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

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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.

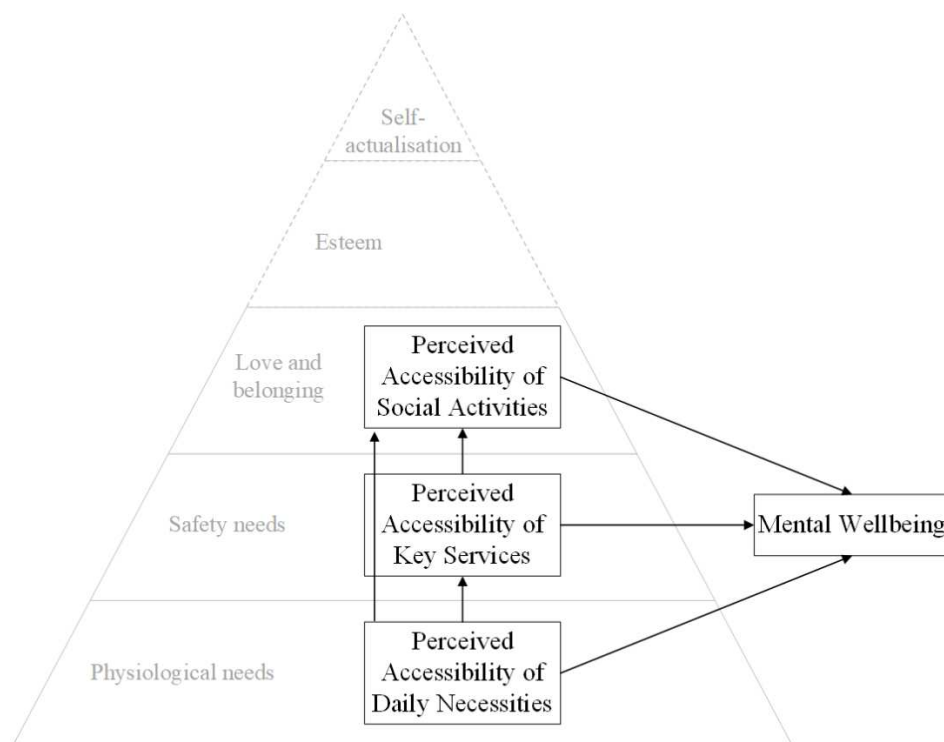
75 Thus, this paper (a) identifies the causal relationship between perceived accessibility and self-
76 reported mental health status; (b) explains how (the lifting of) containment policies has brought about mental

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 α
 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 α 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 α 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).

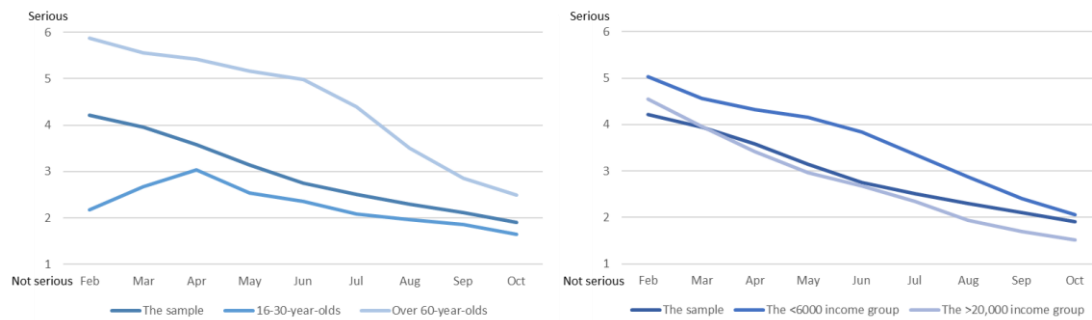


Figure 2. Changes in the seriousness of mental health issues

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 ^a	PADN	MW	.327 ^b
PAKS		.104 ^b	PAKS		.019
PASA		.683 ^a	PASA		.408 ^a
MW	PADN	.157	MW	PADN	.121
	PAKS	.065		PAKS	-.032
	PASA	.251 ^a		PASA	.186

^a $p < 0.01$, ^b $p < 0.05$.

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

^a $p < 0.01$, ^b $p < 0.05$.

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.

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