

1                   **The Covid-19 pandemic and mental health in Kazakhstan**

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14  
15  
16                   **Abstract**

17                   **Background.**

18                   The COVID-19 pandemic had significant impacts on mental health. We examined  
19 factors associated with symptoms of depression and anxiety during the COVID-19 pandemic  
20 in Kazakhstan.

21                   **Methods.**

22                   We surveyed 991 adults in Kazakhstan in July 2021 using multistage stratified  
23 sampling. Depression and anxiety were measured with the Patient Health Questionnaire – 4.  
24 We conducted logistic regression to assess associations between depression and anxiety and  
25 socio-behavioral factors.

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**26 Results.**

27 Overall, 12.01% reported depressive symptoms and 8.38% anxiety. Higher likelihood  
28 of depression was associated with being female (AOR: 1.64; 95% CI [1.05, 2.55]), experience  
29 with COVID-19 in social environment (AOR: 1.85; 95% CI [1.1-3.14]), experiencing food  
30 insecurity (AOR: 1.80; 95% CI [1.11-2.89]), increased family conflict (AOR: 2.43; 95% CI  
31 [1.32-4.48]), and impaired healthcare access (AOR: 2.41; 95% CI [1.32-4.41]). Higher  
32 likelihood of anxiety was associated with being female (AOR: 3.43; 95% CI [1.91-6.15]),  
33 increased family conflict (AOR: 2.22; 95% CI [1.11-4.44]), and impaired healthcare access  
34 (AOR: 2.63; 95% CI [1.36-5.12]).

**35 Conclusion.**

36 Multiple factors were associated with mental health in Kazakhstan during the COVID-  
37 19 pandemic. Further research is needed to determine the extent to which these factors and  
38 their associated mental health outcomes may persist.

39 **Key words:** Anxiety; COVID-19; depression; low and middle-income countries;  
40 mental health

**41 Impact statement**

42 The COVID-19 pandemic had significant impacts on mental health. Our results suggest  
43 that in Kazakhstan, women experienced higher rates of depression and anxiety than men.  
44 Rurality, limited access to healthcare services, increased family conflict, and knowing someone  
45 who died of COVID-19 were also associated with an increased likelihood of mental health  
46 symptoms. In addition, economic vulnerability, such as food insecurity, was associated with  
47 increased depression. By identifying factors associated with greater risk, policies can be  
48 developed that either mitigate these factors (e.g., limited access to health care) or their  
49 relationship to mental health (e.g., being female or living in a rural area) so as to support the  
50 mental health of the general population of Kazakhstan.

**51 Introduction**

52 The coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic is a multidimensional global  
53 public health problem. Along with effects on physical health, previous infectious disease  
54 epidemics have also had a substantial negative impact on people's mental health (Lee et al.,

55 2007; Lau et al., 2010). The COVID-19 pandemic resulted in mass disruptions globally that  
56 impacted emotional well-being and mental health, not only due to fears around COVID-19  
57 infection and mortality, but also due to social and behavioral factors, including strict lockdown  
58 and quarantine measures, disrupted work and school routines, and increased social isolation  
59 (Brooks et al., 2020; Campion et al., 2020; Kola et al., 2021). Particularly with regard to the  
60 latter, it has been believed that lockdowns made people feel lonely, irritable, restless, and  
61 anxious (Saladino, Algeri and Auriemma, 2020; Fullana et al., 2020; Gonda and Tarazi, 2022).  
62 Difficulties acquiring food and medical services, medical comorbidities, and lack of specialized  
63 treatment further resulted in a substantial mental burden that in turn caused psychological  
64 distress and mental health disorders ((De Sousa, Mohandas and Javed, 2020; Lai et al., 2020;  
65 Gillard et al., 2021; Rahman, Hasnain and Islam, 2021; Han et al., 2022).

66 Studies indicate that up to 40% of the general population experienced high levels of  
67 anxiety or distress associated with the COVID-19 pandemic and that there may be  
68 psychological and emotional trauma that would last a lifetime (Hossain et al., 2020; Jung,  
69 Kneer and Krüger, 2020; Vindegaard and Benros, 2020; Jin et al., 2021; Mauz et al., 2021;  
70 Bonati, Campi and Segre, 2022). Depression and anxiety disorders rank among the top  
71 debilitating medical conditions and have one of the highest socioeconomic impacts (GBD 2019  
72 Diseases and Injuries Collaborators, 2020; GBD 2019 Mental Disorders Collaborators, 2022).  
73 Studies in both high- and low-income countries exhibit heterogeneity in factors most associated  
74 with mental health outcomes during the COVID-19 pandemic (Kola et al., 2021; Shevlin et  
75 al., 2021; COVID-19 Mental Disorders Collaborators, 2021; Bonati, Campi and Segre, 2022).  
76 Kazakhstan is considered an upper middle-income country but has high suicide mortality rate.  
77 According to World Health Organization (WHO), the age-standardized suicide rate in  
78 Kazakhstan was 6.9 per 100 000 (WHO, 2021) and UNICEF-2013 report (UNICEF, 2013)  
79 indicates that the risk of suicides among adolescents (15-19 years) in Kazakhstan is three times  
80 higher than in the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS). Suicides are usually associated  
81 with underlying depressive conditions (Isacsson, 2000; Gotlib and Hammen, 2002).

82 Currently, there are limited data on the prevalence of depression and anxiety in  
83 Kazakhstan. According to official data posted on the website of the Republican Scientific and  
84 Practical Center of Mental Health the number of registered patients with mental and behavioral  
85 disorders was 1020.1 per 100 000 - in 2019 and 1004.0 per 100 000 – in 2020 with depressive  
86 and anxiety disorders included in these numbers (Respublikanskiy nauchno-prakticheskiy  
87 tsentr psikhicheskogo zdorov'ya, 2021). Furthermore, a WHO mental health report indicated

88 that the COVID-19 pandemic negatively affected mental health globally with an increase of  
89 28% and 26% for major depressive disorders and anxiety disorders, respectively in just one  
90 year (WHO, 2022). Important factors for mental health during the COVID-19 pandemic appear  
91 to vary based on local context, but little research has been conducted examining the impact of  
92 COVID-19 on mental health outcomes among the general population in Kazakhstan.

93 The first major lockdown in Kazakhstan occurred in March 2020, with severe  
94 restrictions on travel between cities, closure of entertainment and other venues, suspension of  
95 cultural events and large family and public gatherings, and strict quarantine rules. In the  
96 summer of 2021, when new vaccines were available and people were feeling some hope, the  
97 more contagious Delta variant became the predominant SARS-CoV-2 variant, leading to a  
98 dramatic increase in hospitalizations worldwide (Hart et al., 2022). In Kazakhstan, COVID-19  
99 cases started to rise at the end of June 2021 and reached their peak in August 2021. This was  
100 also the period with the highest number of recorded daily deaths in Kazakhstan during the  
101 entire COVID-19 pandemic. As a result, Kazakhstan implemented a second lockdown in July  
102 2021, which included reducing operating hours of businesses and entertainment venues,  
103 prohibiting in-person dining, and restricting public gatherings (UNCT, 2020; Haruna et al.,  
104 2022). These restrictions likely led to changes in health behaviors, such as physical activity,  
105 smoking and alcohol use, interpersonal relationships, such as family dynamics, and structural  
106 factors, such as income and employment and health care access, as well as increased depression  
107 and anxiety. Although there have been studies targeting specific groups and mental health in  
108 relation to or during the COVID-19 pandemic in Kazakhstan (Bazarkulova and Compton,  
109 2021; Bolatov et al., 2020; Crape, Rakshit and Yakhiyayeva, 2021; Konstantinov et al., 2022;  
110 Kamkhen et al., 2022), little is known about which specific COVID-19 related factors were  
111 associated with mental health among the general Kazakhstani population. To address this gap,  
112 we sought to examine the multi-level COVID-19 related factors associated with mental health  
113 in order to inform the country's future programmatic and policy response to this public health  
114 crisis.

115

## 116 **Methods**

### 117 *Study design*

118 We conducted a cross-sectional face-to-face survey of 1,021 participants between June  
119 26<sup>th</sup> and July 10<sup>th</sup>, 2021. Data collection was performed by the Public Opinion Research Centre.  
120 The team of the Public Opinion Research Centre is an experienced team of specialists that have  
121 worked in the field for several years. We provided training sessions via Zoom for the research  
122 assistants to ensure adherence to data collection protocols, confidentiality rules, and ethical  
123 principles of the study. Our team provided support and supervision to ensure high quality of  
124 the process of data collection. Once data were collected, we checked audio records and survey  
125 data, to ensure quality of data and excluded from the final dataset data that were incomplete of  
126 low quality. Participants were recruited using a multi-stage sampling approach. Strata were  
127 identified in the first stage, which represented the administrative regions of the country,  
128 separated into urban and rural populations. The number of respondents in each stratum  
129 corresponded to the population living there. At the second stage, the settlements where the  
130 survey would be conducted were chosen: the region's largest city and a randomly selected rural  
131 settlement. A random route sample was used to determine households in the third stage. Streets  
132 were chosen at random from a list of streets to generate random routes throughout the urban  
133 and rural settlements. The starting point of the route was chosen randomly by picking a house  
134 number on the designated street. Then, in increasing order, every third house was selected. If  
135 an apartment complex was picked for the survey, a systematic sample was employed to identify  
136 every fifth apartment in the building. In households, interviewers recruited participants  
137 applying a gender and age frequency-match approach. General population data were obtained  
138 from official 2019 census (Bureau of National statistics, 2020). Oral informed consent was  
139 obtained from all participants of the study before the start of the survey. All databases, folder  
140 and personal computers were password protected. All databases were deidentified prior to start  
141 of data cleaning and analysis. File linking identifiable information and ID numbers of  
142 participants were only available for the limited number of research assistants who were  
143 involved in data collection and principal investigator. The average time required to complete  
144 the survey was 40 to 60 minutes. Out of 1,021 respondents, 30 were dropped due to incomplete  
145 surveys. The final sample consisted of 991 adults.

#### 146 *Measures*

##### 147 *Dependent Variables – Depression and Anxiety*

148 To measure the presence of depressive and anxiety symptoms, we used the Patient  
149 Health Questionnaire-4 (PHQ-4). The PHQ-4 is an ultra-brief tool for detecting both anxiety

150 and depressive disorders (Kroenke et al., 2009). It has been used in numerous studies in several  
151 countries (Schnell and Krampe, 2020; Daly and Robinson, 2021; Zhang WR et al., 2020;  
152 Workneh et al., 2021). An elevated PHQ-4 score is not diagnostic, but is an indicator for further  
153 inquiry to establish the presence or absence of a clinical disorder warranting treatment. The  
154 PHQ-4 begins with the stem question: “Over the last 2 weeks, how often have you been  
155 bothered by the following problems?” Responses are scored as 0 (“not at all”), 1 (“several  
156 days”), 2 (“more than half the days”), or 3 (“nearly every day”). The total composite score of  
157 PHQ-4 ranges from 0 to 12, and goes from normal (0–2) to mild (3–5) to moderate (6–8) to  
158 severe (9–12) (Cronbach Alpha= 0.76). Positive screening for anxiety was defined as a score  
159 of  $\geq 3$  on the General Anxiety Disorder (GAD)-2 (which assesses ‘feeling nervous, anxious, or  
160 on edge’ and ‘not being able to stop worrying’) of the PHQ-4 (Cronbach Alpha=0.67) (Kroenke  
161 et al., 2007; Levis et al., 2020), and positive screening for depression was defined as a score of  
162  $\geq 3$  on the 2-item Depression subscale (PHQ-2) which assesses ‘feeling down, depressed, and  
163 hopeless’ and ‘little interest or pleasure in doing things’) of the PHQ-4 (Cronbach Alpha =  
164 0.61) ((Kroenke, Spitzer and Williams, 2003; Löwe, Kroenke and Gräfe, 2005; Bisby et al.,  
165 2022). PHQ-4 is a subset of the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9), which had been  
166 previously validated in Russian. In Kazakhstan, historically, population is fluent in Russian  
167 (Pogosova et al., 2014).

168

### 169 Independent Variables

170 Sociodemographic characteristics included self-reported age, gender, education, type  
171 of residence, employment status, and if they had adults older than 65 in their households.

### 172 COVID-19 related experiences and behavior

173 Participants self-reported if they thought they ever had a COVID-19 infection (yes/no).  
174 They were also asked if they knew someone who was infected with COVID-19 or had died of  
175 COVID-19 and were classified into three categories (knew someone who had died/knew  
176 someone infected, but did not die /did not know anyone who had died or was infected).

177 Likelihood of severe COVID-19 was assessed with 5-point Likert-type questions: “In  
178 your opinion, how severe would contracting COVID-19 be for you?” (1 -“very mild” to 5 -  
179 “very severe”) (Brewer et al., 2007).

180 We also asked about changes in terms of level of conflicts in the home at the time of  
181 COVID-19 pandemic using the question “During the COVID-19 pandemic, have the levels of  
182 conflict in your home” with dichotomized categories of response options: decreased or stayed  
183 the same compared to the period before the COVID-19 pandemic and Increased compared to  
184 the period before the COVID-19 pandemic.

185 Participants self-reported changes regarding their health behaviors, including smoking,  
186 alcohol use and physical activity. For example, “How has your physical activity level changed  
187 during the pandemic (i.e. from March 2020 to the present) compared to the period before the  
188 COVID-19 pandemic?” with response options: “has not changed”, “decreased”, “increased”.  
189 We then used dichotomized variables (decreased/has not changed vs. increased).

#### 190 Economic vulnerabilities and health care service access

191 We asked participants questions about their change of financial status  
192 (Deteriorated/Has not changed/Improved/Do not know) and working conditions  
193 (Deteriorated/Has not changed/Improved) during the pandemic. We also asked participants if  
194 they faced food insecurity (yes/no) during the pandemic.

195 To evaluate how changes regarding work might affect mental health, we asked if working  
196 conditions worsened (yes/no).

197 We evaluated changes in health care access and asked participants if their medical care  
198 for other non-COVID-19 illnesses changed during the COVID-19 pandemic compared to the  
199 pre-pandemic period. Responses were dichotomized for analysis: did not have problems with  
200 healthcare access (No, I have not had to use other healthcare services during the pandemic/No,  
201 my healthcare remains the same as before the pandemic/Yes – I have been offered remote  
202 appointments via telephone or video call) ; and had problems with healthcare access (Yes – I  
203 have had appointments and procedures postponed or canceled/Yes – I have been unable to  
204 make appointments for new health issues).

#### 205 **Statistical analysis**

206 Participant characteristics were described using means and standard deviations (SDs)  
207 for continuous variables and frequencies and percentages for categorical variables. The PHQ-  
208 4 score was categorized according to questions measuring depression and anxiety, indicating

209 presence or absence of depression (PHQ-2 $\geq$ 3) or anxiety symptoms (GAD-2 $\geq$ 3) (Kroenke,  
210 Spitzer and Williams, 2003; Kroenke, et al., 2007).

211 To examine which multi-level factors were associated with mental health symptoms,  
212 we conducted logistic regression analyses. First, we conducted bivariate analyses to identify  
213 potential associations with all multi-level factors we hypothesized would be associated with  
214 mental health symptoms. Then all variables that were significant for depression symptoms or  
215 anxiety symptoms at the  $p\leq 0.10$  level and were entered simultaneously into a multivariable  
216 logistic regression model (Heinze, Wallisch and Dunkler, 2018). For the final multivariable  
217 model, we used a significance level of  $p\leq 0.05$ . We checked variables for multicollinearity  
218 before including them into the model. We used SAS 9.4 for analysis.

### 219 **Ethical approvals**

220 The study was approved by the ethical committee No. 10 of the Asfendiyarov Kazakh  
221 National Medical University on September 30th, 2020.

### 222 **Role of the funding source**

223 Funded by the Science Committee of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education of  
224 the Republic of Kazakhstan № AP09260497 “The Impact of the Covid-19 Pandemic and  
225 Restrictive Measures on Lifestyles and Access to Health Care in Kazakhstan”. The funders had  
226 no role in study design; data collection, analysis, interpretation; writing; or the decision to  
227 submit the paper.

### 228 **Results**

#### 229 *Sample characteristics*

230 Table 1 summarizes socio-demographic characteristics of the study population and  
231 variables we used in our analysis. The mean age of participants was 41.1 (SD=15.00) years old  
232 and about half of the sample were women (n=524, 52.9%). The majority of participants were  
233 married (n=618, 62.4%), lived in urban areas (n=591, 59.6%), and were employed full-time  
234 (n=529, 53.4%) or part time (n=94 (9.49%)). Over a third of participants had a postgraduate  
235 degree (completed a bachelor or higher degree) (n=412, 41.6%). Less than a fifth (n=162,  
236 16.4%) lived with a person who was older than 65 years old. Over a third experienced  
237 deterioration in their financial status (n=362, 36.5%) and more than third (n=410, 41.4%)  
238 reported food insecurity during the pandemic.

#### 239 *Symptoms of anxiety and depression*



240 The mean value of the PHQ-4 score was 1.6 (SD: 2.26). Nearly a fifth of respondents  
241 n=190 (19.17%) reported at least mild mental health symptoms, 4.8% (n=48) had moderate  
242 symptoms, and 2.1% had severe symptoms (Figure 1). In the total sample, 12.0% of  
243 participants had positive screening for depression ( $\geq 3$  PHQ-2) and 8.4% of participants had  
244 positive screening for anxiety ( $\geq 3$  GAD-2).

#### 245 *COVID-19 related experiences and health behavior*

246 About one fifth of our respondents think that they had COVID-19 at least one time in  
247 their life (n=180, 18.2%). Two thirds of the sample did not know anyone who was infected  
248 with COVID-19 (n=608, 61.4%).

249 In terms of adverse behavioral changes, almost a fifth (19.9%) of the sample reported  
250 decreased physical activity (n=197). 7.4% reported increased family conflict level (n=73) and  
251 7.9% reported problems accessing healthcare (n=78). A minority (3.8%) reported increased  
252 alcohol consumption (n=38), 1.7% reported increased smoking (n=17).

253

254 **Insert Table 1**

255 **Insert Figure 1**

256 In the multivariable regression analysis, regarding depression symptoms we found that  
257 being female (AOR: 1.64; 95% CI [1.05, 2.55]), living in a rural area (AOR: 1.75; 95% CI  
258 [1.14-2.68]), perceiving greater severity of a COVID-19 infection (AOR: 1.28; 95% CI [1.00,  
259 1.63]), knowing someone who died from COVID-19 (AOR: 1.85; 95% CI [1.1-3.14]) or  
260 someone who was infected with COVID-19 (AOR: 1.90; 95% CI [1.12-3.17]), having increased  
261 conflict in the home (AOR: 2.43; 95% CI [1.32-4.48]), having food insecurity (AOR: 1.80;  
262 95% CI [1.11-2.90]), or having problems accessing health care (AOR: 2.41; 95% CI [1.32-  
263 4.41]) were associated with higher odds of having depressive symptoms (Table 2).

264 For anxiety, we found that being female (AOR: 3.43; 95% CI [1.91-6.15]), having  
265 decreased physical activity (AOR: 2.11; 95% CI [1.24-3.57]), perceiving greater severity of a  
266 COVID-19 infection (AOR: 1.45; 95% CI [1.09-1.92]), having increased conflict in the home  
267 (AOR: 2.22; 95% CI [1.11-4.44]), and having problems accessing healthcare (AOR: 2.63; 95%  
268 CI [1.36-5.12]) were associated with higher odds of having anxiety symptoms in the  
269 multivariable model (Table 2).

270 **Insert Table 2**

271 **Discussion**

272 Consistently with other studies we found that multiple factors associated with  
273 depression and anxiety symptoms among the general population of Kazakhstan during the  
274 COVID-19 pandemic, including gender, home, economic, work, and healthcare factors.  
275 Although numerous studies have shown that the COVID-19 pandemic had an adverse impact  
276 on mental health with increases in depression and anxiety, results of these studies are highly  
277 heterogeneous, suggesting each country has a unique combination of different factors that may  
278 be affecting the mental health of their population (Vindegaard and Benros, 2020; Jin et al.,  
279 2021). To our knowledge, our study is the first study to assess factors associated with mental  
280 health during the COVID-19 pandemic variant Delta wave among the general population in  
281 Kazakhstan and fills an important gap in the literature.

282 Our findings are consistent with the literature in regards to women experiencing  
283 higher rates of depression and anxiety during the pandemic (Jung, Kneer and Krüger, 2020;  
284 Xiong et al., 2020; Hou et al., 2020). Many research documented that women usually have  
285 more anxiety-mood disorder than men (Pigott, 1999; Kuehner, 2003; Seedat et al., 2009). Some  
286 studies suggest that public health measures such as lockdown worsened the pre-existing issues  
287 of vulnerable groups, including women (Kola et al., 2021). This could also be explained by a  
288 number of different factors that we were unable to assess such as biological and social factors  
289 especially in countries with high levels of gender inequality (Urbaeva, 2019; Oginni *et al.*,  
290 2021; Turusbekova et al., 2022). A systematic review conducted on 32 studies from across the  
291 globe suggested high rates of domestic violence and abuse against women during the pandemic  
292 that may have led to psychiatric distress (Kourti et al., 2023). In less extreme situations, women  
293 may experience increased burden of household chores during lockdown due to traditional roles  
294 and imbalanced distribution of household responsibilities between women and men.

295 Consistent with other studies, decreased physical activity was associated with increased  
296 depression and anxiety (Violant-Holz et al., 2020; Stanton et al., 2020; Zhang Y et al., 2020).  
297 However, we cannot conclude the direction of these associations (Rebar et al., 2015; Lesser  
298 and Nienhuis, 2020; Meyer et al., 2020). In a cross-sectional study of 3,052 US adults,  
299 individuals who decreased physical activity had stronger/higher depressive symptoms and  
300 stress compared to those who maintained adherence to physical activity. In another multi-  
301 country cross-sectional study of physical activity and mental health among adults during the  
302 initial phases of the COVID-19 pandemic, participants who reported decreases in exercise

303 behavior had worse mental health compared to those who had an increase or no change in their  
304 exercise behavior (Faulkner et al., 2021).

305 Those respondents who reported increased conflicts in family had higher odds of having  
306 symptoms of both depression and anxiety. The study among young adults aimed to understand  
307 the role of family conflict in young adult well-being found that people from families  
308 experiencing higher than usual levels of family conflict experienced more anxiety (Wang et al.,  
309 2022). In a cross-sectional study conducted by Kusnierz et al., it was suggested that work-  
310 family conflicts and family-work conflicts are related to the worsening of mental health,  
311 including high symptoms of stress, anxiety, and depression, and decreased physical health and  
312 life satisfaction (Kuśnierz et al., 2022).

313 We found that knowing someone with COVID-19 or who died from COVID-19 was  
314 associated with higher odds of reporting depressive symptoms. It is possible that those who  
315 have heard someone with severe COVID-19 infection symptoms with lethal outcomes can be  
316 more fearful of the infection and its severity. Moreover, the pandemic has changed the regular  
317 grieving process for the deceased due to the restrictions on funeral rituals and might have led  
318 to an increased anxiety and anger among the loved ones of the deceased. The fact that many  
319 deaths from COVID-19 during the pandemic occurred at the medical facilities in isolation may  
320 have worsened this situation due to the lost chance of saying farewells (Mortazavi et al., 2021).  
321 Both qualitative and quantitative literature on the subject are consistent on the psychological  
322 burden of death from COVID-19 on psychological wellbeing of the relatives and friends of the  
323 deceased (Das et al., 2021; Mohammadi et al., 2021; Mortazavi, et al., 2021; Mayland et al.,  
324 2021; Aguiar, Pinto and Duarte, 2022; Hernández-Fernández and Meneses-Falcón, 2022)).

325 Living in a rural area was associated with higher odds of having depressive symptoms,  
326 which is in contrast to some other studies in China in which anxiety and depression were higher  
327 among urban residents (Zhang et al., 2021). Higher rates of depression and anxiety among  
328 rural residents have important implications, as rural areas generally tend to have poorer access  
329 to health services, particularly for mental health (Fitzmaurice, 2021; Tulegenova et al., 2022).  
330 Moreover, the ancillary effects of efforts to contain the pandemic, including lockdown, closure  
331 of schools, reallocation of health resources can be especially long-lasting and devastating to  
332 poor and vulnerable people in countries with weak social protection systems and insufficient  
333 economic resources (Kola, et al., 2021).

334 Factors of economic vulnerability, like food insecurity, were associated with worsening  
335 of mental health and reporting symptoms of depression. A bidirectional association between  
336 food insecurity and mental health has been well described prior to the pandemic (Maynard et  
337 al., 2018). A global analysis of nationally representative surveys conducted in 149 countries  
338 found that food insecurity has a dose-response relationship with poor mental health status  
339 independent of socioeconomic and demographic characteristics (Jones, 2017). Stress levels, a  
340 potential contributor to poor mental health, have been found to increase as food insecurity  
341 deteriorates ( Rahman, Hasnain and Islam, 2021). Other studies have found that the number of  
342 households experiencing food insecurity have increased during the COVID-19 pandemic (Lim  
343 et al., 2022). Moreover, food insecure subjects were more likely to have an abnormal mental  
344 health screen compared to food secure subjects (Lim, et al., 2022).

345 Next, we found a strong association of impaired access to health care services with  
346 symptoms of depression and anxiety during the pandemic. Feeling anxious about COVID-19  
347 or depressive feelings may serve as a barrier to reach the medical care needed, while canceled  
348 appointments and restricted access to healthcare can also deteriorate one's mental wellbeing.  
349 Furthermore, some studies suggest that quarantine measures combined with restrictions in  
350 getting physical medical appointments may have exacerbated the existing mental health  
351 difficulties during the pandemic (Kola, et al., 2021; Gillard, et al., 2021). Countries with fragile  
352 healthcare systems and scarce sources struggled the most to provide equal access to adequate  
353 medical interventions ((De Sousa, Mohandas and Javed, 2020; Vigo, Thornicroft and Gureje,  
354 2020). This can also be relatable to Kazakhstani healthcare settings due to extreme shortages  
355 in healthcare capacity including personnel, equipment and medication supply during pandemic  
356 (Haruna, et al., 2022). Consequently, failed access to care needed may have added an extra  
357 burden and anxiety among the general public on top of the existing concerns over the fear of  
358 infection, financial and psychological difficulties.

359 There is a scarcity of scientific literature on the impact of limited access to healthcare on  
360 one's psychological health during the pandemic in Kazakhstan. Nevertheless, the available  
361 sources suggest that Kazakhstan had a number of challenges prior to COVID-19 such as  
362 shortage in healthcare funding, high prevalence of chronic diseases, and limited access to  
363 medical care (Haruna, et al., 2022). The emergence of the pandemic compounded the existing  
364 issues leading to an acute shortage of essential medicines and lack of hospital beds. For  
365 example, data from 2016 indicate an availability of 4.8 beds/1000 people and a healthcare  
366 workforce of about 252 000, among them 74 600 were medical doctors. However, this coverage

367 varied greatly across rural (61 physicians per 10 000 population in urban areas compared to 15  
368 physicians per 10 000 in remote areas) and urban residencies. Considering such statistics, many  
369 other countries with the similar income levels (e.g. Hungary, Poland, Turkey) outperformed  
370 Kazakhstan in terms of access to medical care prior to COVID-19. One source suggests that  
371 the depressed salary among the healthcare staff to be one of the driving reasons for having low  
372 numbers of medical personnel in the country (Kumenov, 2021). Furthermore, the attempt taken  
373 by the local government on paying extra salaries to the medical staff engaged in COVID-19  
374 care had little impact on access to care. These matters should be addressed more in future  
375 studies due to their negative impact on health outcomes.

376

### 377 **Strengths and Limitations**

378 The current study has several strengths and limitations. This is the first large-scale study  
379 that we are aware of that examined the population's mental health and its association with other  
380 characteristics in Kazakhstan during the peak of the COVID-19 pandemic. We used a multi-  
381 stage stratification sampling approach to increase the generalizability of findings. However,  
382 the likelihood of systematic selection bias influencing the accuracy of the estimations cannot  
383 be ruled out.

384 We are unable to determine the effects of COVID-19 or other factors on mental health  
385 due to the study's cross-sectional design, as longitudinal or experimental research are needed  
386 to investigate cause-effect relationships. However, our study enabled us to examine how multi-  
387 level stressors and socio-economic factors affected the mental health of a general population  
388 sample during the height of the COVID-19 pandemic, when COVID-19 cases were spreading  
389 rapidly in Kazakhstan and restrictive measures were being imposed in all regions of the  
390 country. While many studies sampled general populations during the early stages of the  
391 pandemic (March-April 2020), to our knowledge, our study is one of the few studies to  
392 investigate factors associated with depression and anxiety symptoms during the second wave  
393 of the pandemic caused by Delta variant in Kazakhstan.

### 394 **Conclusions**

395 We found a number of individual-, interpersonal-, and structural-level factors  
396 associated with mental health symptoms among a sample of the general population in  
397 Kazakhstan during the second wave of COVID-19 pandemic.

398 Our data suggests that individuals living in rural areas had disproportionately high  
399 levels of mental health symptoms. People living in rural areas can be especially vulnerable in  
400 times of crisis because of insufficient infrastructure and inadequate access to social services  
401 including health care.

402 Strong associations found between economic vulnerability factors and mental health  
403 symptoms are concerning, since those factors may persist as a result of the prolonged negative  
404 impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the economy of Kazakhstan.

405 Self-reported increased conflict in the home was associated with mental health  
406 symptoms, yet it is unclear whether conflict levels in the home have decreased since the height  
407 of the pandemic.

408 Many factors that are associated with adverse mental health outcomes have existed  
409 before the pandemic, but pandemic may have exacerbated these factors increasing negative  
410 impacted mental health of people. Given that many adverse impacts of the COVID-19  
411 pandemic continue to persist (e.g., economic problems, prolonged illness, shortages of  
412 healthcare workers in rural areas), our study supports the need for policy responses that are  
413 focused on mitigating of influence of these factors on mental health of the population of  
414 Kazakhstan. Further research is needed to determine the extent to which these factors and their  
415 associated mental health outcomes may persist. It is important to continue to monitor the mental  
416 health of populations longitudinally in order to prevent long-term unfavorable mental health  
417 outcomes.

418 Special attention should be focused on health care access in rural areas at the times of  
419 crisis in the future. Social care protection, programs to support families disproportionately  
420 impacted by COVID-19 should be considered as important part of response policy at the time  
421 of crisis to minimize negative consequences on population health and wellbeing in Kazakhstan.

422

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**431 Author Contribution statement**

432 A.M., G.M., A.B., B.I. collaborated on drafting the manuscript. S.R., A.D. G.M.  
433 contributed to revisions of manuscript drafts. G.M. contributed to data analysis, outlining the  
434 research objectives. B.Zh. contributed to sampling design and data analysis. All other authors,  
435 including L.A., M.Y., K.K., G.A., A.I., A.I. contributed substantially to the conception and  
436 design of the work. All authors had final approval of the version to be published and agreed to  
437 be accountable for all aspects of the work.

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**441 Conflict of Interest statement**

442 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

**443 Ethics statement:**

444 The authors assert that all procedures contributing to this work comply with the ethical  
445 standards of the relevant national and institutional committees on human experimentation and  
446 with the Helsinki Declaration of 1975, as revised in 2008.

**447 Data Availability statement**

448 According to ethics committee requirements and informed consent, data cannot be  
449 shared publicly. Data syntax will be shared upon request to the corresponding author.

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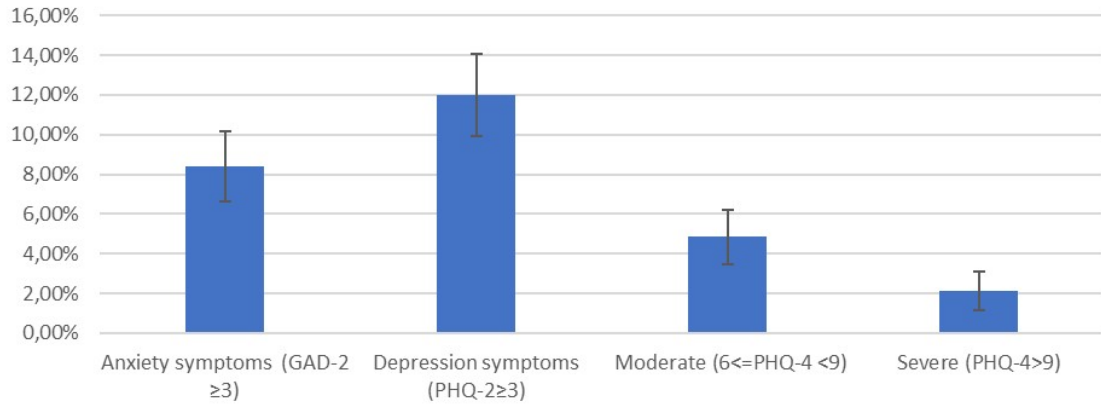
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Population proportion with PHQ-4, PHQ-2, GAD-2 elevated scores



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Table 1. Sociodemographic characteristics and mental health of the sample (N=991)

Characteristics	Total sample, N (%)
	Mean (SD)
Age	41.1 (15.0)
	N (%)
Gender	
Male	467 (47.12)
Female	524 (52.88)
Marital status	
Married, in relationships	618 (62.36)
Single, widowed, divorced	373 (37.64)
Education	
High and postgraduate	412 (41.57)
Up to secondary	242 (24.42)
Specialized secondary	337 (34.01)
Current employment status	
Full-time	529 (53.38)
Part-time	94 (9.49)
Unemployed	80 (8.07)
Other	288 (29.06)
Area of residence	
Rural	400 (40.36)
Urban	591 (59.64)
Living with older people	162 (16.35)
Perception of COVID-19 severity (mean, sd)	2.55 (0.87)
COVID-19 self-report or diagnose	180 (18.16)
Knowing someone with COVID-19	
Knows someone who died of COVID-19	192 (19.37)
Knows someone who had COVID-19	191 (19.27)
Don't/didn't know any with COVID-19	608 (61.35)
Physical activity decreased	197 (19.88)
Alcohol increased	38(3.83)
Smoking increased	17 (1.72)
Conflicts increased	73 (7.37)
Financial status deteriorated	362 (36.53)
Food insecurity	410 (41.37)
Worked remotely from home	76 (7.67)
Working conditions worsened	89 (8.98)
Had problems with health care access	78 (7.87)
Mental Health Symptoms (PHQ-4)	

Anxiety symptoms (GAD-2 $\geq 3$ )	83 (8.38)
Depression symptoms (PHQ-2 $\geq 3$ )	119 (12.01)
Moderate ( $6 \leq \text{PHQ-4} < 9$ )	44 (4.84)
Severe (PHQ-4 $> 9$ )	19 (2.12)

SD, standard deviation

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Table 2. Bivariate and adjusted logistic regression estimates of odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals for association between depression and anxiety and studied variables.

Categorical Variables	Frequency	Depression symptoms (PHQ-2 $\geq$ 3)		Anxiety symptoms (GAD-2 $\geq$ 3)	
		Bivariate Unadjusted OR [95% CI]	Multivariable Adjusted OR [95% CI]	Bivariate Unadjusted OR [95% CI]	Multivariable Adjusted OR [95% CI]
Age	41.1 (15.0)	1.00 (0.99, 1.01)	1.00 (0.98, 1.01)	1.00 (0.99, 1.02)	1.00 (0.99, 1.02)
Gender					
Male	467 (47.1)	ref	ref	ref	ref
Female	524 (52.9)	1.82 (1.22, 2.71)***	1.64 (1.05, 2.55)*	3.53 (2.06, 6.05)***	3.43 (1.91, 6.15)***
Education					
Completed high or postgraduate degree	412 (41.6)	ref	ref	ref	ref
Up to secondary	242 (24.4)	1.11 (0.70, 1.76)	1.22 (0.72, 2.07)	1.06 (0.60, 1.87)	1.07 (0.57, 2.03)
Specialized secondary	337 (34.0)	0.71 (0.45, 1.13)	0.67 (0.41, 1.12)	1.01 (0.60, 1.70)	0.85 (0.48, 1.51)
Current employment status					
Full-time	529 (53.4)	ref	ref	ref	ref
Part-time	94 (9.5)	1.51 (0.82, 2.80)	1.32 (0.68, 2.59)	2.47 (1.27, 4.80)**	1.94 (0.93, 4.02)
Unemployed	80 (8.1)	1.14 (0.56, 2.33)	1.19 (0.55, 2.58)	0.94 (0.36, 2.48)	0.95 (0.34, 2.66)
Other	288 (29.1)	1.10 (0.71, 1.72)	0.99 (0.60, 1.63)	1.58 (0.95, 2.64)	1.10 (0.62, 1.96)
Area of residence					
Rural	400 (40.4)	1.42 (0.97, 2.08)	1.75 (1.14, 2.68)*	1.27 (0.81, 2.00)	1.42 (0.86, 2.35)
Urban	591 (59.6)	ref	ref	ref	ref
Living with older people	162 (16.4)	1.51 (0.94, 2.43)	1.32 (0.79, 2.21)	1.71 (1.00, 2.92)*	1.34 (0.74, 2.41)
COVID-19 self-report or diagnose	180 (18.2)	1.89 (1.22, 2.94)***	1.30(0.79, 2.15)	1.38 (0.80, 2.36)	1.04 (0.56, 1.94)

Perception of COVID-19 severity (mean, sd)	2.55 (0.9)	1.46 (1.17, 1.81)***	1.28 (1.00, 1.63)*	1.61 (1.25, 2.07)***	1.45 (1.09, 1.92)*
Knowing someone with COVID-19					
Does not know anyone with COVID-19	608 (61.4)	ref	ref	ref	ref
Knows someone with COVID-19	191 (19.3)	1.99 (1.24, 3.20)***	1.89 (1.12, 3.17)*	1.26 (0.72, 2.20)	1.23 (0.66, 2.27)
Knows someone who died from COVID-19	192 (19.4)	2.21 (1.39, 3.51)***	1.85 (1.10, 3.14)*	0.97 (0.53, 1.77)	0.69 (0.35, 1.37)
Physical activity decreased	197 (19.9)	2.01 (1.31, 3.07)***	1.48 (0.93, 2.36)	2.51 (1.56, 4.05)***	2.11 (1.24, 3.57)**
Alcohol consumption increased	38(3.8)	2.77 (1.31, 5.85)**	1.78 (0.75, 4.20)	2.13 (0.87, 5.26)	1.64 (0.60, 4.47)
Smoking increased	17 (1.7)	3.14 (1.09, 9.09)*	1.73 (0.50, 6.01)	2.40 (0.67, 8.51)	1.48 (0.32, 6.79)
Conflicts increased	73 (7.4)	3.38 (1.95, 5.85)***	2.43 (1.32, 4.48)***	3.23 (1.74, 6.00)***	2.22 (1.11, 4.44)*
Financial status deteriorated	362 (36.5)	1.52 (1.03, 2.24)*	0.98 (0.61, 1.59)	1.52 (0.97, 2.39)	1.0 (0.56, 1.76)
Had food insecurity	410 (41.4)	2.24 (1.51, 3.30)***	1.80 (1.11, 2.89)*	1.96 (1.25, 3.09)***	1.32 (0.75, 2.32)
Health care access problems	78 (7.9)	2.84 (1.64, 4.91)***	2.41 (1.32, 4.41)***	3.26 (1.78, 5.96)***	2.63 (1.36, 5.12)***
Working conditions worsened	89 (9.0)	1.42 (0.77, 2.60)	1.01 (0.50, 2.03)	2.03 (1.08, 3.84)*	1.74 (0.82, 3.69)

\*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01, \*\*\*p<0.005