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Religious Service Attendance and Common Mental Disorders and Well-Being: Causal Effects Based on a Longitudinal Marginal Structural Model Approach

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Frequent religious service attendance is associated with a decreased risk of common mental disorders and greater well-being. However, whether this is a causal relationship or merely a correlation influenced by confounding factors remains unclear. This study aimed to test the causal effects of religious service attendance on mental disorders and well-being while handling time-varying and time-invariant confounding. This study used longitudinal data spanning over 20 years from the Midlife Development in the United States study ($n = 7,108$). The Midlife Development in the United States study consisted of a nationally representative sample of adults living in the United States. The effects of religious service attendance on common mental disorders and well-being were tested using a longitudinal marginal structural modeling approach. Age, gender, income, and ethnicity were included as time-invariant confounders, while personality factors, self-rated physical health, economic status, and contact with friends were modeled as time-varying confounders. Frequent religious service attendance did not influence the probability of developing a major depressive episode, panic disorder, or generalized anxiety disorder. Moreover, the relationship between religious service attendance and psychological well-being was not statistically significant. This study provides evidence that the associations between religious service attendance and a reduced risk of common mental disorders and increased well-being do not reflect genuine causal effects. In addition to complex ethical questions, this study raises issues regarding the possible mental health benefits of promoting religious service attendance.

Keywords: mental health, religious service attendance, well-being, causal inference, religion

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A substantial body of theory and research supports the notion that religious service attendance is beneficial for mental health and well-being (e.g., Hood et al., 2018; Koenig, 1997; Moon et al., 2023; Oman & Syme, 2018; Pargament et al., 1992; Rosmarin & Koenig, 2020; Schieman et al., 2013; VanderWeele, 2017a). From a theoretical perspective, religious service attendance is thought to provide mental health benefits through increased social contacts, positive social relationships, and social support (Koenig et al., 2012; Schieman et al., 2013; VanderWeele, 2017b); reduced engagement in unhealthy behaviors and increased participation in healthy lifestyles (Moon et al., 2023); and greater positive emotions, cognitions, and use of religious coping (Koenig et al., 2012; Moon et al., 2023; VanderWeele, 2017b).

There is a great deal of research supporting the link between religious service attendance and better mental health and well-being. Literature reviews (e.g., Balboni et al., 2022; Koenig et al., 2012; Moon et al., 2023; Rosmarin & Koenig, 2020; VanderWeele, 2017a) and meta-analyses (e.g., Ano & Vasconcelles, 2005; Garssen et al., 2021; Hackney & Sanders, 2003; Hodapp & Zwingmann, 2019; Salsman et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2003; Yonker et al., 2012) have documented beneficial effects of religious service attendance on mental health and well-being. Although the body of this literature is extensive, most studies are cross-sectional or based on only two waves of data collection. While the limitations of cross-sectional studies for causal inference are well-known, observational studies consisting of two time points are not regarded as a truly longitudinal design (Ployhart & MacKenzie, 2015).

In the last 10 years, several longitudinal studies employed well-established estimation strategies from the causal inference literature to investigate the effect of religious service attendance on mental health and well-being. However, most of these longitudinal studies examining service attendance and mental health and well-being did not employ good control for potential confounders. For instance, several longitudinal studies (e.g., Chen et al., 2020; Pawlikowski et al., 2019) revealed positive effects of religious service attendance on mental health and well-being. However, these studies did not employ good control for potential time-varying confounders. One longitudinal study (Li et al., 2016) controlled for time-varying confounding by weighting techniques and found that a higher frequency of religious service attendance predicted a decreased risk of incident depression. Although this study is remarkable for its methodology, several issues need to be considered. First, a large set of variables as controls was

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All data can be downloaded from the Midlife Development in the United States (MIDUS) Portal at <https://midus.wisc.edu/data/index.php>. Analysis codes are available at https://osf.io/wcs5a/?view_only=e647209c16a94add84ea4bc1490c8f6c. Publicly available data from the MIDUS study were used for this research.

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used, and the rationale for including each confounding variable was not explained. While a large number of covariates can correct for confounding, this may also increase instead of reduce the omitted variable bias (Greenland, 2003; Steiner & Kim, 2016). For instance, bias amplification caused by controlling for instrumental and collider variables and cancellation of offsetting biases should also be considered in addition to confounding bias. The selection of confounders is crucial for reliable causal inference. Confounders should be selected based on theoretical and conceptual considerations, prioritizing variables that are causes of the exposure, the outcome, or both (VanderWeele, 2019). Moreover, the use of marginal structural models requires the estimation and assessment of balancing weights, verification of the positivity assumption, and correct specification of the causal model.

Recent longitudinal studies have investigated the within-person associations between religion and well-being (Joiner et al., 2022; Joshanloo, 2021, 2022, 2024). These studies are noteworthy because the separation of within-person dynamics from stable between-person differences is important for causal inference (Hamaker, 2023; Hamaker et al., 2020). The findings of these studies revealed that the within-person relationships between religion and subjective well-being were nonsignificant. These findings align with the notion that the effects of religion on well-being are complex because a great variety of religious experiences, meanings, and practices exists (Prati, 2024d). A limitation of these studies was that they did not include an assessment of mental illness. Well-being and mental illness are distinct phenomena (Westerhof & Keyes, 2010). Moreover, in some of these studies, an index of general religiosity encompassing different facets of religion was used instead of religious service attendance. A recent study investigated the within-person relationships between six separate dimensions of religion (including religious service attendance as a separate dimension) and depression (Prati, 2024a). The results revealed only a few significant lagged effects of religious service attendance on depression, and the sign of the significant relationships suggested a detrimental (rather than beneficial) effect of religious service attendance. One limitation of this study is that it was conducted in a secular country (i.e., Germany). The “religiosity as social value” hypothesis (Gebauer et al., 2012) suggests that the beneficial effects of religious service attendance might be found in countries that tend to value religiosity more. In countries with lower levels of secularization, such as the United States (Joshanloo & Gebauer, 2020), religious people might receive benefits (e.g., social support) as a consequence of religious service attendance. Finally, while examining within-person associations is informative, it is not sufficient for establishing causality. Marginal structural models offer a particularly promising approach for causal inference using longitudinal data (Rohrer & Murayama, 2023).

Purpose of the Present Study

The current research sought to examine the effects of religious service attendance on mental health using a causal inference perspective that is based on joint modeling of exposure and outcome as functions of confounders (Hernán & Robins, 2020; Loh & Ren, 2023). Mental health refers to both positive mental health and the absence of disorder (Westerhof & Keyes, 2010). Specifically, mental health was operationalized broadly, including diagnoses of three common mental disorders (i.e., major depressive episode [MDE], panic disorder [PD], and generalized anxiety disorder [GAD]; Steel et

al., 2014) and psychological well-being (PWB). Age, gender, and ethnicity were included as time-invariant confounders because previous research highlighted their association with religious service attendance (e.g., Hayward & Krause, 2013; Major-Smith et al., 2023; Robinson et al., 2022). As time-varying confounders, personality factors, self-rated physical health, income, perceived economic status, personality factors, and contact with friends were chosen because of their ability to predict mental health and/or regular religious service attendance. Specifically, contact with friends and self-rated physical health are considered predictors of both mental health (e.g., Cable et al., 2016; Hays et al., 1994) and religious service attendance (e.g., Cowden et al., 2022). Moreover, there is theory and evidence supporting the effect of income and perceived economic status on mental health (e.g., Prati, 2024c; Tan et al., 2020). Finally, personality traits such as neuroticism, conscientiousness, and extraversion were linked to mental health (Kotov et al., 2017). T1 variables allow for the control of confounding of the effect of the exposure measured at T2 on the outcome at T3. These T1 controls also include baseline measurements of the exposure (i.e., religious service attendance) and the outcomes. Following the approach used by Li et al. (2016), the marginal structural models were adjusted for past religious service attendance frequency and mental health outcome. Figure 1 displays the structural relationships among the variables in this study. The directed acyclic graph is adapted from the diagram presented by VanderWeele et al. (2016).

Method

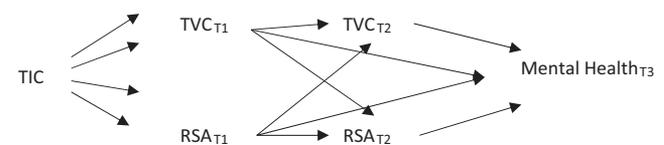
Transparency and Openness

American Psychological Association Style Journal Article Reporting Standards were followed to determine the sample size and all data exclusions and to describe all measures in the study. All data can be downloaded from the Midlife Development in the United States (MIDUS) Portal at <https://midus.wisc.edu/data/index.php>. Analysis codes are available (Prati, 2025a). Data were analyzed using R and the packages `pwrss` (Bulus, 2023), `mice` (van Buuren & Groothuis-Oudshoorn, 2011), `MatchThem` (Pishgar et al., 2021), `cobalt` (Greifer, 2024), and `RISCA` (Foucher, 2025). This study’s design and its analysis were not preregistered.

Design and Sample

Participants for this study ($n = 7,108$) were drawn from the MIDUS study. The first three waves of the MIDUS survey were

Figure 1
The Causal Diagram for This Study



Note. T denotes the time point. TIC = time-invariant covariates (i.e., age, gender, and ethnicity) measured at baseline; TVC = time-varying covariates (i.e., personality factors, self-rated physical health, economic status, personality factors, contact with friends, and past mental health and attendance); RSA = religious service attendance.

conducted in 1995–1996 (MIDUS 1 or M1; Brim et al., 2020), 2004–2005 (MIDUS 2 or M2; Ryff et al., 2021), and 2013–2014 (MIDUS 3 or M3; Ryff et al., 2019). In MIDUS, participants were drawn from a nationally representative sample of U.S. noninstitutionalized English-speaking adults. Data were collected through computer-assisted telephone interviewing and self-administered questionnaires. In MIDUS 1, the baseline sample included 7,108 participants. In the second and third follow-up surveys, participants were 4,963 and 3,294, respectively. An overall mortality-adjusted retention rate of 75% and 77% was found for MIDUS 2 and MIDUS 3, respectively (Radler & Ryff, 2010; Ryff & Krueger, 2018). The MIDUS study was reviewed and approved by the Education and Social/Behavioral Sciences and the Health Sciences Institutional Review Board at the University of Wisconsin–Madison (2016-1051). Informed consent was obtained from all participants. Detailed information on the study methods has been published elsewhere (e.g., Radler & Ryff, 2010; Ryff et al., 2004; Ryff & Krueger, 2018). Supplemental Table S1 displays the sample characteristics. The sample size was sufficiently large for detecting a small effect size (odds ratio equal to 1.50) in binary logistic regressions. Specifically, with an odds ratio of 1.50 and an α level of .05, 473 participants would be needed to achieve a statistical power of 0.80, assuming a squared multiple correlation of 0.20 between the main predictor and other covariates and a base probability of $p_0 = .15$ (Bulus, 2023).

Instrument

Dependent Variables

Mental health was assessed by obtaining (a) diagnoses for 12-month MDE, PD, and GAD and (b) participants' scores on PWB. Mental health diagnoses were assessed with the World Health Organization Composite International Diagnostic Interview Short Form (Kessler et al., 1998). The sensitivity of the Composite International Diagnostic Interview Short Form classification for MDE, GAD, and PD is 89.6%, 96.6%, and 90.0%, with a specificity of 93.9%, 99.8%, and 99.5%, respectively (Kessler et al., 1998). The Composite International Diagnostic Interview Short Form has been used for a variety of purposes, including the assessment of the prevalence of mental disorders in the general population (Wang et al., 2000). For each mental health diagnosis (i.e., MDE, PD, and GAD), one binary score was developed for each respondent, in which 0 indicated the absence of the disorder and 1 the presence of the disorder.

PWB was assessed using the theoretical model of PWB of Ryff (1989), encompassing six dimensions (i.e., personal growth, autonomy, positive relations with others, environmental mastery, purpose in life, and self-acceptance). Specifically, an 18-item scale was used (e.g., Ryff et al., 2004, 2015), with three items associated with each dimension. Participants were asked to report the extent to which the statements described them using a 7-point scale (from 1 = *strongly agree* to 7 = *strongly disagree*). Negative items were reverse-coded so that higher scores represented higher PWB. A score of PWB was constructed by calculating the sum of each dimension.

Treatment Variable

To assess frequent religious service attendance, the following question was used: "How often, if at all, do you attend religious

services or meetings?" Participants responded using the following options: once a week or more; less often but at least once a month; less often but at least once a year; never or practically never; only at weddings, funerals, etc. According to Cowden et al. (2022), the binary measure of religious service attendance ($<1\times/\text{week}$ or $\geq 1\times/\text{week}$) has been associated with better health and well-being. Therefore, frequent religious service attendance was modeled as a binary variable (0 = less than once a week; 1 = once a week or more).

Covariates

Neuroticism, conscientiousness, extraversion (personality factors), self-rated physical health, perceived economic status, and contact with friends were included as time-varying covariates. Neuroticism, conscientiousness, and extraversion were assessed via the Midlife Development Inventory Personality Scale (Lachman & Weaver, 1997), which is an adjectival measure of the Big Five employed in both MIDUS 1 and 2. Participants were asked how much each of 25 adjectives (for all five factors) described themselves on a scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 4 (*a lot*). Sample adjectives were moody, worrying, nervous, and calm (neuroticism); organized, responsible, hardworking, and careless (conscientiousness); and outgoing, friendly, lively, active, and talkative (extraversion). The Midlife Development Inventory Scale used in MIDUS 1 and 2 exhibited good validity and adequate reliability (e.g., Turiano et al., 2012). After reverse coding, personality trait scales were constructed by calculating the mean across each set of items, with greater scores indicating higher standings in each dimension. Self-rated physical health was assessed using one question ("In general, would you say your physical health is excellent, very good, good, fair, or poor?"). A higher score indicates better physical health. To measure perceived economic status, participants were asked to respond to the following question: "Using a scale from 0 to 10 where 0 means 'the worst possible financial situation' and 10 means 'the best possible financial situation,' how would you rate your financial situation these days?" Contact with friends was assessed using the following question: "How often are you in contact with any of your friends—including visits, phone calls, letters, or electronic mail messages?" Participants responded to this question using an 8-point scale ranging from 1 (*several times a day*) to 8 (*never or hardly ever*). Time-invariant covariates included age, gender (1 = man; 2 = woman), household income, and ethnicity (1 = White; 2 = minority ethnic groups).

Statistical Analysis

Marginal structural models were estimated. Propensity scores for marginal structural models were estimated using a binomial regression model (i.e., propensity score weighting using generalized linear models). Covariate balance was assessed using the R package *cobalt* (Greifer, 2024), while potential positivity violation was evaluated using a regression tree–based algorithm (Positivity Regression Trees; Danelian et al., 2023). To handle missing data, multiple imputation was employed using the R package *mice* (van Buuren & Groothuis-Oudshoorn, 2011). Marginal structural models on multiply imputed data sets were implemented using the R package *MatchThem* (Pishgar et al., 2021). Specifically, the following steps were performed: (a)

creation of the multiply imputed data sets ($N = 10$) stratified by exposure group (Zhang et al., 2023), (b) weighting on the imputed data sets, (c) extraction of the multiply imputed weighted data sets, (d) analysis of the model using each imputed data set, and (e) estimation of a single coefficient and standard errors after pooling the coefficients and standard errors estimated across the imputed data sets. To compute the variance of the estimated parameters, the asymptotically correct M-estimation-based method was used. The outcome model was adjusted for time-invariant and time-varying covariates. The inclusion of covariates in the outcome model not only improves precision and reduces any slight remaining imbalance but also conceptually aligns with the use of doubly robust estimators (Greifer & Stuart, 2021). In line with the approach of Li et al. (2016), analyses were adjusted for past religious service attendance and mental health.

Results

Balance and Positivity

Table 1 displays the balance table with absolute standardized mean difference, variance ratios, and Kolmogorov–Smirnov statistics. Data revealed that a satisfactory balance has been achieved. For instance, the absolute standardized mean differences were below the threshold of .25 proposed by Stuart et al. (2013). In addition, no potential positivity violation was identified using a regression tree-based algorithm (Danelian et al., 2023).

Main Results

Table 2 displays the results of marginal structural models examining the relationship between frequent religious service attendance (once a week or more) and MDE, GAD, PD, and PWB. Frequent religious service attendance was not significantly associated with a subsequent diagnosis of MDE. Similarly, frequent religious service attendance did not predict a subsequent diagnosis of GAD and PD. Finally, the relationship between frequent religious service attendance and subsequent PWB was statistically nonsignificant.

Table 1
Balance Measures

Covariate	MDE		GAD		PD		PWB	
	ASMD/RDP	KS	ASMD/RDP	KS	ASMD/RDP	KS	ASMD/RDP	KS
RSA	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
Physical health	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01
Contact with friends	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.02
Financial situation	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02
Mental health	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.03
Gender	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
Age	0.02	0.05	0.02	0.05	0.02	0.05	0.02	0.05
Ethnicity (White)	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01
Income	0.01	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.03
Extraversion	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.02
Neuroticism	0.01	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02
Conscientiousness	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.01

Note. MDE = major depressive episode; GAD = generalized anxiety disorder; PD = panic disorder; PWB = psychological well-being; ASMD = absolute standardized mean difference; RDP = raw differences in proportions; KS = Kolmogorov–Smirnov statistics; RSA = religious service attendance.

Robustness Analysis

To examine the robustness of the main findings, we repeated the analysis using information on religious service attendance in its original form. The covariate balancing generalized propensity score was used as the approach for calculating inverse probability weights for quasicontinuous ordinal exposures (Sack et al., 2023). Table 3 displays the findings. The main results remained robust even when using the original ordinal measure of religious service attendance.

Discussion

Religious service attendance has been viewed as a protective factor against mental disorders (e.g., Koenig et al., 2012; Moon et al., 2023; Rosmarin & Koenig, 2020; Schieman et al., 2013; VanderWeele, 2017a). However, the majority of the studies investigating the protective role of religious service attendance on mental health have had serious methodological limitations. The present study is an advancement over previous research because this work (a) justified the selection of each potential confounder based on background knowledge, (b) estimated and assessed balancing weights before fitting marginal structural models, (c) tested the positivity assumption, and (d) used appropriate methods to deal with missing data (i.e., multiple imputation). Moreover, to date, this is the second study to use marginal structural models to investigate the prospective relationship between religious service attendance and mental disorders.

The findings of the present study do not support the theory that religious service attendance is a protective factor against mental disorders. Specifically, religious service attendance did not predict later occurrences of MDE, GAD, PD, or changes in PWB. The role of both time-invariant and time-varying confounders was taken into account in the analyses. These time-invariant and time-varying variables may influence the frequency of religious service attendance and are likely associated with mental health due to shared underlying causes. The results of this study are in line with the findings of recent studies employing a different approach (i.e., the analysis of within-person relationships) to causal inference in longitudinal research. There is evidence that the within-person associations between religion variables and well-being are nonsignificant (Joiner et al., 2022; Joshanloo, 2021, 2022, 2024; Prati, 2024a, 2025b). That is, increases

Table 2

Results From Marginal Structural Models Examining the Relationship Between Frequent Religious Service Attendance (Once a Week or More) and MDE, GAD, PD, and PWB

Outcome and predictor	Estimate	SE	z	p	95% CI
MDE T3					
RSA T2	−0.09	0.16	−0.54	.595	[−0.43, 0.25]
GAD T3					
RSA T2	−0.63	0.41	−1.51	.150	[−1.51, 0.25]
PD T3					
RSA T2	−0.08	0.21	−0.37	.712	[−0.50, 0.35]
PWB T3					
RSA T2	−0.62	0.50	−1.25	.227	[−1.67, 0.42]

Note. T denotes the time point. MDE = major depressive episode; GAD = generalized anxiety disorder; PD = panic disorder; PWB = psychological well-being; SE = standard error; CI = confidence interval; RSA = religious service attendance.

in religious variables relative to an individual's typical levels were not followed by improvements in well-being. The findings of the present study regarding well-being corroborate the results of these studies. Two recent studies demonstrated that the within-person relationships between religious service attendance and depression do not support the theory that religious service attendance is a protective factor against mental disorders (Prati, 2024a, 2025c). However, these studies used an analytic approach that is valuable but not sufficient for causal inference (Rohrer & Murayama, 2023). Moreover, given that these studies were conducted in secular countries (i.e., Germany and the United Kingdom), their findings cannot be generalized to countries that tend to value religiosity more based on the "religiosity as social value" hypothesis (Gebauer et al., 2012). The present study was conducted in the United States, a country characterized by a lesser degree of secularization (Joshani & Gebauer, 2020). The findings of the current research using the approach of marginal structural models corroborate the results of these previous studies (Prati, 2024a, 2025b).

Implications for Theory

Abundant theoretical work indicates that religious service attendance is a powerful determinant of mental health (e.g., Koenig

Table 3

Results From Marginal Structural Models Examining the Relationship Between Religious Service Attendance (as a Quasicontinuous Ordinal Exposure) and MDE, GAD, PD, and PWB

Outcome and predictor	Estimate	SE	z	p	95% CI
MDE T3					
RSA T2	−0.01	0.11	−0.07	.941	[−0.22, 0.20]
GAD T3					
RSA T2	0.13	0.23	0.59	.555	[−0.32, 0.58]
PD T3					
RSA T2	0.08	0.13	0.62	.539	[−0.18, 0.34]
PWB T3					
RSA T2	0.26	0.49	0.53	.595	[−0.71, 1.23]

Note. T denotes the time point. MDE = major depressive episode; GAD = generalized anxiety disorder; PD = panic disorder; PWB = psychological well-being; SE = standard error; CI = confidence interval; RSA = religious service attendance.

et al., 2012; Moon et al., 2023; Rosmarin & Koenig, 2020; Schieman et al., 2013; VanderWeele, 2017a). The findings of the present study, in conjunction with previous research (Joiner et al., 2022; Joshani, 2021, 2022, 2024; Prati, 2024a, 2024d, 2025b), question the widespread assumption of a universal protective effect of religious service attendance on mental disorders and well-being. It is important to consider the complexity and diversity of individuals' religious experiences, practices, and meanings and how this heterogeneity can lead to a range of outcomes (Prati, 2024d). These findings have theoretical implications, highlighting the need to revise current models to clarify the conditions under which religious service attendance may or may not result in positive and negative effects on mental health.

Implications for Practice

The results of the present study should not be interpreted to mean that health professionals should neglect the role of religious faith, beliefs, and practices when working with clients, patients, and families. Yet at the same time, the idea that, among religious patients, health professionals should encourage religious service attendance among religious patients (Li et al., 2016) or raise the topic of spiritual community engagement (Balboni et al., 2022) to promote mental health may oversimplify the complex relationship between religion and mental well-being. Health professionals should recognize that religious service attendance is not necessarily a meaningful form of social participation (e.g., Ellison et al., 2009; Krause et al., 1998; Nooney & Woodrum, 2002) and that not every form of social participation has a beneficial effect on mental health (Prati, 2024b). Health professionals are expected to evaluate the existing evidence critically before offering specific advice.

Limitations

This study has several limitations that should be considered when interpreting its findings. First, the estimation of causal effects from observational data poses unique challenges and rests on four crucial assumptions: positivity, consistency, exchangeability, and noninterference. While positivity was tested, other assumptions can be challenging to justify defensively or are empirically untestable. Another limitation involves measurement error and response biases, such as social desirability and recall bias. Methodological artifacts can introduce biases, either by attenuating true effects or by implying effects where none exist. While there is a debate in the literature as to whether religious service attendance is overreported in surveys (e.g., Hadaway et al., 1993; Hout & Greeley, 1998; Woodberry, 1998), Li et al. (2016) argued that the relative ordering of frequency might still be preserved with overreporting. A third limitation concerns potential model misspecification. A fourth is that the findings of the present study cannot rule out the hypothesis that different results would have been obtained using a more fine-grained temporal resolution. However, previous research employing a shorter time lag confirmed the results of the present study (Prati, 2024a, 2025b). In addition, a shorter timeframe would suggest that the effect of religious service attendance is transient. Another limitation concerns the multidimensional nature of the construct of mental health. In the present study, the focus was on MDE, PD, GAD, and PWB. However, mental health encompasses dimensions that were not captured in the present study. Moreover,

given the importance of insomnia for mental health (Nguyen et al., 2022), future studies may also focus on sleep quality as a possible outcome of religious service attendance. Last, caution is needed when generalizing these results to cultural or demographic groups. Although these findings are in line with those obtained in other countries such as Germany and the United Kingdom (Prati, 2024a, 2025b), a generalization to other cultural or demographic groups requires additional research.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the results raise the question of whether the relationship between religious service attendance and mental health is spurious rather than causal, as previously hypothesized. Although the findings do not rule out a causal role of religious service attendance in specific groups of people and contexts, they raise substantive questions about the validity of models that assume a universal causal effect of religious service attendance. The present study demonstrated that frequent religious service attendance per se, without taking other factors and conditions into account, is not a protective factor for common mental disorders and well-being.

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