age	.431 <sup>a</sup>	.208 <sup>a</sup>	.516 <sup>a</sup>	.560 <sup>a</sup>	.442 <sup>a</sup>	.278 <sup>a</sup>	.509 <sup>a</sup>	.581 <sup>a</sup>	.104	.053	.288 <sup>b</sup>	.232 <sup>b</sup>
Gender	.052	.081	-.048	.095	.033	-.028	.064	-.087	.019	-.040	-.056	-.075
Income	.217 <sup>a</sup>	.089 <sup>b</sup>	.188 <sup>a</sup>	.202 <sup>a</sup>	.179 <sup>a</sup>	.083	.235 <sup>a</sup>	.247 <sup>a</sup>	.116 <sup>b</sup>	.024	.108 <sup>b</sup>	.048
Residential Area	-.144 <sup>b</sup>	-.020	-.007	.016	.015	-.004	-.039	.023	.018	-.058	.042	-.011

<sup>a</sup>  $p < 0.01$ , <sup>b</sup>  $p < 0.05$ .

401 *4.2.3. Effects of sociodemographic variables*

402 The effects of sociodemographic variables on perceived accessibility and self-reported mental  
 403 health status (Table 4) revealed notable inequities in perceived accessibility and mental health. Over 60-year-  
 404 olds were considerably more likely to experience difficulties accessing daily necessities, key public services,  
 405 and social activities, and therefore to suffer from mental health issues during the first 6 months of the  
 406 COVID-19 outbreak. Income also significantly influenced perceived accessibility of daily necessities and  
 407 mental health status in the first two waves. Even after the easing of most containment policies, over 60-year-  
 408 olds and low-income people suffered from low levels of perceived accessibility of social activities and  
 409 mental health issues. These results imply that low-income people could not effectively restore their

410 accessibility without convenient public transport. Moreover, our results suggest that contemporary COVID-  
411 19 prevention policies may still cause difficulties in participating in social activities for older people and  
412 consequently risks of mental health issues. This dreadful inequity in mental health outcomes of COVID-19  
413 containment policies is not entirely consistent with previous empirical evidence—for example, females were  
414 not found to be more vulnerable in terms of mental health outcomes during COVID-19 (for a review, see  
415 Rajkumar, 2020; Vindegaard & Benros, 2020).

## 416 **5. Summary of Findings and Discussion**

417 Increasingly, COVID-related mental health consequences have aroused academic attention (for  
418 reviews, see Kumar & Nayar, 2021; Rajkumar, 2020; Vindegaard & Benros, 2020). Although previous  
419 studies were mostly observational, factors such as inaccurate information about COVID-19 (e.g., Ornell et  
420 al., 2020), social support, and access to psychosocial services (e.g., Susilowati & Azzasyofia, 2020) have  
421 been particularly influential in developing mental health problems. However, these factors may not have  
422 enough explanatory power in the Chinese context because the spread of false information can be effectively  
423 controlled (Li et al., 2020) and mental health resources are very limited (Dong & Bouey, 2020). Due to  
424 various containment policies, people’s access to such activities fulfilling their needs has been severely  
425 affected. Therefore, in this study, we speculated that accessibility is associated with mental health during the  
426 pandemic.

427 We found that perceived accessibility of daily necessities and social activities influenced mental  
428 health status in the first 6 months of the outbreak and perceived accessibility of social activities dominantly  
429 influenced people’s mental health status after the lifting of compulsory QR-code-for-buses. Moreover,  
430 perceived accessibility of daily necessities and social activities have had long-term effects on mental health  
431 status. Although accessibility of healthcare services is perhaps the only previously investigated accessibility  
432 factor influencing mental health (e.g., Germain & Yong, 2020; van Hees et al., 2020), it did not have a  
433 significant effect on self-reported mental health in this study. This is in accordance with our qualitative results  
434 (Liu et al., 2021b) showing that most respondents perceived hospitals as extremely dangerous places where  
435 nobody should go except for life-and-death matters. Access to necessities has been conventionally  
436 considered as an issue for low-income countries (e.g., Josephson et al., 2021; Maxmen, 2020), but our results  
437 suggest that low levels of perceived accessibility of daily necessities may also have profound long-term  
438 mental health effects for countries that are much more capable of coping with such a public health crisis.  
439 Given the widely reported food safety issue (e.g., Lam et al., 2013), Chinese people were suspicious of food  
440 safety and hence perceived daily necessities as less accessible when people’s opportunities to acquire  
441 necessities reduced drastically. This may have caused mental health issues such as anxiety and paranoia. As  
442 discussed in previous papers (Liu, 2021; Liu, et al., 2021b), people who could not effectively maintain social  
443 ties by interacting with other people and participating social activities may have developed a sense of  
444 insecurity during the pandemic (for a review of the relationship between social ties and mental health, see  
445 Kawachi & Berkman, 2001). Together, our results suggest that perceived accessibility is an underlying cause  
446 of mental health issues during the pandemic.

447 Aggravated mental health inequities have been observed since the easing of mobility restrictions  
448 (see Figure 2). This is because disadvantaged people could not effectively restore the accessibility of daily  
449 necessities and social activities, whilst their better-off counterparts rapidly reclaimed their freedom of  
450 deciding “whether or not to participate in different activities” (for a definition of accessibility, see Burns,  
451 1979). After public transport became less inconvenient to use, perceived accessibility of daily necessities  
452 and social activities considerably improved (see also Hu et al., 2021), consequently alleviating mental health

453 inequities. This implies that mental health inequities during the COVID-19 pandemic were intertwined with  
454 relative perceived accessibility deprivation caused by improper containment policies.

455 The findings of this study can offer new insights into containment policymaking and non-psychiatric  
456 interventions in emerging economies that do not have well-established mental healthcare systems during  
457 COVID-19 and future epidemics. Firstly, policymakers should ensure citizens, especially disadvantaged  
458 populations, have sufficient perceived accessibility of daily necessities and social interactions when  
459 implementing mobility restrictions. Secondly, maintaining a constant supply of daily necessities is vital  
460 during pandemics. Thirdly, policymakers should prioritise disadvantaged people's needs for public transport  
461 use during the pandemic recovery phase.

462 This study has limitations. First, the sample is obviously small and mostly in the city centre, so it is  
463 unclear whether people living in rural or peripheral areas may face different difficulties in perceived  
464 accessibility and have different mental health problems. Also, we did not have factors corresponding to  
465 human needs because we did not include such statements in the questionnaire. It may be interesting to see  
466 the relationship between the perceived accessibility of different activities and human needs in future studies.  
467 Besides, perceived accessibility of work is not included in the model because our qualitative exploration and  
468 the survey started in February 2020, when most respondents were not even working remotely. Although we  
469 soon realised that perceived accessibility of work may be a very important factor in people's mental health  
470 after the first round of data collection, unfortunately, we could not modify the questionnaire.

471 Even so, this paper provides significant evidence that reduced perceived accessibility of daily  
472 necessities and social activities may have been an underlying cause of mental health problems during  
473 COVID-19 and that relative perceived accessibility deprivation can exacerbate mental health inequities.

#### 474 **Reference**

- 475 Ang, S., & Chen, T. Y. (2019). Going online to stay connected: Online social participation buffers the  
476 relationship between pain and depression. *The Journals of Gerontology: Series B*, 74(6), 1020-1031.
- 477 Burdett, A., Davillas, A., & Etheridge, B. (2021). Weather, mental health, and mobility during the first wave  
478 of the COVID-19 pandemic. *Health Economics*.
- 479 Burns, L. D. (1979). *Transportation, temporal, and spatial components of accessibility*. Lexington Books
- 480 Cardena, E., Koopman, C., Classen, C., Waelde, L. C., & Spiegel, D. (2000). Psychometric properties of the  
481 Stanford Acute Stress Reaction Questionnaire (SASRQ): A valid and reliable measure of acute stress.  
482 *Journal of traumatic stress*, 13(4), 719-734.
- 483 Chinazzi, M., Davis, J. T., Ajelli, M., Gioannini, C., Litvinova, M., Merler, S., ... & Vespignani, A. (2020).  
484 The effect of travel restrictions on the spread of the 2019 novel coronavirus (COVID-19) outbreak. *Science*,  
485 368(6489), 395-400.
- 486 Cohen, G. D., Perlstein, S., Chapline, J., Kelly, J., Firth, K. M., & Simmens, S. (2006). The impact of  
487 professionally conducted cultural programs on the physical health, mental health, and social functioning of  
488 older adults. *The Gerontologist*, 46(6), 726-734.
- 489 Cortinez-O'Ryan, A., Moran, M. R., Rios, A. P., Anza-Ramirez, C., & Slovic, A. D. (2020). Could severe  
490 mobility and park use restrictions during the COVID-19 pandemic aggravate health inequalities? Insights  
491 and challenges from Latin America. *Cadernos de Saúde Pública*, 36, e00185820.
- 492 Cotrin, P., Bahls, A. C., da Silva, D. D. O., Girão, V. M. P., Pinzan-Vercelino, C. R. M., de Oliveira, R. C.  
493 G., ... & Freitas, K. M. S. (2020). The use of Facemasks during the COVID-19 pandemic by the Brazilian  
494 population. *Journal of multidisciplinary healthcare*, 13, 1169.
- 495 Curl, A., Nelson, J. D., & Anable, J. (2011). Does accessibility planning address what matters? A review of  
496 current practice and practitioner perspectives. *Research in Transportation Business & Management*, 2, 3-11.

497 Cusack, M. (2021). Individual, social, and environmental factors associated with active transportation  
498 commuting during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Journal of Transport & Health*, 22, 101089.

499 Dam, P., Mandal, S., Mondal, R., Sadat, A., Chowdhury, S. R., & Mandal, A. K. (2020). COVID-19: Impact  
500 on transport and mental health. *Journal of Transport & Health*, 19, 100969.

501 de Haas, M., Kroesen, M., Chorus, C., Hoogendoorn-Lanser, S., & Hoogendoorn, S. (2021). E-bike user  
502 groups and substitution effects: evidence from longitudinal travel data in the Netherlands. *Transportation*,  
503 1-26.

504 Devaraj, S., & Patel, P. C. (2021). Change in psychological distress in response to changes in reduced  
505 mobility during the early 2020 COVID-19 pandemic: Evidence of modest effects from the US. *Social  
506 Science & Medicine*, 270, 113615.

507 Dong, L., & Bouey, J. (2020). Public mental health crisis during COVID-19 pandemic, China. *Emerging  
508 infectious diseases*, 26(7), 1616.

509 Fenigstein, A., & Vanable, P. A. (1992). Paranoia and self-consciousness. *Journal of personality and social  
510 psychology*, 62(1), 129.

511 Fonad, E., Wahlin, T. B. R., Heikkila, K., & Emami, A. (2006). Moving to and living in a retirement home:  
512 Focusing on elderly people's sense of safety and security. *Journal of Housing for the Elderly*, 20(3), 45-60.

513 Friman, M., Lättman, K., & Olsson, L. E. (2020). Public transport quality, safety, and perceived accessibility.  
514 *Sustainability*, 12(9), 3563.

515 Germain, S., & Yong, A. (2020). COVID-19 highlighting inequalities in access to healthcare in England: A  
516 case study of ethnic minority and migrant women. *Feminist legal studies*, 28(3), 301-310.

517 Gill, B. (2020). China's global influence: Post-COVID prospects for soft power. *The Washington Quarterly*,  
518 43(2), 97-115.

519 Hagerty, S. L., & Williams, L. M. (2020). The impact of COVID-19 on mental health: The interactive roles  
520 of brain biotypes and human connection. *Brain, Behavior, & Immunity-Health*, 5, 100078.

521 Hamaker, E. L., Kuiper, R. M., & Grasman, R. P. (2015). A critique of the cross-lagged panel model.  
522 *Psychological methods*, 20(1), 102.

523 Hawkey, L. C., Thisted, R. A., Masi, C. M., & Cacioppo, J. T. (2010). Loneliness predicts increased blood  
524 pressure: 5-year cross-lagged analyses in middle-aged and older adults. *Psychology and aging*, 25(1), 132.

525 Henwood, B. F., Derejko, K. S., Couture, J., & Padgett, D. K. (2015). Maslow and mental health recovery:  
526 A comparative study of homeless programs for adults with serious mental illness. *Administration and Policy  
527 in Mental Health and Mental Health Services Research*, 42(2), 220-228.

528 Hooper, D., Coughlan, J., & Mullen, M. (2008). Structural equation modelling: Guidelines for determining  
529 model fit. *Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, 6(1), 53-60.

530 Hu, S., Lin, P., Weng, J., & Zhou, W. (2021). The impact of emergent public health events on passengers'  
531 public transport dependence. *Journal of Transport & Health*, 22, 101109.

532 Huang, Y., & Zhao, N. (2021). Mental health burden for the public affected by the COVID-19 outbreak in  
533 China: Who will be the high-risk group?. *Psychology, health & medicine*, 26(1), 23-34.

534 Jeong, H., Yim, H. W., Song, Y. J., Ki, M., Min, J. A., Cho, J., & Chae, J. H. (2016). Mental health status of  
535 people isolated due to Middle East Respiratory Syndrome. *Epidemiology and health*, 38.

536 Josephson, A., Kilic, T., & Michler, J. D. (2021). Socioeconomic impacts of COVID-19 in low-income  
537 countries. *Nature Human Behaviour*, 5(5), 557-565.

538 Kawachi, I., & Berkman, L. F. (2001). Social ties and mental health. *Journal of Urban health*, 78(3), 458-  
539 467.

540 Kenny, D. A. (2014). *Cross-lagged panel design*. Wiley StatsRef: Statistics Reference Online.

541 Kola, L., Kohrt, B. A., Hanlon, C., Naslund, J. A., Sikander, S., Balaji, M., ... & Patel, V. (2021). COVID-  
542 19 mental health impact and responses in low-income and middle-income countries: reimagining global  
543 mental health. *The Lancet Psychiatry*.

544 Koufteros, X. A. (1999). Testing a model of pull production: a paradigm for manufacturing research using  
545 structural equation modeling. *Journal of operations Management*, 17(4), 467-488.

546 Kroesen, M., Handy, S., & Chorus, C. (2017). Do attitudes cause behavior or vice versa? An alternative  
547 conceptualization of the attitude-behavior relationship in travel behavior modeling. *Transportation Research*  
548 *Part A: Policy and Practice*, 101, 190-202.

549 Kuiper, R. M., & Ryan, O. (2018). Drawing conclusions from cross-lagged relationships: Re-considering the  
550 role of the time-interval. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 25(5), 809-823.

551 Kumar, A., & Nayar, K. R. (2021). COVID 19 and its mental health consequences. *Journal of Mental Health*.  
552 <https://doi.org/10.1080/09638237.2020.1757052>

553 Lam, H. M., Remais, J., Fung, M. C., Xu, L., & Sun, S. S. M. (2013). Food supply and food safety issues in  
554 China. *The Lancet*, 381(9882), 2044-2053.

555 Lättman, K., Friman, M., & Olsson, L. E. (2020). Restricted car-use and perceived accessibility.  
556 *Transportation research part D: transport and environment*, 78, 102213.

557 Lättman, K., Olsson, L. E., & Friman, M. (2016). Development and test of the perceived accessibility scale  
558 (PAC) in public transport. *Journal of Transport Geography*, 54, 257-263.

559 Lättman, K., Olsson, L. E., & Friman, M. (2018). A new approach to accessibility—Examining perceived  
560 accessibility in contrast to objectively measured accessibility in daily travel. *Research in Transportation*  
561 *Economics*, 69, 501-511.

562 Lättman, K., Olsson, L. E., Friman, M., & Fujii, S. (2019). Perceived accessibility, satisfaction with daily  
563 travel, and life satisfaction among the elderly. *International journal of environmental research and public*  
564 *health*, 16(22), 4498.

565 Lester, D., Hvezda, J., Sullivan, S., & Plourde, R. (1983). Maslow's hierarchy of needs and psychological  
566 health. *The Journal of General Psychology*, 109(1), 83-85.

567 Li J., Nguyen T.H.H., Coca-Stefaniak J.A. (2020). Coronavirus impacts on post-pandemic planned travel  
568 behaviours. *Annals of Tourism Research*. doi: 10.1016/j.annals.2020.102964.

569 Li, Y., Chandra, Y., & Kapucu, N. (2020). Crisis coordination and the role of social media in response to  
570 COVID-19 in Wuhan, China. *The American Review of Public Administration*, 50(6-7), 698-705.

571 Liu, Q. (2021). Immobility: Surviving the COVID-19 outbreak. In C. Zhang (Eds.), *Human Security in China*  
572 *- A Post-Pandemic State*, Palgrave, 150-171

573 Liu, Q., An, Z., Liu, Y., Ying, W., & Zhao, P. (2021a). Smartphone-based services, perceived accessibility,  
574 and transport inequity during the COVID-19 pandemic: A cross-lagged panel study. *Transportation Research*  
575 *Part D: Transport and Environment*, 97, 102941.

576 Liu, Q., Liu, Y., Zhang, C., An, Z., & Zhao, P. (2021). Elderly mobility during the COVID-19 pandemic: A  
577 qualitative exploration in Kunming, China. *Journal of Transport Geography*, 96, 103176.

578 Liu, Q., Lucas, K., & Marsden, G. (2019). Public acceptability of congestion charging in Beijing, China:  
579 How transferrable are Western ideas of public acceptability?. *International Journal of Sustainable*  
580 *Transportation*, 1-14.

581 Liu, Q., Lucas, K., Marsden, G., & Liu, Y. (2019). Egalitarianism and public perception of social inequities:  
582 A case study of Beijing congestion charge. *Transport Policy*, 74, 47-62.

583 Liu, S., Yang, L., Zhang, C., Xiang, Y. T., Liu, Z., Hu, S., & Zhang, B. (2020). Online mental health services  
584 in China during the COVID-19 outbreak. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 7(4), e17-e18.

585 Mackenzie, C. S., & Abdulrazaq, S. (2021). Social engagement mediates the relationship between  
586 participation in social activities and psychological distress among older adults. *Aging & mental health*, 25(2),  
587 299-305.

588 Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological review*, 50(4), 370.

589 Maslow, A.H. (1968). *Toward a Psychology of Being*. Van Nostrand Reinhold, New York.

590 Maslow, A. H. (1970). *Motivation and personality*. Harper and Row.

591 Masters, G. A., Asipenko, E., Bergman, A. L., Person, S. D., Brenckle, L., Simas, T. A. M., ... & Byatt, N.  
592 (2021). Impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on mental health, access to care, and health disparities in the  
593 perinatal period. *Journal of Psychiatric Research*, 137, 126-130.

594 Maxmen, A. (2020). How poorer countries are scrambling to prevent a coronavirus disaster. *Nature*,  
595 580(7802), 173-175.

596 McCrae, R. R., Kurtz, J. E., Yamagata, S., & Terracciano, A. (2011). Internal consistency, retest reliability,  
597 and their implications for personality scale validity. *Personality and social psychology review*, 15(1), 28-50.

598 Melchior, M., Caspi, A., Howard, L. M., Ambler, A. P., Bolton, H., Mountain, N., & Moffitt, T. E. (2009).  
599 Mental health context of food insecurity: a representative cohort of families with young children. *Pediatrics*,  
600 124(4), e564-e572.

601 Mishra, K., & Rampal, J. (2020). The COVID-19 pandemic and food insecurity: A viewpoint on India. *World*  
602 *Development*, 135, 105068.

603 Mund, M., & Nestler, S. (2019). Beyond the cross-lagged panel model: Next-generation statistical tools for  
604 analyzing interdependencies across the life course. *Advances in Life Course Research*, 41, 100249.

605 Musselwhite, C., Avineri, E., & Susilo, Y. (2021). Restrictions on mobility due to the coronavirus Covid19:  
606 Threats and opportunities for transport and health. *Journal of Transport & Health*.

607 Musselwhite, C., Holland, C., & Walker, I. (2015). The role of transport and mobility in the health of older  
608 people. 2(1), 1-4.

609 Nagata, J. M., Palar, K., Gooding, H. C., Garber, A. K., Whittle, H. J., Bibbins-Domingo, K., & Weiser, S.  
610 D. (2019). Food insecurity is associated with poorer mental health and sleep outcomes in young adults.  
611 *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 65(6), 805-811.

612 Nie, X., Feng, K., Wang, S., & Li, Y. (2021). Factors influencing public panic during the COVID-19  
613 pandemic. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12.

614 Nordbakke, S., & Schwanen, T. (2015). Transport, unmet activity needs and wellbeing in later life: exploring  
615 the links. *Transportation*, 42(6), 1129-1151.

616 Ornell, F., Schuch, J. B., Sordi, A. O., & Kessler, F. H. P. (2020). "Pandemic fear" and COVID-19: mental  
617 health burden and strategies. *Brazilian Journal of Psychiatry*, 42(3), 232-235.

618 O'Connor, R. C., Wetherall, K., Cleare, S., McClelland, H., Melson, A. J., Niedzwiedz, C. L., ... & Robb, K.  
619 A. (2021). Mental health and well-being during the COVID-19 pandemic: longitudinal analyses of adults in  
620 the UK COVID-19 Mental Health & Wellbeing study. *The British Journal of Psychiatry*, 218(6), 326-333.

621 Palm, M., Sturrock, S. L., Howell, N. A., Farber, S., & Widener, M. (2021). The uneven impacts of avoiding  
622 public transit on riders' access to healthcare during COVID-19. *Journal of Transport & Health*, 101112.

623 Park, J., & Kim, B. (2021). Associations of Small Business Closure and Reduced Urban Mobility with  
624 Mental Health Problems in COVID-19 Pandemic: a National Representative Sample Study. *Journal of*  
625 *Urban Health*, 98(1), 13-26.

626 Petrikova, I., Cole, J., & Farlow, A. (2020). COVID-19, wet markets, and planetary health. *The Lancet*.  
627 *Planetary Health*, 4(6), e213.

628 Pfefferbaum, B., & North, C. S. (2020). Mental health and the Covid-19 pandemic. *New England Journal of*  
629 *Medicine*, 383(6), 510-512.

630 Podsakoff, P. M., Ahearne, M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior and the  
631 quantity and quality of work group performance. *Journal of applied psychology*, 82(2), 262.

632 Radloff, L. S. (1977). The CES-D scale: A self-report depression scale for research in the general population.  
633 *Applied psychological measurement*, 1(3), 385-401.

634 Rajkumar, R. P. (2020). COVID-19 and mental health: A review of the existing literature. *Asian journal of*  
635 *psychiatry*, 52, 102066.

636 Richardson, T., Elliott, P., & Roberts, R. (2017). Relationship between loneliness and mental health in  
637 students. *Journal of Public Mental Health*, 16 (2), 48-54.

638 Serafini, G., Parmigiani, B., Amerio, A., Aguglia, A., Sher, L., & Amore, M. (2020). The psychological  
639 impact of COVID-19 on the mental health in the general population. *QJM: An International Journal of*  
640 *Medicine*, 113(8), 531-537.

641 Sim, K., Chua, H. C., Vieta, E., & Fernandez, G. (2020). The anatomy of panic buying related to the current  
642 COVID-19 pandemic. *Psychiatry Research*, 288, 113015.

643 Smith, N., Hirsch, D., & Davis, A. (2012). Accessibility and capability: the minimum transport needs and  
644 costs of rural households. *Journal of Transport Geography*, 21, 93-101.

645 Stafford, M., Chandola, T., & Marmot, M. (2007). Association between fear of crime and mental health and  
646 physical functioning. *American journal of public health*, 97(11), 2076-2081.

647 Statistics Bureau of Kunming. (2020). Kunming Statistical Yearbook. Retrieved from  
648 <http://tjj.km.gov.cn/2020tjnj/indexch.htm> (in Chinese).

649 Steptoe, A., & Di Gessa, G. (2021). Mental health and social interactions of older people with physical  
650 disabilities in England during the COVID-19 pandemic: a longitudinal cohort study. *The Lancet Public*  
651 *Health*.

652 Susilowati, E., & Azzasyofia, M. (2020). The parents stress level in facing children study from home in the  
653 early of covid-19 pandemic in Indonesia. *International journal of science and society*, 2(3), 1-12.

654 Vainshelboim, B. (2021). Facemasks in the COVID-19 era: A health hypothesis. *Medical Hypotheses*, 146,  
655 110411.

656 Van Hees, S., Fodjo, J. N. S., Wijtvliet, V., Van den Bergh, R., de Moura Villela, E. F., da Silva, C. F., ... &  
657 Colebunders, R. (2020). Access to healthcare and prevalence of anxiety and depression in persons with  
658 epilepsy during the COVID-19 pandemic: a multicountry online survey. *Epilepsy & Behavior*, 112, 107350.

659 Van Hoof, E. (2020). Lockdown is the world's biggest psychological experiment-and we will pay the price.  
660 Retrieved 15 July 2022 via [https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2020/04/this-is-the-psychological-side-of-the-](https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2020/04/this-is-the-psychological-side-of-the-covid-19-pandemic-that-were-ignoring/)  
661 [covid-19-pandemic-that-were-ignoring/](https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2020/04/this-is-the-psychological-side-of-the-covid-19-pandemic-that-were-ignoring/)

662 Varghese, V., & Jana, A. (2019). Interrelationships between ICT, social disadvantage, and activity  
663 participation behaviour: A case of Mumbai, India. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, 125,  
664 248-267.

665 Vindegaard, N., & Benros, M. E. (2020). COVID-19 pandemic and mental health consequences: Systematic  
666 review of the current evidence. *Brain, behavior, and immunity*, 89, 531-542.

667 Wang, C., Chudzicka-Czupała, A., Grabowski, D., Pan, R., Adamus, K., Wan, X., ... & Ho, C. (2020). The  
668 association between physical and mental health and face mask use during the COVID-19 pandemic: a  
669 comparison of two countries with different views and practices. *Frontiers in psychiatry*, 11, 901.

670 Wang, Y., Pan, B., Liu, Y., Wilson, A., Ou, J., & Chen, R. (2020). Health care and mental health challenges  
671 for transgender individuals during the COVID-19 pandemic. *The Lancet Diabetes & Endocrinology*, 8(7),  
672 564-565.

673 World Health Organization. (2020). *Mental health and psychosocial considerations during the COVID-19*  
674 *outbreak*, 18 March 2020 (No. WHO/2019-nCoV/MentalHealth/2020.1). World Health Organization.

675 Worthington, R. L., & Whittaker, T. A. (2006). Scale development research: A content analysis and  
676 recommendations for best practices. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 34(6), 806–838.

677 Xinhuanet. (2021). Farmers' difficulties in selling food, citizens' difficulties in acquiring food. What should  
678 we do? Retrieved 15 July 2022 via [http://www.xinhuanet.com/comments/2020-02/17/c\\_1125584103.htm](http://www.xinhuanet.com/comments/2020-02/17/c_1125584103.htm)

679 Yasumoto, S., Nakaya, T., & Jones, A. P. (2020). Quantitative Environmental Equity Analysis of Perceived  
680 Accessibility to Urban Parks in Osaka Prefecture, Japan. *Applied Spatial Analysis and Policy*, 1-18.

681 Zanetta, L. D. A., Hakim, M. P., Gastaldi, G. B., Seabra, L. M. A. J., Rolim, P. M., Nascimento, L. G. P., ...  
682 & da Cunha, D. T. (2021). The use of food delivery apps during the COVID-19 pandemic in Brazil: The role  
683 of solidarity, perceived risk, and regional aspects. *Food Research International*, 149, 110671.

684 Zhou, Y., Xu, R., Hu, D., Yue, Y., Li, Q., & Xia, J. (2020). Effects of human mobility restrictions on the  
685 spread of COVID-19 in Shenzhen, China: a modelling study using mobile phone data. *The Lancet Digital*  
686 *Health*, 2(8), e417-e424.

687 Ziegler, M., & Hagemann, D. 2015. Testing the unidimensionality of items: Pitfalls and Loopholes.  
688 *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*, 31, pp. 231-237.

689 Zung, W. W. (1971). A rating instrument for anxiety disorders. *Psychosomatics: Journal of Consultation and*  
690 *Liaison Psychiatry*, 12, 371–379.