

1 **Factors associated with psycho- and pharmacotherapy initiation for common mental**
2 **disorders in the general population during the COVID-19 pandemic**

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27

28 **Abstract**

29 Background

30 Health service utilization is influenced by perceived and evaluated health status (need factors),
31 sociodemographic characteristics and health beliefs (predisposing factors), and personal and
32 community resources that facilitate or hinder access to care (enabling factors). No study has
33 simultaneously quantified how these factors directly and indirectly influence psychotherapy
34 and pharmacotherapy initiation for common mental disorders (CMD). The COVID-19
35 pandemic provides an opportunity to examine these dynamics due to heightened mental health
36 needs and strained healthcare systems.

37 Methods

38 We conducted a cross-sectional study within the French Grippenet/Covidnet cohort (n=6,944)
39 in April 2022. Data were collected through a voluntary online questionnaire. Participants not
40 using CMD treatments before the pandemic (n=3,297) were included. Weighted structural
41 equation modeling was used to analyze the direct and indirect pathways to psychotherapy and
42 pharmacotherapy initiation.

43 Results

44 Psychotherapy initiation was directly associated with perceived need (poorer self-rated mental
45 health, negative pandemic impact) and enabling factors (employed, mindfulness/relaxation
46 activities, over-the-counter medication). Pharmacotherapy initiation was directly associated
47 with evaluated need (CMD symptoms, non-psychiatric chronic disease), predisposing (female),
48 and enabling factors (over-the-counter medication). Indirectly, predisposing factors influenced
49 treatment initiation primarily through CMD symptoms (female, younger, lower education,
50 living with adults, adverse life event and recent difficult event), while enabling and pandemic-
51 related factors influenced it through poorer perceived need (loneliness, urban, employed, fewer

52 financial difficulties, less deprived area, pandemic financial decline) and CMD symptoms
53 (loneliness, less sport, most deprived area, symptomatic COVID-19).

54 Conclusions

55 This study highlights distinct pathways to psychotherapy and pharmacotherapy initiation and
56 provides insights to improve access to each treatment.

57 **Keywords:** mental disorders; Covid-19; psychotherapy; psychotropic drugs;

58

59

60 **Introduction**

61 Depressive and anxiety disorders are the most common mental disorders (CMDs), with lifetime
62 prevalence estimates of 10.8% for depressive disorders and 28.8% for anxiety disorders [1, 2].
63 These commonly comorbid disorders substantially impair social, personal, and occupational
64 functioning, with considerable individual and societal economic burdens [3, 4]. Over the past
65 three decades, incidence rates of CMDs have increased, particularly in developed countries [5,
66 6]. **Potential** contributing factors include financial crises, climate change, geopolitical
67 instability, individualistic societal structures, improved detection, reduced stigma, and, more
68 recently, the COVID-19 pandemic [5-12]. Adequate treatment of CMDs **facilitates** symptom
69 relief and functional recovery [13, 14]. While psychotherapy is the first-line treatment for all
70 levels of severity, pharmacotherapy is recommended in combination with psychotherapy for
71 the most severe cases [15-17].

72 Only 10-17% of individuals with CMDs receive adequate treatment, with rates ranging from 2-
73 4% in low- and middle-income countries to 14-22% in high-income countries [18, 19]. Contrary
74 to clinical guidelines and patient preferences - which favor psychotherapy by a three-to-one
75 ratio - CMDs are more frequently treated with pharmacotherapy [20-24]. Distinct factors may
76 influence the utilization of psychotherapy and pharmacotherapy, as they have different access
77 requirements. *Pharmacotherapy requires a medical prescription*, typically provided by general
78 practitioners, included in reimbursement policies across many countries, *and involves less*
79 *frequent follow-up. In contrast, psychotherapy requires actively seeking a specialist, scheduling*
80 *regular appointments* that involve greater time and effort, often entails direct out-of-pocket
81 payments, *and* may involve overcoming stigma associated with consulting a mental health
82 professional [20, 25, 26].

83 Previous research has identified distinct factors influencing the utilization of psychotherapy and
84 pharmacotherapy. Women, younger individuals, and those living in less rural areas were more

85 likely to use psychotherapy, whereas older individuals, and those residing in more rural areas
86 were more likely to use pharmacotherapy [20, 21, 23, 24, 27]. The presence of CMD may be
87 not associated with psychotherapy use but with increased use of pharmacotherapy or combined
88 psychotherapy and pharmacotherapy [23]. While some studies suggest that treatment utilization
89 is equitable, others indicate potential inequalities within the health care system [23].
90 Specifically, higher education strongly predicted psychotherapy use, whereas individuals with
91 lower education and retirees were more likely to receive pharmacotherapy alone [28, 29].
92 However, a significant gap remains, as no study has simultaneously quantified how these
93 factors directly influence psychotherapy and pharmacotherapy initiation. Additionally, the role
94 of mediating factors, such as CMD symptoms or perceived mental health, has not been
95 thoroughly explored, despite their potential to yield distinct public health implications.

96 The Andersen's behavioral model of health services utilization provides a robust framework for
97 understanding how need factors (mental health status), predisposing factors (sociodemographic
98 characteristics), and enabling factors (resources facilitating access to care) interact to influence
99 access to care [30-32]. The COVID-19 pandemic provides an opportunity to evaluate these
100 dynamics, as multiple cumulative stressors heightened demand for mental health care while
101 straining healthcare systems [33]. By integrating these elements, this study seeks to offer a
102 comprehensive analysis of the dynamics influencing treatment choices for CMDs.

103 Thus, this study aims to jointly investigate the factors, including pandemic-related stressors,
104 directly and indirectly associated with the initiation of psychotherapy and pharmacotherapy in
105 the context of CMDs, using Andersen's conceptual model.

106 **1 Theoretical model**

107 We used structural equation modeling (SEM) to assess how need, predisposing and enabling
108 factors influence the initiation of psychotherapy or pharmacotherapy, both directly and

109 indirectly through CMD symptom severity and self-rated mental health [34]. Based on the
110 literature and the data collected, we formulated the following assumptions grounded in
111 Andersen's conceptual model (Figure 1).

112 1.1 *Need factors*

113 Self-rated mental health and CMD symptom intensity are strongly associated with mental health
114 service use, though their influence may differ between psychotherapy and pharmacotherapy
115 [23, 32]. Chronic non-psychiatric disorders and substance use disorders have been associated
116 with higher likelihood of treatment for CMD [28, 35-37]. We hypothesize that three pandemic-
117 related factors may increase the likelihood of seeking mental health services: i) a history of
118 symptomatic COVID-19, as with other non-mental health disorders, and with studies
119 suggesting SARS-CoV-2 infection alone does not predict CMD, but factors like fear and
120 isolation may [38]; ii) heightened stress and health awareness in regions with higher COVID-
121 19 case rates; iii) perceived mental health deterioration during the pandemic, similar to the link
122 between self-rated mental health and treatment-seeking.

123 1.2 *Predisposing factors*

124 Age typically follows a hill-shaped pattern, with middle-aged individuals being most likely to
125 seek treatment, though older individuals showed a stronger association with pharmacotherapy
126 use [27]. Individuals with lower education may be more likely to use pharmacological
127 treatments, while those with higher education more likely to psychotherapy [29, 32]. Being
128 married or cohabiting has been associated with lower likelihood to seek care [27, 39]. A history
129 of adverse life events increases the likelihood of mental health care [33, 39, 40].

130 1.3 *Enabling factors*

131 Studies have shown mixed associations between income, employment status, social support,
132 loneliness, rural/urban residence, density of general practitioners and access to mental health
133 care [32]. Given that the pandemic has exacerbated inequities and loneliness, we hypothesize
134 that these factors may have influenced the use of psychotherapy and pharmacotherapy, as
135 previously suggested [41-43]. Income loss, employment changes, and working in healthcare
136 have been identified as enabling factors for service use during the pandemic [43]. We also
137 considered mindfulness practices, over-the-counter (OTC) medications, and physical exercise
138 as enabling factors, as they may alleviate CMD symptoms, potentially delaying or preventing
139 the need for professional care, particularly when health systems are strained [44, 45].

140 1.4 *Indirect factors*

141 We hypothesized indirect pathways thorough higher CMD symptom severity with:
142 predisposing factors, including female sex, younger age, lower educational attainment, living
143 alone, and history of adverse life events or stressors (e.g., job loss, divorce)[46-52]; need
144 factors, including psychoactive substance use [53, 54], chronic non-psychiatric diseases [55,
145 56], potentially intensified by pandemic-related health fears [57]; enabling factors, including
146 lower income, unemployment, low social support, loneliness, and lack of exercise [58-62], with
147 disparities exacerbated by the COVID-19 pandemic [48-50, 63], and local deprivation and
148 urbanicity [58, 64]; pandemic-related factors, including income loss and financial strain, self-
149 reported COVID-19 symptoms, being a public-facing worker or living in high-risk areas [38,
150 62, 65, 66]. We further hypothesize that these factors contribute to perceived mental health
151 deterioration, potentially driven by cognitive biases such as negativity bias [67, 68].

152 **2 Material and methods**

153 2.1 *Study design and participants*

154 We conducted a cross-sectional study nested within the French Grippenet/Covidnet cohort
155 in mainland France. The cohort is a voluntary online cohort established in 2012 to monitor acute
156 respiratory infections in the general population [69]. In April 2022, the 6,944 adult participants
157 included in this cohort were invited by email to complete a survey specific to this study on
158 mental health care and associated factors. Information on demographic, socio-economic status,
159 and chronic non-psychiatric comorbidities were obtained from the annual Grippenet/Covidnet
160 inclusion survey. Other data were collected through the dedicated survey.

161 Participants included in this study were those who reported not using treatments prior to the
162 pandemic, in line with the study objective of examining psychotherapy or pharmacotherapy
163 initiated during the pandemic. Participants with extreme statistical weights were excluded to
164 ensure robust analysis (see Statistical Analysis section for details).

165 Participant consent was obtained upon registration, and the study was approved by the
166 French Advisory Committee for Research on Information Treatment in Health (authorization
167 11.565) and the National Commission on Informatics and Liberty (authorization DR-2012-
168 024).

169 2.2 *Measures*

170 2.2.1 *Utilization of pharmacotherapy or psychotherapy initiated during the pandemic*

171 Pharmacotherapy utilization was assessed by asking participants: "Have you taken an
172 antidepressant or medication for relaxation or sleep in the past month?". Medication names
173 provided by participants were used to verify the accuracy of the information and classify the
174 medications as antidepressants, anxiolytics, or hypnotics based on the Anatomical Therapeutic
175 Chemical classification system [70].

176 Psychotherapy utilization was assessed by asking: "Are you currently receiving regular support
177 from a formal healthcare provider (e.g., psychiatrist, psychologist, general practitioner, or other

178 medical doctor) intended to improve sleep, address emotional problems, or promote relaxation,
179 excluding the use of psychotropic medications?" [71, 72]. As the present work focuses on factors
180 associated with the initiation of psychotherapy or pharmacotherapy in the COVID-19 pandemic
181 context, participants who reported using either of these before the pandemic were excluded
182 from the analyses.

183 2.2.2 *Need factors*

184 Depressive symptom severity was derived from the 9-item Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-
185 9), a self-report tool assessing depressive symptom severity in the last two weeks [73].
186 According to this scale, scores of 0–4 indicate none or minimal depression symptoms, 5–9 mild,
187 10–14 moderate, 15–19 moderately severe, and 20–27 severe ones.

188 Anxiety symptom severity was measured using the 7-item Generalized Anxiety Disorder scale
189 (GAD-7), which measures generalized anxiety symptoms in the last two weeks [74]. According
190 to this scale, scores of 0–4 indicate none or minimal anxiety symptoms, 5–9 mild, 10–14
191 moderate, and 15–21 severe ones.

192 Insomnia symptom severity was assessed using the 7-item Insomnia Severity Index (ISI), which
193 measures symptom severity in the last month [75]. According to this scale, scores of 0–7
194 indicate absence of insomnia, 8–14 subthreshold insomnia, 15–21 moderate, and 22–28 severe
195 one.

196 Other classical need factors included self-rated mental health (good/moderate/poor) [76],
197 chronic non-psychiatric conditions, and substance use (including tobacco, cannabidiol,
198 cannabis, cocaine, ecstasy and other drugs) assessed as yes/no.

199 Pandemic-related need factors included: perceived negative psychological impact from the
200 pandemic, a history of symptomatic COVID-19, the cumulative COVID-19 hospitalization
201 number by department (per 100,000 inhabitants, based on government data) as a proxy for the

202 severity of the pandemic, being a public-facing worker (defined as anyone working in direct
203 contact with the public, including healthcare and non-healthcare workers) during the pandemic.

204 2.2.3 *Predisposing factors*

205 Predisposing factors included age, sex, educational level (secondary education or less vs
206 higher education), living with adult(s) (as a proxy for reduced social isolation during the
207 pandemic), history of adverse life events, and experience of a stressful life event within the past
208 12 months (e.g., divorce, death of a loved one, job loss).

209 2.2.4 *Enabling factors*

210 Individual socio-economic and psychosocial factors included: employment status, perceived
211 financial difficulties (good/neither good nor difficult/difficult), three measures of social support
212 (feeling supported financially, in daily life, and morally or emotionally), loneliness (4-point
213 scale ranging from "Very lonely" to "Very surrounded").

214 Three contextual factors included: the urban/rural classification (defined by the French national
215 statistical institute, Insee, www.insee.fr), the French ecological deprivation index (Fdep, based
216 on unemployment rate, labor rate, high school graduation rate, and median household income
217 [77]); and the density of general practitioners per 100,000 inhabitants (defined by the French
218 national health insurance, www.ameli.fr).

219 Behavioral factors included: practice of sport, practice of relaxation techniques (meditation,
220 breathing exercises, sophrology, others), the use of over-the-counter (OTC) medications
221 without a prescription to improve sleep, emotional balance, or aid relaxation.

222 The pandemic-related enabling factor was the deterioration of the financial situation during the
223 pandemic, perceived as unchanged, improved, or degraded.

224 2.3 *Statistical methods*

225 Missing data (2.6% of all values in the dataset) were addressed using multiple imputation
226 by chained equations [78]. All analyses were performed on the weighted data. Details on the
227 construction of the weights are provided in Supplementary material S2.

228 To perform SEM, we first tested the measurement model including two latent variables: 1)
229 CMD symptom severity, assessed across three dimensions: depressive, anxiety, and insomnia
230 symptoms. Given their frequent co-occurrence and shared treatment pathways, it is more
231 appropriate to treat these symptoms as a broader construct in a non-clinical population [32, 71,
232 72, 79]. 2) Social support, measured across three dimensions: feeling supported financially, in
233 daily life, and morally or emotionally [80, 81]. The correlations between the different observed
234 variables for the same latent variable were tested using Spearman's correlation coefficient ($\rho >$
235 0.3 for significance). To assess the unidimensionality of each latent variable, scree-plots were
236 examined. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was used to ensure that the observed variables
237 contributed significantly to the corresponding latent variables. The weighted least squares
238 means and variance (WLSMV) estimator was applied, suitable for categorical dependent
239 variables [82]. Then, we estimated the SEM with standardized regression coefficients (from -1
240 to 1). The goodness of fit for the measurement and the structural model was evaluated using the
241 following fit indices for categorical variables [83]: root mean square error of approximation
242 (RMSEA) (desired value < 0.08), comparative fit index (CFI) (desired value > 0.95), Tucker-
243 Lewis index (TLI) (desired value > 0.95) and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)
244 ≤ 0.08 . Bootstrapping (1000 resamples) was applied to estimate confidence intervals for model
245 parameters using the bias-corrected and accelerated method.

246 All analyses were performed in R version 4.0.2, with the 'lavaan' package for SEM, and
247 'boot' for bootstrapping. Alpha error risk was set at 5%, and all p-values were two-tailed.

248 **3 Results**

249 Of the 6,944 adults invited to participate in this study, 60.5% (n=4,199) responded. After
250 excluding participants with extreme statistical weights (n=40) and those using treatments
251 started before the pandemic (n=862), the final analytical sample consisted of 3,297 participants.

252 3.1 *Description of study population*

253 Table 1 summarizes the sample characteristics (raw numbers and weighted percentages).
254 Women comprised 52.9% of the sample, 75.6% had a higher educational level, and the median
255 age was 54 years (range: 18-91 years).

256 Overall, 18.8% of participants presented moderate-to-severe symptoms, with 12.7%
257 experiencing depressive symptoms, 10.1% anxiety symptoms, and 6.3% insomnia.
258 Additionally, 21.9% perceived their mental health as moderate, 5.0% as poor, and 41.7%
259 reported a negative impact of the pandemic on their mental health.

260 Regarding treatments, 8.2% of participants had initiated at least one during the pandemic,
261 including 5.3% undergoing psychotherapy, and 4.4% pharmacotherapy (3.0% using
262 anxiolytics, 1.6% antidepressants, and 0.9% hypnotics). Treatment patterns showed that 3.7%
263 initiated only psychotherapy, 2.8% only pharmacotherapy, and 1.1% initiated both.

264 3.2 *Structural equation modeling*

265 The measurement model is provided in Supplementary material S1, and the SEM is shown in
266 Figure 2. It demonstrated good fit indices (CFI = 0.864, TLI = 0.956, RMSEA = 0.045, SRMR
267 = 0.040), indicating that the data aligned reasonably well with the theoretical model. The
268 standardized estimates and their 95% confidence intervals for paths, ranked by strength of
269 association for each outcome, are presented in Supplementary material S3. Overall, need factors
270 had the highest effect size in both directly and indirectly influencing treatment initiation,
271 followed by the indirect effects of loneliness and age on CMD symptom severity.

272 Psychotherapy initiation was directly associated with perceived needs, including poorer self-
273 rated mental health ($\beta=0.42$, 95%CI= [0.21, 0.63]) and a negative perceived impact of the
274 pandemic on mental health (0.26 [0.16, 0.37]), and several enabling factors: being employed
275 (0.14, [0.02, 0.25]), use of mindfulness or relaxing activities (0.15 [0.05, 0.24]), or of OTC
276 medication (0.14 [0.06, 0.22]).

277 Pharmacotherapy initiation was directly associated with assessed needs (0.47, [0.38, 0.55]),
278 including higher level of CMD symptoms (0.24, [0.03, 0.44]), non-psychiatric chronic disease
279 (0.13 [0.05, 0.20]), one predisposing factors, being female (0.12 [0.01, 0.22]), and one enabling
280 factors, the use of OTC medication (0.07 [0.00, 0.14]).

281 Several predisposing factors influenced treatment initiation indirectly, primarily through higher
282 CMD symptom severity (ordered by decreasing effect size: younger, living with adults, being
283 female, history of adverse life event and recent difficult event, lower educational level), but
284 also through poorer self-rated mental health (older, higher educational level), and a negative
285 perceived impact of the pandemic (female). Among these pathways, the strongest association
286 was with CMD symptom severity, first with younger age, followed by living with adults.

287 Several enabling factors influenced treatment initiation indirectly, mostly through perceived
288 needs, including poorer self-rated mental health (loneliness, living in more urban area) and a
289 perceived negative impact of the pandemic (having a pandemic financial decline, employed,
290 having fewer financial difficulties, living in less deprived area), but also through higher CMD
291 symptom severity (loneliness, not practicing sport, living in more deprived area,). Among these,
292 the strongest association was between CMD symptom severity and loneliness, followed by its
293 association with poorer self-rated mental health, and the effect of financial decline on perceived
294 pandemic impact.

295 **4 Discussion**

296 Our study extends previous research on Andersen's behavioral model by providing a
297 comprehensive analysis of how need, predisposing, and enabling factors, including pandemic-
298 related factors, simultaneously contribute to the initiation of treatments for CMD. We identified
299 distinct pathways for psychotherapy and pharmacotherapy initiation. Psychotherapy initiation
300 was directly associated with perceived need and several enabling factors, whereas
301 pharmacotherapy initiation was directly linked to evaluated need, one predisposing factors, and
302 one enabling factors. Indirectly, predisposing factors influenced treatment initiation primarily
303 through CMD symptoms, while enabling and pandemic-related factors exerted their effects
304 mainly through poorer perceived need, but also through CMD symptoms.

305 Distinct need factors predominantly shape treatment pathways for CMD: psychotherapy is
306 driven by perceived need, while pharmacotherapy is shaped by assessed clinical need. This
307 central role of need factors aligns with previous research, both before and during the pandemic
308 [32, 39, 43, 84-87]. Since pharmacotherapy follows contact with a healthcare professional,
309 perception plays a critical role in initiating both types of treatment. This finding is in line with
310 results obtained in countries with different income levels, where low perceived need and
311 attitudinal barriers have been identified as greater obstacles to mental health service use, rather
312 than structural barriers [32, 88]. Strengthening mental health literacy may therefore help reduce
313 treatment gaps [87]. The near-significant link between symptomatic COVID-19 and
314 psychotherapy initiation suggests that responses to infectious disease may act as drivers of help-
315 seeking, aligning with previous research [38, 89]. In contrast, the direct association between
316 CMD symptoms and pharmacotherapy highlights the role of clinical assessment once
317 individuals engage with the healthcare system. Similarly, the association between chronic non-
318 psychiatric conditions and pharmacotherapy, consistent with prior studies [32, 35], may reflect
319 the fact that individuals with ongoing care relationships are more likely to receive medication,
320 whether due to patient preference for familiar interventions or physicians' prescribing habits.

321 While sex has a direct role in pharmacotherapy initiation, other predisposing factors mainly
322 influence treatment initiation earlier in the pathway, through CMD symptom severity and
323 perceived mental health. The association between women and pharmacotherapy is consistent
324 with previous research indicating that women are more likely than men to use anxiolytics for
325 acute social and emotional issues [90]. The lack of a direct association with psychotherapy
326 initiation contrasts with pre-pandemic studies linking sex to mental health help-seeking [27, 32,
327 33, 39, 40]. This discrepancy may reflect pandemic-specific shifts in help-seeking dynamics,
328 as reported by others [84], or be due to confounding factors adjusted for in our analysis [35,
329 90]. Regarding indirect role of other predisposing factors, two findings are noteworthy due to
330 their contrasting associations. Lower education and younger age were both positively
331 associated with increased CMD symptom severity, but negatively associated with poorer self-
332 rated mental health. These contrasts may highlight a need to improve mental health literacy
333 among individuals with lower education levels and younger populations.

334 We showed that enabling factors influence various stages of the pathway to CMD treatment
335 initiation. Although their overall effect size was small, aligning with pre-pandemic studies [32,
336 87, 91], enabling factors may have played a more substantial role in disadvantaged populations
337 or earlier in the pandemic, with their impact diminishing by 2022. This limited influence may
338 also reflect the equalizing effect of the French healthcare system, which reduces access
339 disparities, particularly for general practice and pharmacotherapy. Nonetheless, their
340 importance remains due to their modifiability within Andersen's model [30, 31]. Loneliness
341 was the most strongly associated enabling factor, albeit indirectly, underscoring its key role in
342 CMD symptom severity and self-rated mental health, as highlighted in both pandemic and pre-
343 pandemic studies [60, 92-94]. Employment was positively associated with psychotherapy
344 initiation, and fewer financial difficulties showed a near-significant positive association,
345 suggesting inequities in access to psychotherapy but not pharmacotherapy, consistent with the

346 lack of reimbursement for psychological support in France at the time. Mindfulness activities
347 and OTC medication were positively linked to treatment initiation, indicating that such self-
348 care strategies may complement, but not substitute, formal support. Practicing sport was
349 negatively associated with CMD symptom severity, reinforcing its protective role. The
350 relationship between enabling factors and perceived need is noteworthy. Disadvantaged
351 individuals (those in deprived areas or facing financial hardship) were less likely to report a
352 negative mental health from the pandemic, potentially reflecting resilience, stigma, or lower
353 mental health literacy. Conversely, being employed and experiencing income loss during the
354 pandemic were more likely to report a perceived negative mental health impact, possibly
355 reflecting greater vulnerability among those more affected by pandemic-related disruptions.
356 Urban living was linked to poorer self-rated mental health, potentially due to increased
357 stressors, better awareness of services or less stigma compared to rural areas.

358 This study is strengthened by the use of SEM to assess direct and indirect pathways to
359 psychotherapy and pharmacotherapy, but several limitations should be noted. First, the cross-
360 sectional design precludes causal inferences. Second, despite statistical weights, the voluntary,
361 non-random sample may limit representativeness, particularly for youth and disadvantaged
362 populations. Third, self-reported data and the absence of pre-pandemic baseline may introduce
363 recall bias. Fourth, we did not capture participants who initiated treatment during the pandemic
364 but later discontinued it. However, the two-year data still reflect sustained treatment use, as the
365 average help-seeking delay is typically measured in years [95-97]. Fifth, the analysis focused
366 only on the use of pharmacotherapy and psychotherapy, without details on treatment types or
367 providers, and on mindfulness and relaxation activities, without knowing if they were used for
368 self-management or with professional guidance. Sixth, we did not assess the functional impact
369 of CMD symptoms or quality of life, which are potentially crucial factors in treatment decisions.
370 Finally, confounding factors may not have been fully accounted for in the analysis.

371 **5 Conclusion**

372 This study identified distinct pathways to psychotherapy and pharmacotherapy initiation for
373 CMDs, offering insights to improve access to both treatments. Strengthening mental health
374 literacy, particularly among disadvantaged groups, and promoting self-management strategies,
375 such as mindfulness may help address treatment gaps. Additionally, alleviating structural
376 barriers for psychotherapy is essential for equitable access to mental health care. Further
377 research should evaluate the effectiveness of these interventions in improving mental health
378 service utilization.

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382 **Author's contribution** All authors participated in the design of the study. MP conducted the
383 analyses. MP wrote the first draft of this report. All authors contributed to the review of the
384 manuscript, read the manuscript and approved the final version.

385 **Supplementary material**

386 S1. Measurement model

387 S2. Weighted data

388 S3. Structural equation model: standardized estimates, confidence intervals, and p-values for
389 need (grey), predisposing (blue), enabling (green), and pandemic-related factors (red), ranked
390 by association strength for each outcome.

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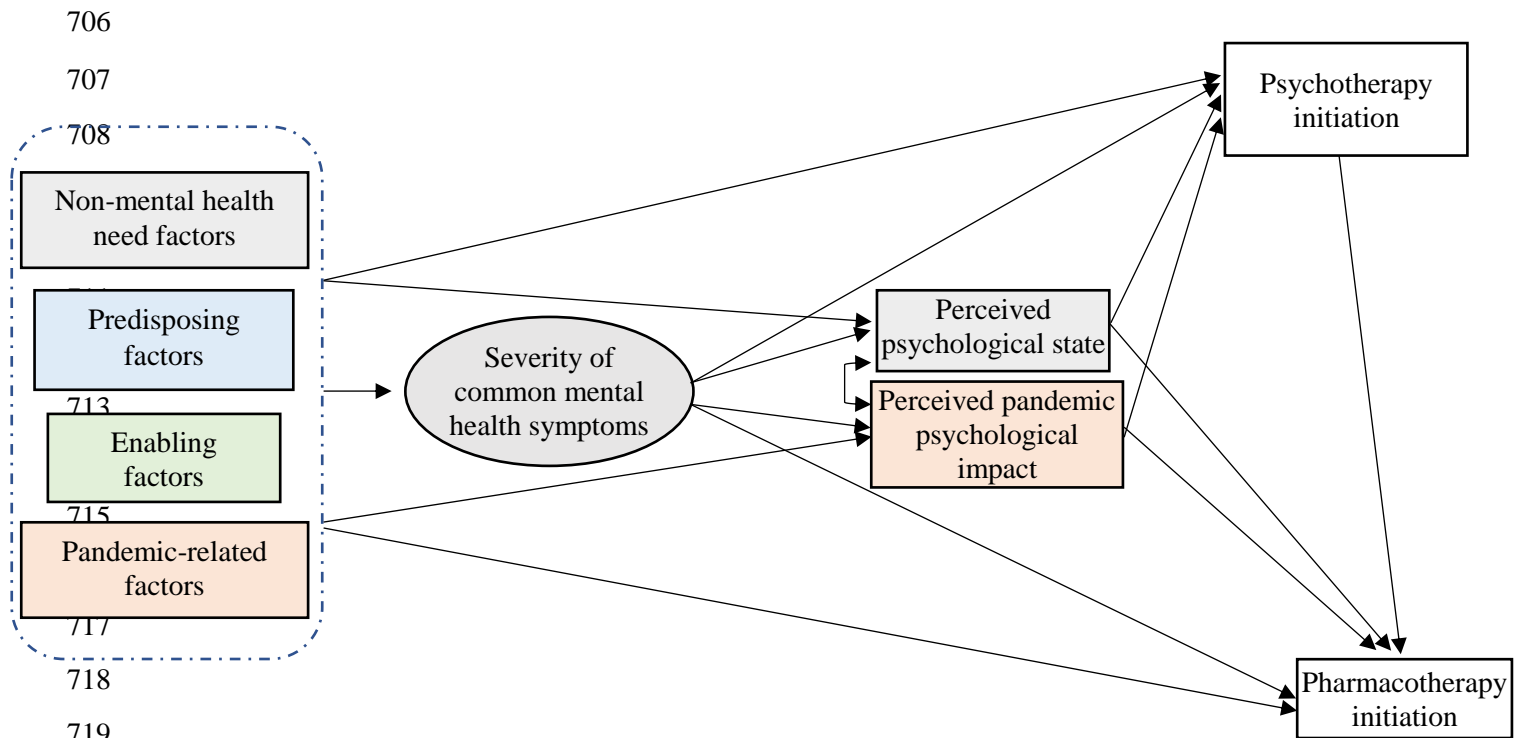
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703 Table 1. Characteristics of the study population (N=3297; weighted N = 3347).

Variables	Categories	Number ^a	Median [Q1-Q3] or percentage ^b	
Predisposing factors				
Age			54 (40-67)	
Sex	Female	1976	52.9	
Educational level	Secondary education or less	2382	24.4	
	Higher educational level	915	75.6	
Cohabiting status	Living with adult(s)	2508	77.2	
Adverse life event	Yes	1864	55.0	
12-month difficult event	Yes	1536	46.0	
Enabling factors				
Unrelated to the pandemic				
Employed	Yes	1423	55.6	
Current financial situation	Good	2202	68.3	
	Neither good nor difficult	908	25.3	
	Difficult	187	6.3	
Lack of moral/emotional support	Yes	339	10.0	
Lack of support in daily life	Yes	612	17.7	
Lack of financial support	Yes	885	23.0	
Loneliness	Very surrounded	876	26.8	
	Rather surrounded	1755	51.9	
	Lonely	666	21.2	
Residential setting	Urban	2712	83.7	
French Deprivation Index (FDEP)			0.5 (-0.2-0.9)	
General practitioner density (per 100,000)			80.2 (69.0-88.0)	
Sport	Yes	2194	66.1	
Relaxing and mindfulness activities	Yes	1453	42.0	
Over-the-counter medication	Yes	751	21.9	
Related to the pandemic				
Financial decline during Covid-19 pandemic	Yes	520	15.8	
Need factors				
Unrelated to the pandemic				
Any moderate-to-severe symptoms of CMD	Yes	544	18.8	
Depression	No to minimal	2282	65.6	
	Mild	651	21.6	
	Moderate	230	7.8	
	Moderately severe to severe	134	4.9	
Anxiety	No to minimal	2389	69.3	
	Mild	618	20.6	
	Moderate	189	7.2	
	Severe	101	2.9	
Insomnia	No	2195	64.4	
	Subthreshold	895	29.3	
	Moderate to severe	207	6.3	
Self-rated mental health	Good	2462	73.1	
	Moderate	699	21.9	
	Poor	136	5.0	
Psychoactive substance use	Yes	369	12.4	
Chronic non-psychiatric disease	Yes	862	22.1	
Related to the pandemic				
Perceived pandemic mental health decline	Yes	1271	41.7	
Frontline worker during the pandemic	Yes	494	17.4	
Symptomatic Covid-19	Yes	933	32.0	
Hospitalized Covid-19 cases, per 100,000 hab.			1197 (862-1486)	
Initiated mental health treatment				
Psycho- or pharmacotherapy	Yes	230	8.2	
Psychotherapy	Yes	135	5.3	
Pharmacotherapy	Yes	149	4.4	
	Anxiolytic	Yes	100	3.0
	Antidepressant	Yes	58	1.6
	Hypnotic	Yes	31	0.9

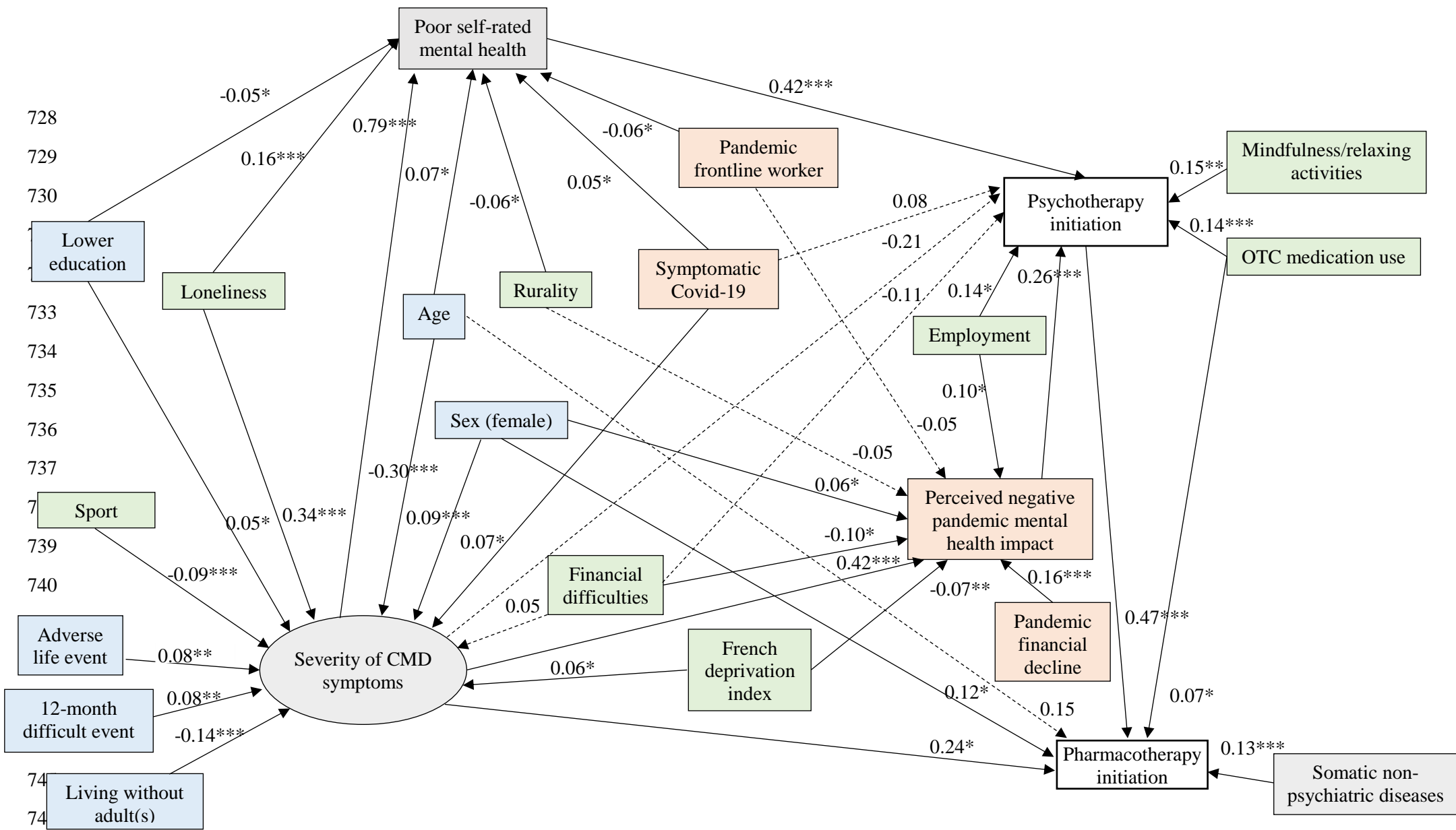
704 ^a Observed numbers in the study sample. ^b Weighted percentages and median with interquartile range (Q1-Q3). CMD:
705 common mental health disorders.



722 Figure 1. Conceptual model for the structural equation modeling: classical need (grey), predisposing
723 (blue), and enabling (green) factors (grey), and their corresponding pandemic-related factors (red)
724 influencing psychotherapy and pharmacotherapy initiation in the general population. Latent variables
725 are not shown for clarity but details are presented in Supplementary material S1.

726

727



747 Figure 2. Structural equation model included need (grey), predisposing (blue), enabling (green), and pandemic-related factors (red). CMD: Common mental
 748 disorders. Solid arrow = significant, dashed arrow = borderline significant ($p < 0.10$). Standardized coefficients are shown with significance levels: $p < 0.10$,
 749 * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

