

Research Article

Alcohol and Substance Abuse in the General Population during the COVID-19 Pandemic: Results of the COMET-G International Study

Elias Tzavellas^{1*}, Vasilopoulos Efthimios¹, Panagiota Bompoti², Seri Abraham³⁻⁵, Kristina Adorjan⁶, Helal Uddin Ahmed⁷, Renato D Alarcón^{8,9}, Kiyomi Arai¹⁰, Sani Salihu Auwal^{11,12}, Michael Berk^{13,14}, Sarah Bjedov¹⁵, Julio Bobes^{16,17}, Teresa Bobes-Bascaran^{18,19}, Julie Bourgin-Duchesnay²⁰, Cristina Ana Bredecean²¹, Laurynas Bukelskis²², Akaki Burkadze^{23,24}, Indira Indiana Cabrera Abud²⁵, Ruby Castilla-Puentes²⁶, Marcelo Cetkovich^{27,28}, Hector Colon-Rivera²⁹, Ricardo Corral^{30,31}, Carla Cortez-Vergara³², Piirika Crepin³³, Domenico De Berardis³⁴⁻³⁶, Sergio Zamora Delgado³⁷, David De Lucena³⁸, Avinash De Sousa^{39,40}, Ramona Di Stefano⁴¹, Seetal Dodd^{13,14,42}, Livia Priyanka Elek⁴³, Anna Elissa⁴⁴, Berta Erdelyi-Hamza⁴³, Gamze Erzin^{45,46}, Martin J Etchevers⁴⁷, Peter Falkai⁶, Adriana Farcas⁴⁸, Ilya Fedotov⁴⁹, Viktoriia Filatova⁵⁰, Nikolaos K Fountoulakis⁵¹, Iryna Frankova⁵², Francesco Franza^{53,54}, Pedro Frias⁵⁵, Tatiana Galako⁵⁶, Cristian J Garay⁴⁷, Leticia Garcia-Álvarez¹⁹, Maria Paz García-Portilla^{16,57}, Xenia Gonda⁴³, Tomasz M Gondek⁵⁸, Daniela Morera González⁵⁹, Hilary Gould⁶⁰, Paolo Grandinetti³⁴, Arturo Grau^{37,61}, Violeta Groudeva⁶², Michal Hagin⁶³, Takayuki Harada⁶⁴, Tasdik M Hasan^{65,66}, Nurul Azreen Hashim⁶⁷, Jan Hilbig²², Sahadat Hossain⁶⁸, Rossitza Iakimova⁶⁹, Mona Ibrahim⁷⁰, Felicia Iftene⁷¹, Yulia Ignatenko⁷², Matias Irrarrazaval⁷³, Zaliha Ismail⁷⁴, Jamila Ismayilova⁷⁵, Asaf Jacobs^{76,77}, Miro Jakovljević⁷⁸, Nenad Jakšić¹⁵, Afzal Javed⁷⁹⁻⁸¹, Helin Yilmaz Kafali⁸², Sagar Karia³⁹, Olga Kazakova⁸³, Doaa Khalifa⁷⁰, Olena Khaustova⁵², Steve Koh⁶⁰, Korneliia Kosenko⁸⁶, Sotirios A Koupidis⁸⁷, Alisha Lalljee⁴⁰, Justine Liewig²⁰, Abdul Majid⁸⁸, Evgeniia Malashonkova²⁰, Khamelia Malik⁴⁴, Najma Iqbal Malik⁸⁹, Gulay Mammadzada⁹⁰, Bilvesh Mandalia⁴⁰, Donatella Marazziti⁹¹⁻⁹³, Darko Marčinko^{15,78}, Stephanie Martinez⁶⁰, Eimantas Matiekus²², Gabriela Mejia⁶⁰, Roha Saeed Memon⁹⁴, Xarah Elenne Meza Martínez⁹⁵, Dalia Mickevičiūtė⁹⁶, Roumen Milev⁷¹, Muftau Mohammed⁹⁷, Alejandro Molina-López⁹⁸, Petr Morozov⁹⁹, Nuru Suleiman Muhammad¹⁰⁰, Filip Mustač¹⁵, Mika S Naor¹⁰¹, Amira Nassieb⁷⁰, Alvydas Navickas²², Tarek Okasha⁷⁰, Milena Pandova⁶⁹, Anca-Livia Panfil¹⁰², Liliya Panteleeva¹⁰³, Ion Papava²¹, Mikaella E Patsali^{104,105}, Alexey Pavlichenko⁷², Bojana Pejuskovic^{106,107}, Mariana Pinto Da Costa¹⁰⁸⁻¹¹⁰, Mikhail Popkov¹¹¹, Dina Popovic¹¹², Nor Jannah Nasution Raduan⁶⁷, Francisca Vargas Ramírez^{37,61}, Elmars Rancans^{113,114}, Salmi Razali⁶⁷, Federico Rebok^{115,116}, Anna Rewekant¹¹⁷, Elena Ninoska Reyes Flores¹¹⁸, María Teresa Rivera-Encinas¹¹⁹, Pilar Saiz^{16,18}, Manuel Sánchez de Carmona¹²⁰, David Saucedo Martínez¹²¹, Jo Anne Saw⁶⁷, Görkem Saygili¹²², Patricia Schneiderreit¹²³, Bhumika Shah¹²⁴, Tomohiro Shirasaka¹²⁵, Ketevan Silagadze²³, Satti Sitanggang¹²⁶, Oleg Skugarevsky¹²⁷, Anna Spikina¹²⁸, Sridevi Sira Mahalingappa¹²⁹, Maria Stoyanova⁶⁹, Anna Szczegielniak¹³⁰, Simona Claudia Tamasan¹⁰², Giuseppe Tavormina^{54,131,132}, Maurilio Giuseppe Maria Tavormina⁵⁴, Pavlos N Theodorakis¹³³, Mauricio Tohen¹³⁴, Eva Maria Tsapakis^{135,136}, Dina Tukhvatullina¹³⁷, Irfan Ullah¹³⁸, Ratnaraj Vaidya¹³⁹, Johann M Vega-Dienstmaier¹⁴⁰, Jelena Vrublevska^{113,114,141}, Olivera Vukovic^{106,142}, Olga Vysotska¹⁴³, Natalia Widiasih⁴⁴, Anna Yashikhina^{84,144}, Konstantinos N Fountoulakis⁵¹ and Daria Smirnova^{84,144}



- ¹Department of Psychiatry, Eginition Hospital, University of Athens, Greece
- ^{2,3rd} Department of Psychiatry, School of Medicine, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki Greece, Thessaloniki, Greece
- ³Pennine Care NHS Foundation Trust, United Kingdom
- ⁴Manchester Metropolitan University, Manchester, United Kingdom
- ⁵Core Psychiatry training, Health Education England North West, United Kingdom
- ⁶Department of Psychiatry, Ludwig-Maximilians-University, Munich, Germany
- ⁷Child Adolescent and Family Psychiatry, National Institute of Mental Health, Dhaka, Bangladesh
- ⁸Section of Psychiatry and Mental Health, Universidad Peruana Cayetano Heredia, Facultad de Medicina Alberto Hurtado, Lima, Peru
- ⁹Department of Psychiatry and Psychology, Mayo Clinic School of Medicine, Rochester, MN, USA
- ¹⁰School of Medicine and Health Science, Institute of Health Science Shinshu University, Matsumoto, Japan
- ¹¹Department of Psychiatry, Bayero University, Kano, Nigeria
- ¹²Aminu Kano Teaching Hospital, Kano, Nigeria
- ¹³IMPACT – the Institute for Mental and Physical Health and Clinical Translation, Deakin University, School of Medicine, Barwon Health, Geelong, Australia
- ¹⁴Orygen the National Centre of Excellence in Youth Mental Health, Centre for Youth Mental Health, Florey Institute for Neuroscience and Mental Health and the Department of Psychiatry, The University of Melbourne, Melbourne, Australia
- ¹⁵Department of Psychiatry and Psychological Medicine, University Hospital Centre Zagreb, Zagreb, Croatia
- ¹⁶Psychiatry Area, Department of Medicine, University of Oviedo, Oviedo, ISPA, INEUROPA. CIBERSAM, Spain
- ¹⁷Department of Psychiatry, Hospital Universitario Central de Asturias, Oviedo, ISPA, INEUROPA. CIBERSAM, Spain
- ¹⁸Mental Health Center of La Corredoria, Oviedo, ISPA, INEUROPA. CIBERSAM, Spain
- ¹⁹Department of Psychology, University of Oviedo, Oviedo, Spain, ISPA, INEUROPA. CIBERSAM, Spain
- ²⁰Division of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, Department of Psychiatry, Groupe Hospitalier Nord Essonne, Orsay, France
- ²¹Department of Neuroscience, Discipline of Psychiatry, “Victor Babes” University of Medicine and Pharmacy, Timisoara, Romania
- ²²Clinic of Psychiatry, Institute of Clinical Medicine, Medical Faculty, Vilnius University, Vilnius, Lithuania
- ²³Mental Hub, Tbilisi, Georgia
- ²⁴NGO Healthcare Research and Quality Agency, Tbilisi, Georgia
- ²⁵Hospital San Juan de Dios Hospital, Guadalajara, Mexico
- ²⁶Janssen Research and Development, Johnson & Johnson, American Society of Hispanic Psychiatry and WARMI Women Mental Health, Cincinnati, Ohio, USA
- ²⁷Institute of Translational and Cognitive Neuroscience (INCYT), INECO Foundation, Favaloro University, Buenos Aires, Argentina
- ²⁸National Scientific and Technical Research Council (CONICET), Buenos Aires, Argentina
- ²⁹APM Board Certified in General Psychiatry and Neurology, Addiction Psychiatry, & Addiction Medicine, UPMC, DDAP, Philadelphia, USA
- ³⁰Department of Teaching and Research, Hospital Borda, Buenos Aires, Argentina
- ³¹University of Buenos Aires, Buenos Aires, Argentina
- ³²Universidad Peruana Cayetano Heredia, Clínica AngloAmericana, Lima, Perú
- ³³Sanitaire and Social Union for Accompaniment and Prevention, Center of Ambulatory Psychiatry of Narbonne and Lezigan, Narbonne, France
- ³⁴Department of Mental Health, Psychiatric Service of Diagnosis and Treatment, Hospital “G. Mazzini”, ASL Teramo, Teramo, Italy
- ³⁵School of Nursing, University of L’Aquila, Italy
- ³⁶Department of Neuroscience and Imaging, School of Psychiatry, University of Chieti, Chieti, Italy
- ³⁷Child and Adolescent Psychiatry Department, Hospital Luis Calvo Mackenna, Santiago, Chile
- ³⁸Departamento de Fisiología e Farmacología, Universidade Federal do Ceará, Fortaleza, Ceará, Brazil
- ³⁹Department of Psychiatry, Lokmanya Tilak Municipal Medical College, Mumbai, India
- ⁴⁰Desousa Foundation, Mumbai, India
- ⁴¹Department of Biotechnological and Applied Clinical Sciences, Section of Psychiatry, University of L’Aquila, L’Aquila, Italy
- ⁴²University Hospital Geelong, Barwon Health, Geelong, Victoria, Australia
- ⁴³Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, Semmelweis University, Budapest, Hungary
- ⁴⁴Department of Psychiatry, Faculty of Medicine, Universitas Indonesia, Cipto Mangunkusumo National Referral Hospital, Jakarta, Indonesia
- ⁴⁵Psychiatry department, Ankara diskapi training and research hospital, Ankara, Turkey
- ⁴⁶Department of Psychiatry and Neuropsychology, School for Mental Health and Neuroscience, Maastricht University Medical Center, Maastricht, The Netherlands
- ⁴⁷Faculty of Psychology, University of Buenos Aires (UBA), Buenos Aires, Argentina
- ⁴⁸Centre of Neuroscience, Queen’s University, Kingston, Ontario, Canada
- ⁴⁹Department of Psychiatry and Narcology, Ryazan State Medical University n.a. academician I.P. Pavlov, Ryazan, Russia
- ⁵⁰State Budgetary Institution of the Rostov Region “Psychoneurological Dispensary”, Rostov-on-Don, Russia
- ⁵¹Faculty of Medicine, Medical University of Sofia, Bulgaria
- ⁵²Medical Psychology, Psychosomatic Medicine and Psychotherapy Department, Bogomolets National Medical University, Kyiv, Ukraine
- ⁵³“Villa dei Pini” Psychiatric Rehabilitation Center, Avellino, Italy
- ⁵⁴Psychiatric Studies Centre, Provaglio d’Iseo, Italy
- ⁵⁵Hospital Magalhães Lemos, Porto, Portugal
- ⁵⁶Department of Psychiatry, Medical Psychology and Drug Abuse, Kyrgyz State Medical Academy, Bishkek, Kyrgyz Republic
- ⁵⁷Mental Health Center of La Ería, Oviedo, ISPA, INEUROPA. CIBERSAM, Spain
- ⁵⁸Specialty Training Section, Polish Psychiatric Association, Wroclaw, Poland



- ⁵⁹Instituto Nacional de Psiquiatría Ramón De la Fuente Muñiz, Mexico City, Mexico
- ⁶⁰Department of Psychiatry, University of California San Diego, San Diego, USA
- ⁶¹Universidad Diego Portales, Santiago, Chile
- ⁶²Department of Diagnostic Imaging, University Hospital Saint Ekaterina, Sofia, Bulgaria
- ⁶³Forensic Psychiatry Unit, Abarbanel Mental Health Center, Israel
- ⁶⁴Faculty of Human Sciences, Education Bureau of the Laboratory Schools, University of Tsukuba, Tokyo, Japan
- ⁶⁵Department of Primary Care & Mental Health, University of Liverpool, Liverpool, United Kingdom
- ⁶⁶Public Health Foundation, Dhaka, Bangladesh
- ⁶⁷Department of Psychiatry, Faculty of Medicine, Universiti Teknologi MARA, Sungai Buloh, Selangor, Malaysia
- ⁶⁸Department of Public Health & Informatics, Jahangirnagar University, Dhaka, Bangladesh
- ⁶⁹Second Psychiatric Clinic, University Hospital for Active Treatment in Neurology and Psychiatry “Saint Naum”, Sofia, Bulgaria
- ⁷⁰Okasha Institute of Psychiatry, Faculty of Medicine, Ain Shams University, Cairo, Egypt
- ⁷¹Department of Psychiatry, Queens University, Kingston, Ontario, Canada
- ⁷²Education center, Mental Health Clinic No 1 n.a. Alexeev of Moscow Healthcare Department, Moscow, Russia
- ⁷³Ministry of Health, Millenium Institute for Research in Depression and Personality, Santiago, Chile
- ⁷⁴Department of Public Health Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, Universiti Teknologi MARA, Sungai Buloh, Selangor, Malaysia
- ⁷⁵National Mental Health Center of the Ministry of Health of the Republic of Azerbaijan, Baku, Azerbaijan
- ⁷⁶Department of Psychiatry, Westchester Medical Center Health System, Valhalla, NY, USA
- ⁷⁷New York Medical College, Valhalla, NY, USA
- ⁷⁸School of Medicine, University of Zagreb, Zagreb, Croatia
- ⁷⁹Institute of Applied Health Research, University of Birmingham, United Kingdom
- ⁸⁰Warwick Medical School, University of Warwick, United Kingdom
- ⁸¹Pakistan Psychiatric Research Centre, Fountain House, Lahore, Pakistan
- ⁸²Child Psychiatry Department, Ankara city hospital, Ankara, Turkey
- ⁸³Faculty of Medicine, Lund University, Malmö, Sweden
- ⁸⁴International Centre for Education and Research in Neuropsychiatry (ICERN), Samara State Medical University, Samara, Russia
- ⁸⁵Kirov State Medical University, Kirov, Russia
- ⁸⁶Psychiatry, Drug abuse and Psychology Department, Odessa National Medical University, Odessa, Ukraine
- ⁸⁷Occupational & Environmental Health Sector, Public Health Policy
- ⁸⁸Department of Psychiatry, SKIMS Medical College, Srinagar, India
- ⁸⁹Department of Psychology, University of Sargodha, Sargodha, Pakistan
- ⁹⁰Department of Psychiatry, Azerbaijan Medical University, Baku, Azerbaijan
- ⁹¹Department of Clinical and Experimental Medicine, Section of Psychiatry, University of Pisa, Pisa, Italy
- ⁹²Unicamillus, Saint Camillus International University of Health Sciences, Rome, Italy
- ⁹³Brain Research Foundation onus, Lucca, Italy
- ⁹⁴Dow Medical College, Dow University of Health Sciences, Karachi, Pakistan
- ⁹⁵Postgraduate Program in Psychiatry, National Autonomous University of Honduras, Tegucigalpa, Honduras
- ⁹⁶Private outpatient clinics “JSC InMedica klinika”, Vilnius, Lithuania
- ⁹⁷Department of Clinical Services, Federal Neuropsychiatric Hospital, Kaduna, Nigeria
- ⁹⁸General Office for the Psychiatric Services of the Ministry of Health, Mexico City, Mexico
- ⁹⁹Department of Postgraduate Education, Russian National Research Medical University n.a. N.I. Pirogov, Moscow, Russia
- ¹⁰⁰Department of Community Medicine, Ahmadu Bello University Teaching Hospital, Zaria, Nigeria
- ¹⁰¹Sackler School of Medicine New York State American Program, Tel Aviv University, Tel Aviv-Yafo, Israel
- ¹⁰²Compartment of Liaison Psychiatry, “Pius Brinzeu” County Emergency Clinical Hospital, Timisoara, Romania
- ¹⁰³Department of Medical Psychology, Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, Kyrgyz-Russian Slavic University, Bishkek, Kyrgyz Republic
- ¹⁰⁴School of Social Sciences, Hellenic Open University, Patras, Greece
- ¹⁰⁵Department of Internal Medicine, Nicosia General Hospital, Nicosia, Cyprus
- ¹⁰⁶Faculty of Medicine, University of Belgrade, Belgrade, Serbia
- ¹⁰⁷Clinical Department for Crisis and Affective Disorders, Institute of Mental Health, Belgrade, Serbia
- ¹⁰⁸South London and Maudsley NHS Foundation Trust, London, United Kingdom
- ¹⁰⁹Institute of Psychiatry, Psychology & Neuroscience, King’s College London, London, United Kingdom
- ¹¹⁰Institute of Biomedical Sciences Abel Salazar, University of Porto, Porto, Portugal
- ¹¹¹Department of the Introduction to Internal Medicine and Family Medicine, International Higher School of Medicine, Bishkek, Kyrgyz Republic
- ¹¹²Abarbanel Mental Health Center, Bat-Yam, Israel
- ¹¹³Department of Psychiatry and Narcology, Riga Stradins University, Riga, Latvia
- ¹¹⁴Riga Centre of Psychiatry and Narcology, Riga, Latvia
- ¹¹⁵Servicio de Emergencia, Acute inpatient Unit, Hospital Moyano, Buenos Aires, Argentina
- ¹¹⁶Argentine Institute of Clinical Psychiatry (IAPC), Buenos Aires, Argentina
- ¹¹⁷General Psychiatry Unit I, Greater Poland Neuropsychiatric Center, Kościan, Poland



- ¹¹⁸Department of Psychiatry, National Autonomous University of Honduras, Tegucigalpa, Honduras
- ¹¹⁹Centro de Investigación en Salud Pública, Facultad de Medicina, Universidad de San Martín de Porres, Instituto Nacional de Salud Mental “Honorio Delgado – Hideyo Noguchi”, Lima, Perú
- ¹²⁰Faculty of Health Sciences, Anahuac University, Mexico City, Mexico
- ¹²¹Department of Psychiatry. Escuela Nacional de Medicina, TEC de Monterrey. Servicio de geriatría. Hospital Universitario “José Eleuterio González” UANL. Monterrey, Nuevo León México
- ¹²²Assistant Professor at Cognitive Science and Artificial Intelligence Department Tilburg University
- ¹²³Klinik für Allgemeine Psychiatrie und Psychotherapie Ost, Psychiatrische Institutsambulanz, Klinikum am Weissenhof, Weissenhof, Germany
- ¹²⁴DY Patil Medical College, Navi Mumbai, India
- ¹²⁵Department of Psychiatry, Teine Keijinkai Medical Center, Sapporo, Japan
- ¹²⁶Psychiatric Unit, Pambalah Batung General Hospital, South Kalimantan, Amuntai, Indonesia
- ¹²⁷Department of Psychiatry and Medical Psychology, Belarusian State Medical University, Minsk, Belarus
- ¹²⁸Saint Petersburg Psychoneurological Dispensary No2, Saint Petersburg, Russia
- ¹²⁹Derbyshire Healthcare NHS Foundation Trust, The Liaison Team, Royal Derby Hospital, Derby, Derbyshire, United Kingdom
- ¹³⁰Department of Psychiatric Rehabilitation, Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, Faculty of Medical Sciences in Katowice, Medical University of Silesia, Poland
- ¹³¹European Depression Association and Italian Association on Depression, Brussels, Belgium
- ¹³²Bedfordshire Center for Mental Health Research in association with the University of Cambridge, United Kingdom
- ¹³³Health Policy, WHO Regional Office for Europe
- ¹³⁴Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, School of Medicine, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, New Mexico, USA
- ¹³⁵“Agiost Charalambos” Mental Health Clinic, Heraklion, Crete, Greece
- ¹³⁶1st Department of Academic Psychiatry, School of Medicine, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Greece
- ¹³⁷Centre for Global Public Health, Institute of Population Health Sciences, Queen Mary University of London, London, United Kingdom
- ¹³⁸Kabir Medical College, Gandhara University, Peshawar, Pakistan
- ¹³⁹Faculty of Medical Sciences, Newcastle University, Newcastle upon Tyne, United Kingdom
- ¹⁴⁰Facultad de Medicina Alberto Hurtado, Universidad Peruana Cayetano Heredia, Lima, Perú
- ¹⁴¹Institute of Public Health, Riga Stradins University, Riga, Latvia
- ¹⁴²Department for Research and Education, Institute of Mental Health, Belgrade, Serbia
- ¹⁴³Educational and Research Center - Ukrainian Family Medicine Training Center, Bogomolets National Medical University, Kyiv, Ukraine
- ¹⁴⁴Department of Psychiatry, Narcology, Psychotherapy and Clinical Psychology, Samara State Medical University, Samara, Russia

More Information

*Address for correspondence:

Elias Tzavellas, Department of Psychiatry, Eginition Hospital, University of Athens, Greece, Email: etzavell@med.uoa.gr

Received: February 21, 2024

Approved: April 12, 2024

Published: April 15, 2024

How to cite this article: Tzavellas E, Efthimios V, Bompoti P, Abraham S, Adorjan K, et al. Alcohol and Substance Abuse in the General Population during the COVID-19 Pandemic: Results of the COMET-G International Study. *Insights Depress Anxiety*. 2024; 8: 010-025.

DOI: 10.29328/journal.ida.1001041

Copyright license: © 2024 Tzavellas E, et al. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Keywords: COVID-19; Alcohol; Smoking; Substance use; Depression; Suicidality; Anxiety

Abbreviations: COMET-G: COVID-19 Mental Health International for the General Population; COVID-19: Coronavirus Disease 2019; SARS: Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome; ANOVA: Analysis of Variance; CES-D: Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale; STAI-S: State-Trait Anxiety Inventory – State; RASS: Richmond Agitation-Sedation Scale; MFSRLRA: Multiple Forward Stepwise Linear Regression Analysis; RR: Relative Risk





Abstract

The global impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on mental health and substance use behaviors has sparked extensive research efforts. The COMET-G international study, organized by the Department of Medicine and the Rectorate of the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki in collaboration with the World Psychiatric Association, delved into these issues. Running from March 2020 to April 2021, the study collected responses from 55,589 individuals across 40 countries. Through a comprehensive questionnaire, participants provided insights into their mental state, attitudes toward the pandemic, and the resultant changes in their personal and daily lives. Findings revealed, among other things, significant patterns of change in substance use, with notable correlations between reduced usage and the severity of lockdown measures among non-binary individuals. Mental health history emerged as a strong predictor of substance use changes, with influences from anxiety disorders, depression, and self-harm. Additionally, family and social dynamics, including economic expectations and household composition, significantly shaped substance use behaviors during lockdowns. Given these findings, the development of comprehensive approaches targeting the adverse effects of the pandemic on individual behaviors and general welfare is crucial.

Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic has resulted in substantial challenges at an international level, affecting various aspects of human existence, including mental health, patterns of substance misuse, and coping mechanisms. An onslaught of research efforts has been prompted by this turbulent environment in an attempt to comprehend its complex effects on human health and behavior. Although previous research has examined the overall impacts of substance use and mental health, there is a notable knowledge gap regarding the precise effects of sociodemographic factors, mental health background, and familial dynamics on fluctuations in alcohol consumption, smoking, and illicit substance use amidst the worldwide health emergency.

The primary objective of the researchers is to highlight any changes in levels of substance use during the pandemic. Secondly, their objective is to ascertain the attributes that can serve as predictors of alterations in said behaviors. A thorough analysis of these components contributes to a more precise comprehension of how individuals navigate the complexities associated with lockdowns, societal disruptions, and the impending economic uncertainties that are linked to the ongoing global health crisis.

Historical data about past pandemics and crises can offer a contextual framework for comprehending the possible transformations in substance utilization amidst periods of adversity. An instance of this can be seen in the correlation between elevated levels of psychological distress and heightened smoking and alcohol consumption during the 2003 SARS outbreak [1-3]. Likewise, inquiries into the consequences of the terrorist attacks that occurred on September 11th unveiled a surge in the consumption of cigarettes, alcohol, and marijuana within the populations that were impacted [4-17].

Moreover, it is widely recognized that there exists a multifaceted relationship between substance use and mental health, whereby individuals frequently turn to substances as a means of managing mental health sequelae [18-21].

The current pandemic is characterized by stressful life experiences, which have been widely acknowledged as significant determinants in shaping patterns of alcohol consumption and substance use [22-29]. There is a suggestion

that in response to collective stressors, individuals may adopt coping strategies, which can be positive or negative [30]. While certain individuals may reduce their substance use as a protective mechanism, others may revert to these behaviors as maladaptive coping mechanisms.

To address this disparity, the present study employs the all-encompassing approach described in Fountoulakis, et al. [31]. The primary aim of the current study was to identify any fluctuations in substance use behaviors and, secondly, to canvass predictors and patterns that account for any observed fluctuations. An additional aim of the study was to provide pragmatic knowledge for public health endeavors and interventions that specifically address the adverse consequences of the pandemic on substance addiction and mental health.

Materials and methods

Method

The protocol used is referred to in Fountoulakis, et al. [31] and gathered sociodemographic data, data about somatic and mental health history, and data concerning the COVID-19 pandemic including lockdown intensity (Completely, To a high degree, Partially, Not at all). It also included six questions about alcohol use, smoking, and substance abuse as follows:

- M1. Smoking before the epidemic (I didn't smoke/I was smoking)
- M2. Alcohol use before the epidemic (I did not drink much/I drank a lot, more than one drink or its equivalent every day)
- M3. Use of illegal substances before the epidemic (e.g. hashish) (I did not use it/Occasionally and rather rarely/Often)
- M4. During lockdown, you smoke (...) compared to before (More than before/Same as before/Less than before)
- M5. During lockdown, you drink alcohol (...) compared to before (More than before/same as before/Less than before)
- M6. While isolated at home, you use illegal substances (...) compared to before (More than before/same as before/Less than before)



Depression was assessed with the use of the CES-D [32-34] and anxiety with the STAI-S [35]. The RASS [34] was used to assess suicidality.

The data were collected online and anonymously from April 2020 through March 2021, covering periods of full implementation of lockdowns as well as of relaxations of measures in countries around the world. Announcements and advertisements were made on social media and through news sites, but no other organized effort had been undertaken. The first page included a declaration of consent which everybody accepted by continuing with the participation.

Approval was initially given by the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Medicine, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Greece, and locally concerning each participating country.

The study sample included data from 40 countries concerning 55,589 responses (64.85% females; 34.05% males; 1.10% other) to the online questionnaire. The contribution of each country and the gender and age composition has been published previously as well as details concerning various sociodemographic variables (marital status, education, work, etc.) [31].

The study population was self-selected. It was not possible to apply post-stratification on the sample as it was done in a previous study [33], because this would mean that we would utilize a similar methodology across many different countries and the population data needed were not available for all.

- The six items about alcohol, smoking, and substance abuse were handled both as categorical variables but also as continuous variables taking into consideration the rank nature of their scoring as well as the big size of the study sample. Chi-square tests were used for the comparison of frequencies when categorical variables were present and for the post hoc analysis of the results a Bonferroni-corrected method of pair-wise comparisons was utilized [36].
- Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to test differences among groups
- Pearson Correlation Coefficient (R) was used to test for relationships between continuous variables
- Multiple forward stepwise linear regression analysis (MFSRLRA) was performed to investigate which variables could function as predictors and contribute to the development of others (e.g. depression).

Results

Demographics

The study sample included data from 40 countries. In total responses were gathered from 55,589 participants, aged 35.45 ± 13.51 years old; 36047 females (64.84%; aged

35.80 ± 13.61) and 18927 males (34.05%; aged 34.90 ± 13.29), while 615 declared 'non-binary gender' (1.11%; aged 31.64 ± 13.15). One-third of the study sample was living in the country's capital and an additional almost one-fifth in a city of more than one million inhabitants. Half were married or living with someone while 10.41% were living alone. Half had no children at all and approximately 75% had a bachelor's degree or higher. In terms of employment, 23.54% were civil servants, 37.06% were working in the private sector, 18.35% were college or university students while the rest were retired or were not working for a variety of reasons; of these, 33.86% did not work during lockdowns. The detailed composition of the study sample has been published in detail previously [31].

The effect of the COVID-19 pandemic on smoking, alcohol and substance abuse

Overall and concerning the total study sample, 21.95% of females, 28.67% of males, and 24.07% of 'non-binary gender' reported that they were smoking before the pandemic (24.26% of the total study sample, $df = 2$, $\chi^2 = 1.387$, $p = 0.499$). The respective rates concerning alcohol abuse were 6.55%, 12.85%, and 17.07 (8.81% of the total study sample, $df = 2$, $\chi^2 = 4.686$, $p = 0.096$), and concerning illegal substances were 5.61%, 9.71% and 18.05% (7.14% of total study sample, $df = 2$, $\chi^2 = 7.430$, $p = 0.024$). Concerning substance abuse before the pandemic the difference was specifically significant concerning females vs. 'nonbinary gender' ($df = 1$, $\chi^2 = 6.818$, $p = 0.009$).

Although smoking was increased by some and decreased by others during the lockdown, more people reduced than increased smoking (females 29.29% vs. 9.03%; males 32.54% vs. 10.54%; 'nonbinary gender' 35.28% vs. 16.10%; total study sample 30.46% vs. 9.62%). The pattern was similar with alcohol (females 30.88% vs. 10.42%; males 34.64% vs. 11.33%; 'nonbinary gender' 26.67% vs. 15.93%; total study sample 32.11% vs. 10.79%) and with substance abuse (females 32.68% vs. 2.12%; males 37.91% vs. 5.70%; 'nonbinary gender' 38.37% vs. 12.36%; total study

Sample 34.52% vs. 3.45%). There was no difference between genders concerning the percentages of reduction ($df = 2$, $\chi^2 = 0.720$, $p = 0.868$), but there was concerning the increase ($df = 2$, $\chi^2 = 8.143$, $p = 0.017$), which was due to the difference between females vs. 'nonbinary gender' ($df = 1$, $\chi^2 = 7.680$, $p = 0.005$).

Interestingly, only in 'non-binary gender', the degree of lockdown was related to higher reporting of non-smoking ($df = 3$, $\chi^2 = 20.495$, $p = 0.001$; $RR = 1.17-1.41$), non-alcohol abuse ($df = 3$, $\chi^2 = 16.015$, $p = 0.001$; $1.17-1.32$) and non-abuse of illegal substances ($df = 3$, $\chi^2 = 13.094$, $p = 0.004$; $1.11-1.27$) before the lockdown.

Only in 'non-binary gender', a reduction was related to the degree of lockdown only concerning smoking ($df = 3$, $\chi^2 =$



square = 68.374, $p = 0.001$; RR = 1.42-1.80) and an increase was inversely related to the degree of lockdown only concerning illegal substance abuse (df = 3, chi-square = 11.509, $p = 0.009$; RR = 0.25-0.75).

Age correlated weakly but significantly ($p < 0.05$) with smoking (R = 0.04), alcohol abuse (R = 0.01), and illegal substance use (R = -0.09) before the lockdown. Interestingly advanced age was positively correlated ($p < 0.05$) with the increase in the use of all substances during the lockdown.

In comparison to no-lockdown, complete lockdown puts the person at approximately RR = 1.4-1.5 times to either increase or decrease smoking, RR = 1.46 to decrease alcohol, and 1.4-1.6 to either increase or decrease illegal substance use.

The detailed results of substance use patterns by gender and lockdown measures presence are shown in Table 1.

Relationship of substance use changes with anxiety, depression, suicidality, and a history of mental health

The complete results concerning mental health during the pandemic will only briefly be mentioned here and are referred to in Fountoulakis, et al. [31]. From the total study sample, 47.41% reported an increase in anxiety, and 40.28% reported an increase in depressive feelings. Suicidal thoughts were increased by 10.83%. Overall, current probable depression was present in 20.49% of females, 12.36% of males, and 27.64% of those registered as 'non-binary gender', with an unweighted average of 17.80% for the whole study sample. Additionally, distress was present in 17.41%, 15.17%, 23.09%, and 16.71% respectively. Also, 4.80% reported that they often thought much or very much about committing suicide if they had the chance.

In terms of mental health history and self-harm, 7.85% had a prior history of an anxiety disorder, 12.57% of depression,

Table 1: Impact of the COVID-19 Lockdown on Substance Use Patterns: A Gender-Stratified Analysis.

M1. Smoking before the epidemic		I didn't smoke	I was smoking	RR for "I didn't smoke"	RR for "I was smoking"
Females	Not at all	75.69	24.31		
	Partially	77.1	22.9	1.02	0.94
	To a high degree	77.14	22.86	1.02	0.94
	Completely	81.79	18.21	1.08	0.75
Males	All females	78.05	21.95		
	Not at all	68.08	31.92		
	Partially	70.23	29.77	1.03	0.93
	To a high degree	70.99	29.01	1.04	0.91
Non-binary gender	Completely	76.53	23.47	1.12	0.74
	All males	71.33	28.67		
	Not at all	57.58	42.42		
	Partially	67.27	32.73	1.17	0.77
All gender groups	To a high degree	81.3	18.7	1.41	0.44
	Completely	80.23	19.77	1.39	0.47
	All non-binary gender	75.93	24.07		
	Not at all	72.14	27.86		
All study sample	Partially	74.4	25.6	1.03	0.92
	To a high degree	75.33	24.67	1.04	0.89
	Completely	80.19	19.81	1.11	0.71

M2. Alcohol use before the epidemic		I did not drink much	I used to drink a lot, more than one drink or its equivalent every day	RR for "I did not drink much"	RR for "I used to drink a lot, more than one drink or its equivalent every day"
Females	Not at all	93.61	6.39		
	Partially	93.14	6.86	0.99	1.07
	To a high degree	93.28	6.72	1	1.05
	Completely	93.95	6.05	1	0.95
Males	All females	93.45	6.55		
	Not at all	84.34	15.66		
	Partially	86.74	13.26	1.03	0.85
	To a high degree	87.95	12.05	1.04	0.77
Non-binary gender	Completely	88.96	11.04	1.05	0.7
	All males	87.15	12.85		
	Not at all	66.67	33.33		
	Partially	78.18	21.82	1.17	0.65
All study sample	To a high degree	87.79	12.21	1.32	0.37
	Completely	84.75	15.25	1.27	0.46



	All non-binary gender	82.93	17.07				
All gender groups	Not at all	89.25	10.75				
	Partially	90.58	9.42	1.01	0.88		
	To a high degree	91.6	8.4	1.03	0.78		
	Completely	92.32	7.68	1.03	0.71		
All study sample		91.19	8.81				
M3. Use of illegal substances before the epidemic (e.g. hashish)		I did not use it	Occasionally and rather rarely	Often	RR for "I did not use it"	RR for "occasionally and rather rarely"	RR for "often"
Females	Not at all	95.78	3.59	0.63			
	Partially	94.22	5.11	0.68	0.98	1.42	1.08
	To a high degree	94.1	4.98	0.92	0.98	1.39	1.46
	Completely	94.37	5	0.63	0.99	1.39	1
Males	All females	94.39	4.84	0.77			
	Not at all	90.8	7.28	1.92			
	Partially	90.8	7.33	1.87	1	1.01	0.97
	To a high degree	89.77	8.48	1.75	0.99	1.16	0.91
Non-binary gender	Completely	90.12	7.85	2.04	0.99	1.08	1.06
	All males	90.29	7.84	1.87			
	Not at all	68.18	21.21	10.61			
	Partially	75.45	22.73	1.82	1.11	1.07	0.17
All gender groups	To a high degree	85.11	11.83	3.05	1.25	0.56	0.29
	Completely	86.44	11.3	2.26	1.27	0.53	0.21
	All non-binary gender	81.95	14.63	3.41			
	Not at all	93.33	5.38	1.29			
All study sample	Partially	92.75	6.11	1.14	0.99	1.14	0.88
	To a high degree	92.69	6.12	1.2	0.99	1.14	0.93
	Completely	92.98	5.94	1.08	1	1.1	0.84
		92.86	5.97	1.17			
M4. During lockdown, you smoke compared to before		Less than before	Same as before	More than before	RR for "less than before"	RR for "same as before"	RR for "more than before"
Females	Not at all	20.9	71.67	7.43			
	Partially	30.03	60.96	9.01	1.44	0.85	1.21
	To a high degree	28.71	61.78	9.51	1.37	0.86	1.28
	Completely	34.04	56.96	9	1.63	0.79	1.21
Males	All females	29.29	61.68	9.03			
	Not at all	26.43	65.58	7.99			
	Partially	33.42	56.22	10.36	1.26	0.86	1.3
	To a high degree	32.26	57.96	9.77	1.22	0.88	1.22
Non-binary gender	Completely	37.88	47.47	14.65	1.43	0.72	1.83
	All males	32.54	56.92	10.54			
	Not at all	22.73	54.55	22.73			
	Partially	34.55	48.18	17.27	1.52	0.88	0.76
All gender groups	To a high degree	40.84	49.24	9.92	1.8	0.9	0.44
	Completely	32.2	45.76	22.03	1.42	0.84	0.97
	All non-binary gender	35.28	48.62	16.1			
	Not at all	23.39	68.81	7.8			
All study sample	Partially	31.36	59.04	9.59	1.34	0.86	1.23
	To a high degree	29.92	60.48	9.59	1.28	0.88	1.23
	Completely	35.16	53.95	10.88	1.5	0.78	1.39
		30.46	59.92	9.62			
M5. During lockdown, you drink alcohol compared to before (More than before/Same as before/Less than before)		Less than before	Same as before	More than before	RR for "less than before"	RR for "same as before"	RR for "more than before"
Females	Not at all	22.8	66.5	10.7			
	Partially	29.81	59.43	10.76	1.31	0.89	1.01
	To a high degree	30.69	58.38	10.93	1.35	0.88	1.02
	Completely	36.37	54.58	9.05	1.6	0.82	0.85
Males	All females	30.88	58.7	10.42			
	Not at all	29.34	61.24	9.42			
	Partially	35.61	53.72	10.67	1.21	0.88	1.13
	To a high degree	33.28	55.25	11.47	1.13	0.9	1.22
All study sample	Completely	41.04	45.16	13.8	1.4	0.74	1.46
	All males	34.64	54.03	11.33			



Non-binary gender	Not at all	24.24	51.52	24.24			
	Partially	33.64	50	16.36	1.39	0.97	0.67
	To a high degree	22.14	67.56	10.31	0.91	1.31	0.43
	Completely	29.94	49.15	20.9	1.24	0.95	0.86
	All non-binary gender	26.67	57.4	15.93			
All gender groups	Not at all	25.74	64.02	10.24			
	Partially	32.05	57.18	10.78	1.25	0.89	1.05
	To a high degree	31.38	57.54	11.08	1.22	0.9	1.08
	Completely	37.68	51.68	10.64	1.46	0.81	1.04
All study sample		32.11	57.1	10.79			
M6. While isolated at home, you use illegal substances compared to before		Less than before	Same as before	More than before	RR for "less than before"	RR for "same as before"	RR for "more than before"
Females	Not at all	24.38	73.59	2.03			
	Partially	34.57	63.42	2.01	1.42	0.86	0.99
	To a high degree	31.83	66.28	1.89	1.31	0.9	0.93
	Completely	36.83	60.48	2.69	1.51	0.82	1.33
	All females	32.68	65.2	2.12			
Males	Not at all	30	65.47	4.53			
	Partially	40.9	54.33	4.77	1.36	0.83	1.05
	To a high degree	37.7	57.9	4.4	1.26	0.88	0.97
	Completely	42.19	47.44	10.37	1.41	0.72	2.29
	All males	37.91	56.4	5.7			
Non-binary gender	Not at all	36.36	40.91	22.73			
	Partially	31.82	53.64	14.55	0.88	1.31	0.64
	To a high degree	45.04	49.24	5.73	1.24	1.2	0.25
	Completely	33.33	49.72	16.95	0.92	1.22	0.75
	All non-binary gender	38.37	49.27	12.36			
All gender groups	Not at all	26.99	69.69	3.32			
	Partially	36.95	59.88	3.17	1.37	0.86	0.95
	To a high degree	33.75	63.55	2.69	1.25	0.91	0.81
	Completely	38.39	56.41	5.2	1.42	0.81	1.57
All study sample		34.52	62.03	3.45			

RR: Relative Risk.

1.16% of Bipolar disorder, 0.97% of psychosis and 2.70% of other mental disorders. Any mental disorder history was present in 25.25%. At least once, 21.44% had hurt themselves in the past and 10.59% had attempted at least once in the past.

There was no difference among the diagnostic groups of 'no depression or dysphoria' vs. 'dysphoria' vs. 'clinical depression' in terms of smoking ($df = 2$, $\chi^2 = 0.320$, $p = 0.852$), alcohol abuse ($df = 2$, $\chi^2 = 0.667$, $p = 0.716$) or illegal substance abuse ($df = 2$, $\chi^2 = 3.388$, $p = 0.183$) before the lockdown. There was no difference among the diagnostic groups concerning the rates of increase or decrease in smoking and alcohol or substance abuse.

The detailed results of substance use patterns, before and during the COVID-19 lockdown, by gender and depression clinical group are shown in Table 2.

The presence of a history of mental health acted as an important risk factor for substance use. The highest RR for smoking and alcohol abuse before the lockdown concerned a history of psychosis (RR = 1.60 and 2.87). History of Bipolar disorder (RR = 1.51 and 1.83) history of suicidal attempts (RR = 1.43 AND 2.57) and self-harm (RR = 1.29 and 2.04) were also strong risk factors. The strongest risk factors for illegal substance use before the lockdown were mainly psychosis

(RR = 3.57), suicidal attempt (RR = 4.02), and Bipolar disorder (RR = 3.55). The strongest risk factors for an increase in smoking during the lockdown were Psychosis (RR = 2.22), Bipolar disorder (RR = 2.19), and suicidal attempt (RR = 2.18) while concerning the increase in alcohol abuse were any mental disorder (RR = 1.74), Bipolar disorder (1.83) and suicidal attempt (RR = 1.72). History of Psychosis (RR = 3.29), Bipolar disorder (RR = 3.18), and suicidal attempt (RR = 3.92) were the strongest factors for an increase in illegal substance use during the lockdown.

The complete set of RRs concerning the effect of a history of mental disorders on substance use is shown in Table 3.

Relationship of substance use changes with the family and social environment

In terms of family status, 43.95% were married, 48.53% had at least one child and only 10.41% were living alone. The responses suggested an increased need for communication with family members in 38.08%, an increased need for emotional support in 26.22%, fewer conflicts in 34.81% and increased conflicts within families for 37.71%, an improvement of the quality of relationships in 23.95%, while in most cases (61.62%) there was a maintenance of basic daily routine. During lockdowns, 33.86% did not work, while



Table 2: Association Between Depression and Substance Use Patterns Before and During the COVID-19 Lockdown.

M1. Smoking before the epidemic		I didn't smoke	I was smoking	RR for "I didn't smoke"	RR for "I was smoking"		
Females	no depression or dysphoria	79.07	20.93				
	dysphoria	78.14	21.86	0.99	1.04		
	Clinical depression	74.88	25.12	0.95	1.20		
	All females	78.05	21.95				
Males	no depression or dysphoria	71.98	28.02				
	dysphoria	71.65	28.35	1.00	1.01		
	Clinical depression	67.18	32.82	0.93	1.17		
	All males	71.33	28.67				
Non-binary gender	no depression or dysphoria	79.21	20.79				
	dysphoria	73.94	26.06	0.93	1.25		
	Clinical depression	71.76	28.24	0.91	1.36		
	All non-binary gender	75.93	24.07				
all genders	no depression or dysphoria	76.40	23.60				
	dysphoria	76.07	23.93	1.00	1.01		
	Clinical depression	73.01	26.99	0.96	1.14		
All groups		75.74	24.26				
M2. Alcohol use before the epidemic		I did not drink much	I used to drink a lot, more than one drink or its equivalent every day	RR for "I did not drink much"	RR for "I used to drink a lot, more than one drink or its equivalent every day"		
Females	no depression or dysphoria	94.83	5.17				
	dysphoria	91.38	8.62	0.96	1.67		
	Clinical depression	91.02	8.98	0.96	1.74		
	All females	93.45	6.55				
Males	no depression or dysphoria	88.57	11.43				
	dysphoria	84.08	15.92	0.95	1.39		
	Clinical depression	82.61	17.39	0.93	1.52		
	All males	87.15	12.85				
Non-binary gender	no depression or dysphoria	89.77	10.23				
	dysphoria	78.17	21.83	0.87	2.13		
	Clinical depression	74.71	25.29	0.83	2.47		
	All non-binary gender	82.93	17.07				
all genders	no depression or dysphoria	92.43	7.57				
	dysphoria	88.92	11.08	0.96	1.46		
	Clinical depression	88.75	11.25	0.96	1.49		
All groups		91.19	8.81				
M3. Use of illegal substances before the epidemic (e.g. hashish)		I did not use it	Occasionally and rather rarely	Often	RR for "I did not use it"	RR for "occasionally and rather rarely"	RR for "often"
Females	no depression or dysphoria	96.31	3.23	0.46			
	dysphoria	91.70	7.31	0.99	0.95	2.26	2.17
	Clinical depression	90.86	7.62	1.52	0.94	2.36	3.33
	All females	94.39	4.84	0.77			
Males	no depression or dysphoria	93.15	5.45	1.41			
	dysphoria	84.71	12.64	2.65	0.91	2.32	1.88
	Clinical depression	80.43	15.94	3.63	0.86	2.93	2.58
	All males	90.29	7.84	1.87			
Non-binary gender	no depression or dysphoria	90.76	7.59	1.65			
	dysphoria	78.87	16.20	4.93	0.87	2.13	2.99
	Clinical depression	68.82	25.88	5.29	0.76	3.41	3.21
	All non-binary gender	81.95	14.63	3.41			
all genders	no depression or dysphoria	95.07	4.10	0.82			
	dysphoria	89.34	9.10	1.56	0.94	2.22	1.89
	Clinical depression	88.01	9.90	2.08	0.93	2.41	2.53
All groups		92.86	5.97	1.17			
M4. During lockdown, you smoke compared to before		Less than before	Same as before	More than before	RR for "less than before"	RR for "same as before"	RR for "more than before"
Females	no depression or dysphoria	27.17	66.05	6.78			
	dysphoria	31.68	57.82	10.50	1.17	0.88	1.55
	Clinical depression	33.70	51.71	14.58	1.24	0.78	2.15
	All females	29.29	61.68	9.03			



Males	no depression or dysphoria	31.38	60.37	8.25			
	dysphoria	35.21	51.10	13.69	1.12	0.85	1.66
	Clinical depression	36.07	43.80	20.13	1.15	0.73	2.44
	All males	32.54	56.91	10.54			
Non-binary gender	no depression or dysphoria	36.63	50.83	12.54			
	dysphoria	34.51	44.37	21.13	0.94	0.87	1.68
	Clinical depression	33.53	48.24	18.24	0.92	0.95	1.45
	All non-binary gender	35.28	48.62	16.10			
all genders	no depression or dysphoria	28.83	63.78	7.38			
	dysphoria	32.81	55.54	11.65	1.14	0.87	1.58
	Clinical depression	34.26	49.78	15.96	1.19	0.78	2.16
All groups		30.47	59.91	9.62			
M5. During lockdown, you drink alcohol compared to before (More than before/Same as before/Less than before)		Less than before	Same as before	More than before	RR for "less than before"	RR for "same as before"	RR for "more than before"
Females	no depression or dysphoria	28.85	62.78	8.37			
	dysphoria	33.24	53.57	13.19	1.15	0.85	1.58
	Clinical depression	35.03	50.71	14.26	1.21	0.81	1.70
	All females	30.88	58.70	10.42			
Males	no depression or dysphoria	33.24	56.81	9.95			
	dysphoria	36.96	48.97	14.07	1.11	0.86	1.41
	Clinical depression	40.04	43.93	16.03	1.20	0.77	1.61
	All males	34.64	54.03	11.33			
Non-binary gender	no depression or dysphoria	28.71	60.73	10.56			
	dysphoria	21.83	57.04	21.13	0.76	0.94	2.00
	Clinical depression	27.06	51.76	21.18	0.94	0.85	2.01
	All non-binary gender	26.67	57.40	15.93			
all genders	no depression or dysphoria	30.50	60.51	8.99			
	dysphoria	34.21	52.20	13.59	1.12	0.86	1.51
	Clinical depression	36.08	49.13	14.80	1.18	0.81	1.65
All groups		32.11	57.10	10.79			
M6. While isolated at home, you use illegal substances compared to before		Less than before	Same as before	More than before	RR for "less than before"	RR for "same as before"	RR for "more than before"
Females	no depression or dysphoria	30.43	68.06	1.51			
	dysphoria	34.31	62.79	2.90	1.13	0.92	1.93
	Clinical depression	38.10	58.56	3.33	1.25	0.86	2.21
	All females	32.68	65.20	2.12			
Males	no depression or dysphoria	36.58	58.68	4.74			
	dysphoria	39.46	52.94	7.59	1.08	0.90	1.60
	Clinical depression	43.80	47.22	8.97	1.20	0.80	1.89
	All males	37.91	56.39	5.70			
Non-binary gender	no depression or dysphoria	42.57	49.17	8.25			
	dysphoria	34.51	46.48	19.01	0.81	0.95	2.30
	Clinical depression	34.12	51.76	14.12	0.80	1.05	1.71
	All non-binary gender	38.37	49.27	12.36			
all genders	no depression or dysphoria	32.85	64.37	2.78			
	dysphoria	35.90	59.50	4.60	1.09	0.92	1.65
	Clinical depression	39.38	55.77	4.85	1.20	0.87	1.74
All groups		34.52	62.02	3.45			

RR: Relative Risk.

48.43% expected their economic situation to worsen because of the COVID-19 outbreak.

Pearson’s R among the number of people living in the house returned a significant but weak negative correlation (R = -0.11 to -0.13) with all smoking alcohol and substance use variables reflecting change during lockdown, reflecting an increase of use in crowded households. On the contrary, the number of children was significantly but weakly and positively correlated (R = 0.017 to 0.058) with all smoking alcohol and

substance use variables reflecting change during lockdown, suggesting a decrease of use in families with many children. Education was also weakly protective (R = 0.02 to 0.05).

Multiple forward stepwise linear regression analysis

MFSLRA was performed with each one of the three items reflecting smoking, alcohol, and substance use change items as dependent variables and gender (three dummy variables males, females, and ‘non-binary’ gender as yes/

**Table 3:** Association Between Mental Health Disorders and Substance Use Patterns Across Different Phases of Lockdown.

History of:	M1. I was smoking	M2. I used to drink a lot, more than one drink or its equivalent every day	M3. Use of illegal substances before the epidemic (e.g. hashish)			M4. During lockdown, you smoke (...) compared to before			M5. During lockdown, you drink (...) alcohol compared to before			M6. While isolated at home, you use (...) illegal substances compared to before		
			I did not use it	Occasionally and rather rarely	Often	Less than before	Same as before	More than before	Less than before	Same as before	More than before	Less than before	Same as before	More than before
Any mental disorder	1.28	1.56	0.93	2.20	2.28	0.91	0.95	1.69	0.97	0.90	1.74	0.92	1.03	1.46
Anxiety	1.04	1.25	0.98	1.34	1.04	1.01	0.95	1.25	1.02	0.91	1.45	1.00	0.99	1.17
Depression	1.32	1.36	0.94	1.89	1.99	0.88	0.98	1.57	0.96	0.92	1.59	0.91	1.05	1.10
Bipolar disorder	1.51	1.83	0.85	2.95	3.55	1.00	0.81	2.19	1.05	0.81	1.83	0.98	0.89	3.18
Psychosis	1.60	2.87	0.81	3.59	3.57	0.94	0.84	2.22	1.02	0.87	1.64	0.84	0.96	3.29
Other mental disorder	1.06	1.40	0.95	1.60	2.17	0.85	1.02	1.37	0.86	1.01	r1.38	0.85	1.07	1.32
Self-harm	1.29	2.04	0.90	2.96	2.77	0.98	0.90	1.81	1.03	0.89	1.62	0.96	0.96	2.41
Suicidal attempt	1.43	2.57	0.84	3.66	4.02	1.05	0.81	2.18	1.04	0.85	1.72	1.03	0.86	3.92

no), age, number of persons in the house, number of children, presence of chronic somatic condition, being a caretaker, lockdown intensity, history of specific mental disorders (in separate variables), CES-D, STAI-S and RASS subscales scores (Intention, life, and history subscales). Although the results were significant, the regressions explained only approximately 4% of the observed variance.

- Change in smoking was significantly predicted ($F = 129.907$, $R\text{-sqr} = 0.04$, $df: 18,54806$; $p < 0.001$) by age ($b = -0.01$), number of people at home ($b = -0.15$), number of children ($b = 0.68$), being a caretaker ($b = 0.06$), lockdown intensity ($b = -0.02$), STAI-S ($b = -0.02$), CES-D ($b = -0.03$), RASS Life ($b = 0.09$), RASS History ($b = -0.04$), history of psychosis ($b = 0.01$), history of depression ($b = 0.02$), history of other mental disorder ($b = 0.02$), history of self-harm ($b = 0.05$) and history of suicide attempts ($b = 0.02$).
- Change in alcohol consumption was significantly predicted ($F = 138.984$, $R\text{-sqr} = 0.04$, $df: 16,54808$; $p < 0.001$) by male gender ($b = -0.01$), non-binary gender ($b = 0.01$), number of people at home ($b = -0.13$), number of children ($b = 0.09$), being a caretaker ($b = 0.06$), suffering from a chronic somatic condition ($b = -0.009$), lockdown intensity ($b = -0.03$), STAI ($b = -0.03$), CES-D ($b = -0.04$), RASS Life ($b = 0.08$), RASS Intention ($b = 0.02$), history of anxiety ($b = 0.01$), history of depression ($b = 0.2$), history of other mental disorder ($b = 0.2$), and history of self-harm ($b = 0.02$).
- Change in illegal substance use was significantly predicted ($F = 117.031$, $R\text{-sqr} = 0.04$, $df: 18,54806$; $p < 0.001$) by male gender ($b = -0.02$), age ($b = -0.03$), number of people at home ($b = -0.11$), number of children ($b = 0.04$), being a caretaker ($b = 0.06$), lockdown intensity ($b = -0.02$), STAI-S ($b = -0.05$), CES-D ($b = -0.08$), RASS Life ($b = 0.10$), RASS Intention ($b = 0.01$), RASS History

($b = -0.04$), history of psychosis ($b = 0.02$), history of anxiety ($b = 0.008$), history of depression ($b = 0.01$), history of Bipolar disorder ($b = 0.009$), history of other mental disorder ($b = 0.01$), history of self-harm ($b = 0.04$) and history of suicide attempts ($b = 0.02$).

Discussion

Before the COVID-19 pandemic outbreak, the percentage of those who smoked cigarettes was 24.26%, those who abused alcohol were 8.81%, and those who used illegal substances were 7.14% in the overall study population. The impact of lockdown measures on substance use was variable, as a greater proportion of respondents indicated a decrease in alcohol, nicotine, and substance abuse rather than an increase. Complete lockdown put the person at an approximately $RR = 1.5$ times to either increase or decrease substance use. Similar findings have been described in other studies [37,38]. Potential determinants of this variability could encompass fluctuations in social interactions, heightened levels of stress, modified routines, and psychological health difficulties encountered throughout periods of lockdown. Certain individuals may resort to substance use as a means of managing difficulties [39], whereas others may decrease their use in response to access disruptions or shifts in social dynamics [40,41].

The prevalence of smoking decreased varied across gender groups. Similarly, the proportions of alcohol and illicit substance use reduction spanned from 32.11% to 34.52%. The aforementioned figures are consistent with the findings of several research studies [39,41-48]. These findings suggest that the ongoing crisis has, to a certain degree, prompted favorable modifications in substance use patterns. However, a multitude of studies propose an alternative perspective [37,38,40,49-58]. These contrasts may be attributed to differences in study methodologies, distinctions in study participant demographics, and the diverse stages of quarantine that were examined.



It is worth mentioning that individuals who self-identified as “non-binary gender” demonstrated greater reductions in substance use during the lockdown. Significantly, a discernible correlation was identified among non-binary individuals between the severity of confinement protocols and a reduction in the consumption of all substances. This may underscore the criticality of taking into account a wide range of sociodemographic variables [59]. Non-binary individuals frequently confront social structures and norms that contest the conventional binary conception of gender. Engaging in this process of navigating societal expectations and stereotypes has the potential to foster the growth of resilience and coping mechanisms, which in turn may have an impact on patterns of substance use. The consensus among researchers regarding LGBTQ+ communities as a whole indicates that minority stress and discrimination are correlated with a heightened likelihood of engaging in substance use [60]. Nevertheless, non-binary individuals may also benefit from specialized support networks, community resilience, and coping mechanisms that may aid in the reduction of substance abuse. Conversely, alternative research has indicated that women are more likely to endorse proactive strategies in the face of challenges associated with COVID-19 [45,61].

Before the lockdown, there was a faint negative correlation between advanced age and reductions in smoking, alcohol abuse, and illegal substance use. Advanced age was positively correlated with the increase in the use of all substances during the lockdown. A plausible hypothesis is that elderly individuals may encounter difficulties acclimating to abrupt transformations in their lives, including diminished social interactions, restricted availability of support systems, and heightened experiences of isolation or ennui. As a consequence, certain individuals may have resorted to illicit substances such as cigarettes, alcohol, or drugs to alleviate emotional distress and manage stress, although findings from different studies are non-decisive [41,43,52,59].

Before the lockdown, individuals with a documented history of mental health disorders including psychosis, bipolar disorder, and suicidal ideation exhibited the most pronounced correlations with substance use. Anxiety (as measured by the STAI-S scale), depressive symptoms (as measured by the CES-D scale), and suicidality (as measured by the RASS subscale) were all significant predictors of changes in smoking, alcohol consumption, and illicit substance use throughout the pandemic. A rise in anxiety and depressive symptoms was observed in 40.28% and 47.41% of the participants, respectively. One in 10.83% of respondents indicated that they had suicidal thoughts. The incidence of depression exhibited variability among non-binary individuals, males, and females, comprising 20.49%, 12.36%, and 27.64%, respectively. There is substantial evidence of the reciprocal relationship between substance use disorders and psychiatric conditions [62-65]. Acknowledging the cyclical nature of their relationship assists in highlighting the critical importance of

integrated mental health and substance use interventions, as well as the profound impact that external stressors have on mental health. Buckner, et al. (2007) [66] have proposed that individuals may resort to self-regulating behaviors such as alcohol or nicotine use to momentarily ameliorate stress and tension due to the overwhelming nature of anxiety. Furthermore, according to the self-medication hypothesis [67], depressed individuals might self-medicate with substances in an attempt to alleviate feelings of hopelessness or sadness. In addition, as a means of coping with the distressing nature of these emotions, individuals who are facing suicidal ideation or behavior may resort to substance use. Nevertheless, it is imperative to acknowledge that substance use may also constitute an independent suicide risk factor [68].

The exploration of further sociodemographic variables yielded intricate understandings of how economic considerations, family structure, and work-related interactions influenced substance use patterns during lockdowns. The participants documented an increased need for emotional support and communication, as well as changes in conflicts and the overall standard of interpersonal connections. Further factors that were taken into account were the employment status and the number of occupants in the household. The employment status exhibited a marginally negative correlation with substance use behaviors during the lockdown period, while the former did indeed contribute to such changes. A substantial majority of respondents expected a deterioration in the economy as a direct outcome of the pandemic. The influence of the social environment has been underscored by a negative correlation observed between congested households and increased substance use [44,69]. Kassel, Veilleux, Wardle, and Markowitz [70] have also proposed a correlation between substance abuse and overcrowding in living quarters. The pressure associated with cohabitating in a small area with a large number of people may potentially lead some individuals to turn to substances as a coping mechanism or source of solace. Nevertheless, one could argue that the frequency of alcohol consumption or alcohol dependence does not exhibit a direct cause-and-effect relationship with loneliness amidst the COVID-19 pandemic.

Conversely, there was a marginal yet statistically significant positive correlation between the number of children residing in a household and a decrease in smoking, alcohol usage, and illicit substance use throughout the lockdown period. This finding implies the possibility of a protective effect. According to research, after having children, parents frequently adopt protective behaviors because they place a higher value on their children’s safety than on engaging in hazardous activities. According to a study by Latendresse, et al. [71], to provide a secure and nurturing atmosphere for their children, parents are more likely to desist from or reduce their substance use, with mothers being particularly likely to do so. In addition, the cohabitation of children within the household may foster stronger social support systems, as parents work together in



concert to address the difficulties presented by the lockdowns. A correlation has been established between social support and reduced substance use [72]. Furthermore, the shared obligation of child care may cultivate an atmosphere in which parents proactively discourage substance use to preserve a stable and healthy household. It has been suggested that health factors and greater social proximity to non-smokers may provide a preventative effect against the use of cigarettes [45,73].

Additionally, education exhibited a feeble protective effect. The protective effects of higher education suggest that education may serve as a buffer against the detrimental effects of substance use-inducing stressors. This result is consistent with previous research [30] that highlighted the importance of education in fostering health literacy and adaptive coping mechanisms. Individuals who have attained higher levels of education may possess enhanced capabilities to evaluate the hazards critically linked to substance use, thereby decreasing the probability of their involvement in such behaviors. However, the results of the research are not unanimous [39].

Conclusion

The changes in substance use behaviors that have been observed throughout the pandemic emphasize the significance of situating these behaviors in a wider framework of individuals' lives. Due to the complex interaction between sociodemographic variables, mental health indicators, and environmental influences, targeted and individualized interventions seem essential. As society confronts the intricate challenges of public health in the aftermath of a global health crisis, the insights gained and the lessons learned provide significant value for the development of such evidence-based approaches. Approaches that consider various reactions to stressors, foster mental health and avert harms associated with substance use during critical periods. Notwithstanding the importance of specific predictors, the restricted explanatory variance implies the presence of latent variables or dynamic interactions that could potentially exert pivotal influences. Capturing the complete range of factors that influence various types of substance use presents a significant challenge, which requires continuous research to improve predictive models and interventions.

References

- Cheng SK, Wong CW, Tsang J, Wong KC. Psychological distress and negative appraisals in survivors of severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS). *Psychol Med.* 2004 Oct;34(7):1187-95. doi: 10.1017/s0033291704002272. PMID: 15697045.
- Wu P, Liu X, Fang Y, Fan B, Fuller CJ, Guan Z, Yao Z, Kong J, Lu J, Litvak IJ. Alcohol abuse/dependence symptoms among hospital employees exposed to a SARS outbreak. *Alcohol Alcohol.* 2008 Nov-Dec;43(6):706-12. doi: 10.1093/alcac/agn073. Epub 2008 Sep 12. PMID: 18790829; PMCID: PMC2720767.
- Sim K, Chong PN, Chan YH, Soon WS. Severe acute respiratory syndrome-related psychiatric and posttraumatic morbidities and coping responses in medical staff within a primary health care setting in Singapore. *J Clin Psychiatry.* 2004 Aug;65(8):1120-7. doi: 10.4088/jcp.v65n0815. PMID: 15323599.
- Vlahov D, Galea S, Resnick H, Ahern J, Boscarino JA, Bucuvalas M, Gold J, Kilpatrick D. Increased use of cigarettes, alcohol, and marijuana among Manhattan, New York, residents after the September 11th terrorist attacks. *Am J Epidemiol.* 2002 Jun 1;155(11):988-96. doi: 10.1093/aje/155.11.988. PMID: 12034577.
- Adams RE, Boscarino JA, Galea S. Alcohol use, mental health status and psychological well-being 2 years after the World Trade Center attacks in New York City. *Am J Drug Alcohol Abuse.* 2006;32(2):203-24. doi: 10.1080/00952990500479522. PMID: 16595324; PMCID: PMC2746081.
- Boscarino JA, Adams RE, Galea S. Alcohol use in New York after the terrorist attacks: a study of the effects of psychological trauma on drinking behavior. *Addict Behav.* 2006 Apr;31(4):606-21. doi: 10.1016/j.addbeh.2005.05.035. Epub 2005 Jun 27. PMID: 15982827; PMCID: PMC2700547.
- Henriksen CA, Bolton JM, Sareen J. The psychological impact of terrorist attacks: examining a dose-response relationship between exposure to 9/11 and Axis I mental disorders. *Depress Anxiety.* 2010 Nov;27(11):993-1000. doi: 10.1002/da.20742. PMID: 21058402.
- Welch AE, Caramanica Zweig K, McAteer JM, Brackbill RM. Intensity of Binge Drinking a Decade After the September 11th Terror Attacks Among Exposed Individuals. *Am J Prev Med.* 2017 Feb;52(2):192-198. doi: 10.1016/j.amepre.2016.10.034. PMID: 28109459.
- Welch AE, Caramanica K, Maslow CB, Cone JE, Farfel MR, Keyes KM, Stellman SD, Hasin DS. Frequent binge drinking five to six years after exposure to 9/11: findings from the World Trade Center Health Registry. *Drug Alcohol Depend.* 2014 Jul 1;140:1-7. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2014.04.013. Epub 2014 Apr 28. PMID: 24831753; PMCID: PMC4154498.
- Garrey SK, Welch AE, Jacobson MH, Brackbill RM, Gargano LM. The Intentional Self-Medication of 9/11-Related PTSD Symptoms with Alcohol: 15 Years after the Disaster. *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* 2020 Jul 24;17(15):5327. doi: 10.3390/ijerph17155327. PMID: 32722103; PMCID: PMC7432702.
- Biggs QM, Fullerton CS, Reeves JJ, Grieger TA, Reissman D, Ursano RJ. Acute stress disorder, depression, and tobacco use in disaster workers following 9/11. *Am J Orthopsychiatry.* 2010 Oct;80(4):586-92. doi: 10.1111/j.1939-0025.2010.01063.x. PMID: 20950299.
- Meyers JL, Lowe SR, Eaton NR, Krueger R, Grant BF, Hasin D. Childhood maltreatment, 9/11 exposure, and latent dimensions of psychopathology: A test of stress sensitization. *J Psychiatr Res.* 2015 Sep;68:337-45. doi: 10.1016/j.jpsyres.2015.05.005. Epub 2015 May 16. PMID: 26037889; PMCID: PMC4677391.
- Dewart T, Frank B, Schmeidler J. The impact of 9/11 on patients in New York City's substance abuse treatment programs. *Am J Drug Alcohol Abuse.* 2006;32(4):665-72. doi: 10.1080/00952990600919435. PMID: 17127555.
- North CS, Pfefferbaum B. Tobacco and Illicit Drug Use and Drug Use Disorders Among Employees of Businesses Affected by the 9/11 Attacks on the World Trade Center in New York City. *J Dual Diagn.* 2023 Oct-Dec;19(4):180-188. doi: 10.1080/15504263.2023.2260328. Epub 2023 Nov 1. PMID: 37796633; PMCID: PMC10624119.
- Hirst A, Miller-Archie SA, Welch AE, Li J, Brackbill RM. Post-9/11 drug- and alcohol- related hospitalizations among World Trade Center Health Registry enrollees, 2003-2010. *Drug Alcohol Depend.* 2018 Jun 1;187:55-60. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2018.01.028. Epub 2018 Mar 23. PMID: 29627406.
- Perlman SE, Friedman S, Galea S, Nair HP, Eros-Sarnyai M, Stellman SD, Hon J, Greene CM. Short-term and medium-term health effects of 9/11. *Lancet.* 2011 Sep 3;378(9794):925-34. doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(11)60967-7. PMID: 21890057.
- Dowling FG, Lowe SM. Substance use and related disorders among persons exposed to the 9/11 terrorist attacks: Essentials for screening and intervention. *Arch Environ Occup Health.* 2023;78(5):261-266. doi: 10.1080/19338244.2023.2180614. Epub 2023 Feb 27. PMID: 36847147.



18. Sinha R. Chronic stress, drug use, and vulnerability to addiction. *Ann N Y Acad Sci.* 2008 Oct;1141:105-30. doi: 10.1196/annals.1441.030. PMID: 18991954; PMCID: PMC2732004.
19. Turner S, Mota N, Bolton J, Sareen J. Self-medication with alcohol or drugs for mood and anxiety disorders: A narrative review of the epidemiological literature. *Depress Anxiety.* 2018 Sep;35(9):851-860. doi: 10.1002/da.22771. Epub 2018 Jul 12. PMID: 29999576; PMCID: PMC6175215.
20. Alexander AC, Ward KD. Understanding Postdisaster Substance Use and Psychological Distress Using Concepts from the Self-Medication Hypothesis and Social Cognitive Theory. *J Psychoactive Drugs.* 2018 Apr-Jun;50(2):177-186. doi: 10.1080/02791072.2017.1397304. Epub 2017 Nov 10. PMID: 29125424; PMCID: PMC6101235.
21. McKernan LC, Nash MR, Gottdiener WH, Anderson SE, Lambert WE, Carr ER. Further evidence of self-medication: personality factors influencing drug choice in substance use disorders. *Psychodyn Psychiatry.* 2015 Jun;43(2):243-75. doi: 10.1521/pdps.2015.43.2.243. PMID: 26039231.
22. Keyes KM, Hatzenbuehler ML, Hasin DS. Stressful life experiences, alcohol consumption, and alcohol use disorders: the epidemiology evidence for four main types of stressors. *Psychopharmacology (Berl).* 2011 Nov;218(1):1-17. doi: 10.1007/s00213-011-2236-1. Epub 2011 Mar 5. PMID: 21373787; PMCID: PMC3755727.
23. Sagrera CE, Alderman L, Vest MF, Goeders NE, Murnane KS. Elucidating the Role of Trauma and Significant Life Stress in the Disease of Addiction may Provide New Targets for Medication Development. *CNS Neurol Disord Drug Targets.* 2023;22(7):946-949. doi: 10.2174/1871527321666220511145230. PMID: 35546748.
24. Enoch MA. The role of early life stress as a predictor for alcohol and drug dependence. *Psychopharmacology (Berl).* 2011 Mar;214(1):17-31. doi: 10.1007/s00213-010-1916-6. Epub 2010 Jul 2. PMID: 20596857; PMCID: PMC3005022.
25. Hoffmann JP, Jones MS. Cumulative Stressors and Adolescent Substance Use: A Review of 21st-Century Literature. *Trauma Violence Abuse.* 2022 Jul;23(3):891-905. doi: 10.1177/1524838020979674. Epub 2020 Dec 20. PMID: 33345723.
26. Marenmani AGI, Maiello M, Carbone MG, Pallucchini A, Brizzi F, Belcari I, Conversano C, Perugi G, Marenmani I. Towards a psychopathology specific to Substance Use Disorder: Should emotional responses to life events be included? *Compr Psychiatry.* 2018 Jan;80:132-139. doi: 10.1016/j.comppsy.2017.10.001. Epub 2017 Oct 6. PMID: 29091779.
27. Zilberman N, Yadid G, Efrati Y, Rassevsky Y. Negative and positive life events and their relation to substance and behavioral addictions. *Drug Alcohol Depend.* 2019 Nov 1;204:107562. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2019.107562. Epub 2019 Sep 19. PMID: 31563094.
28. Myers B, McLaughlin KA, Wang S, Blanco C, Stein DJ. Associations between childhood adversity, adult stressful life events, and past-year drug use disorders in the National Epidemiological Study of Alcohol and Related Conditions (NESARC). *Psychol Addict Behav.* 2014 Dec;28(4):1117-26. doi: 10.1037/a0037459. Epub 2014 Aug 18. PMID: 25134042; PMCID: PMC4274198.
29. Ou TS, Huber L, Macy JT, Bray BC, Lin HC. Stressful Life Events and Patterns of Polysubstance Use Among U.S. Late Middle-Aged and Older Adults: A Latent Class Analysis. *J Appl Gerontol.* 2023 Aug;42(8):1867-1876. doi: 10.1177/07334648231165256. Epub 2023 Mar 29. PMID: 36988206.
30. Holmes EA, O'Connor RC, Perry VH, Tracey I, Wessely S, Arseneault L, Ballard C, Christensen H, Cohen Silver R, Everall I, Ford T, John A, Kabir T, King K, Madan I, Michie S, Przybylski AK, Shafran R, Sweeney A, Worthman CM, Yardley L, Cowan K, Cope C, Hotopf M, Bullmore E. Multidisciplinary research priorities for the COVID-19 pandemic: a call for action for mental health science. *Lancet Psychiatry.* 2020 Jun;7(6):547-560. doi: 10.1016/S2215-0366(20)30168-1. Epub 2020 Apr 15. PMID: 32304649; PMCID: PMC7159850.
31. Fountoulakis KN, Karakatsoulis G, Abraham S, Adorjan K, Ahmed HU, et al. Results of the COVID-19 mental health international for the general population (COMET-G) study. *Eur Neuropsychopharmacol.* 2022 Jan;54:21-40. doi: 10.1016/j.euroneuro.2021.10.004. Epub 2021 Oct 15. PMID: 34758422; PMCID: PMC8609892.
32. Fountoulakis K, Iacovides A, Kleanthous S, Samolis S, Kaprinis SG, Sitzoglou K, St Kaprinis G, Bech P. Reliability, validity and psychometric properties of the Greek translation of the Center for Epidemiologic Studies-Depression (CES-D) Scale. *BMC Psychiatry.* 2001;1:3. doi: 10.1186/1471-244x-1-3. Epub 2001 Jun 20. PMID: 11454239; PMCID: PMC34551.
33. Fountoulakis KN, Apostolidou MK, Atsiova MB, Filippidou AK, Florou AK, Gousiou DS, Katsara AR, Mantzari SN, Padouva-Markoulaki M, Papatriantafyllou EI, Sacharidi PI, Tonia AI, Tsagalidou EG, Zymara VP, Prezerakos PE, Koupidis SA, Fountoulakis NK, Chrousos GP. Self-reported changes in anxiety, depression and suicidality during the COVID-19 lockdown in Greece. *J Affect Disord.* 2021 Jan 15;279:624-629. doi: 10.1016/j.jad.2020.10.061. Epub 2020 Nov 2. Erratum in: *J Affect Disord.* 2020 Dec 1;: PMID: 33190113; PMCID: PMC7605790.
34. Fountoulakis KN, Pantoula E, Siamouli M, Moutou K, Gonda X, Rihmer Z, Iacovides A, Akiskal H. [Development of the Risk Assessment Suicidality Scale (RASS): a population-based study]. *Psychiatriki.* 2011 Apr-Jun;22(2):132-47. Greek, Modern. PMID: 21888186.
35. Spielberger CD. State-Trait Anxiety Inventory for Adults. *Mind Garden.* 2005.
36. MacDonald PL, Gardner RC. Type I Error Rate Comparisons of Post Hoc Procedures for I j Chi-Square Tables. *Educational and Psychological Measurement.* 2016; 60(5):735-754.
37. Ramalho R. Alcohol consumption and alcohol-related problems during the COVID-19 pandemic: a narrative review. *Australas Psychiatry.* 2020 Oct;28(5):524-526. doi: 10.1177/1039856220943024. Epub 2020 Jul 28. PMID: 32722961.
38. Morton CM. Alcohol sales during COVID-19 social restrictions: Initial evidence from Alcoholic Beverage Control states. *Subst Abuse.* 2021;42(2):158-160. doi: 10.1080/08897077.2020.1856293. Epub 2021 Mar 12. PMID: 33709878.
39. Sen LT, Siste K, Hanafi E, Murtani BJ, Christian H, Limawan AP, Adrian, Siswidiani LP. Insights Into Adolescents' Substance Use in a Low-Middle-Income Country During the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Front Psychiatry.* 2021 Oct 14;12:739698. doi: 10.3389/fpsy.2021.739698. PMID: 34721110; PMCID: PMC8551572.
40. Testino G, Vignoli T, Patussi V, Allosio P, Amendola MF, Aricò S, Baselice A, Balbinot P, Campanile V, Fanucchi T, Macciò L, Meneguzzi C, Mioni D, Parisi M, Renzetti D, Rossin R, Gandin C, Bottaro LC, Caio G, Lungaro L, Zoli G, Scafato E, Caputo F. Alcohol use disorder in the COVID-19 era: Position paper of the Italian Society on Alcohol (SIA). *Addict Biol.* 2022 Jan;27(1):e13090. doi: 10.1111/adb.13090. Epub 2021 Sep 16. PMID: 34532923; PMCID: PMC8646667.
41. Kilian C, O'Donnell A, Potapova N, López-Pelayo H, Schulte B, Miquel L, Paniello Castillo B, Schmidt CS, Gual A, Rehm J, Manthey J. Changes in alcohol use during the COVID-19 pandemic in Europe: A meta-analysis of observational studies. *Drug Alcohol Rev.* 2022 May;41(4):918-931. doi: 10.1111/dar.13446. Epub 2022 Feb 20. PMID: 35187739; PMCID: PMC9111882.
42. Ferrante G, Camussi E, Piccinelli C, Senore C, Armaroli P, Ortale A, Garena F, Giordano L. Did social isolation during the SARS-CoV-2 epidemic have an impact on the lifestyles of citizens? *Epidemiol Prev.* 2020 Sep-Dec;44(5-6 Suppl 2):353-362. English. doi: 10.19191/EP20.5-6.S2.137. PMID: 33412829.
43. Chodkiewicz J, Talarowska M, Miniszewska J, Nawrocka N, Bilinski P. Alcohol Consumption Reported during the COVID-19 Pandemic: The Initial Stage. *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* 2020 Jun 29;17(13):4677. doi: 10.3390/ijerph17134677. PMID: 32610613; PMCID: PMC7369979.
44. Garcia-Cerde R, Valente JY, Sohi I, Falade R, Sanchez ZM, Monteiro MG. Alcohol use during the COVID-19 pandemic in Latin America and the Caribbean. *Rev Panam Salud Publica.* 2021 May 20;45:e52. doi: 10.26633/RPSP.2021.52. PMID: 34025727; PMCID: PMC8132959.
45. Wootton RE, Greenstone HSR, Abdellaoui A, Denys D, Verweij KJH, Munafò MR, Treur JL. Bidirectional effects between loneliness, smoking and alcohol use: evidence from a Mendelian randomization study. *Addiction.* 2021 Feb;116(2):400-406. doi: 10.1111/add.15142. Epub 2020 Jun 29. PMID: 32542815.



46. Szajnoga D, Klimek-Tulwin M, Piekut A. COVID-19 lockdown leads to changes in alcohol consumption patterns. Results from the Polish national survey. *J Addict Dis.* 2021 Apr-Jun;39(2):215-225. doi: 10.1080/10550887.2020.1848247. Epub 2020 Dec 14. PMID: 33308059.
47. Brener ND, Bohm MK, Jones CM, Puvanesarajah S, Robin L, Suarez N, Deng X, Harding RL, Moyse D. Use of Tobacco Products, Alcohol, and Other Substances Among High School Students During the COVID-19 Pandemic - Adolescent Behaviors and Experiences Survey, United States, January-June 2021. *MMWR Suppl.* 2022 Apr 1;71(3):8-15. doi: 10.15585/mmwr.su7103a2. PMID: 35358166; PMCID: PMC8979600.
48. Mejia MC, Zoorob R, Levine RS, Huang X, Hennekens CH. Cross-Sectional Survey of Smoking Patterns During the COVID-19 Pandemic in a Tobacco Cessation and Lung Cancer Screening Program. *Ochsner J.* 2022 Spring;22(1):48-60. doi: 10.31486/toj.21.0082. PMID: 35355638; PMCID: PMC8929218.
49. Schäfer AA, Santos LP, Quadra MR, Dumith SC, Meller FO. Alcohol Consumption and Smoking During Covid-19 Pandemic: Association with Sociodemographic, Behavioral, and Mental Health Characteristics. *J Community Health.* 2022 Aug;47(4):588-597. doi: 10.1007/s10900-022-01085-5. Epub 2022 Mar 25. PMID: 35334032; PMCID: PMC8951656.
50. Killgore WDS, Cloonan SA, Taylor EC, Lucas DA, Dailey NS. Alcohol dependence during COVID-19 lockdowns. *Psychiatry Res.* 2021 Feb;296:113676. doi: 10.1016/j.psychres.2020.113676. Epub 2020 Dec 25. PMID: 33385782; PMCID: PMC9754813.
51. Marano G, Traversi G, Gaetani E, Pola R, Claro AE, Mazza M. Alcohol use disorder and liver injury related to the COVID-19 pandemic. *World J Hepatol.* 2022 Oct 27;14(10):1875-1883. doi: 10.4254/wjh.v14.i10.1875. PMID: 36340751; PMCID: PMC9627438.
52. Golemis A, Voitsidis P, Parlapani E, Nikopoulou VA, Tsipropoulou V, Karamouzi P, Giakoulidou A, Dimitriadou A, Kafetzopoulou C, Holeva V, Diakogiannis I. Young adults' coping strategies against loneliness during the COVID-19-related quarantine in Greece. *Health Promot Int.* 2022 Feb 17;37(1):daab053. doi: 10.1093/heapro/daab053. PMID: 33864073; PMCID: PMC8138818.
53. Grigoletto V, Cognigni M, Occhipinti AA, Abbracciavento G, Carrozzi M, Barbi E, Cozzi G. Rebound of Severe Alcoholic Intoxications in Adolescents and Young Adults After COVID-19 Lockdown. *J Adolesc Health.* 2020 Nov;67(5):727-729. doi: 10.1016/j.jadohealth.2020.08.017. Epub 2020 Sep 15. PMID: 32943287; PMCID: PMC7490634.
54. Althobaiti YS, Alzahrani MA, Alsharif NA, Alrobaie NS, Alsaab HO, Uddin MN. The Possible Relationship between the Abuse of Tobacco, Opioid, or Alcohol with COVID-19. *Healthcare (Basel).* 2020 Dec 22;9(1):2. doi: 10.3390/healthcare9010002. PMID: 33375144; PMCID: PMC7822153.
55. Asare S, Xue Z, Majmundar A, Bandi P, Nargis N. Changes in State-Level Cigarette Sales During the COVID-19 Pandemic. *JAMA Netw Open.* 2022 Dec 1;5(12):e2248678. doi: 10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2022.48678. PMID: 36576742; PMCID: PMC9857347.
56. Herzig SE, Albers L, Soto D, Lee R, Ramirez C, Rahman T, Unger JB. Pandemic-related life changes and adolescent initiation of cannabis and tobacco/nicotine use. *Addict Behav.* 2023 Sep;144:107724. doi: 10.1016/j.addbeh.2023.107724. Epub 2023 Apr 14. PMID: 37087769; PMCID: PMC10103764.
57. Borges AM, Versella MV, Kibbey MM, Hall SM, Leyro TM. The interactive effect of anxiety sensitivity and negative smoking cessation cognitions on reductions in cigarette consumption during acute cessation. *Addict Behav.* 2021 Jun;117:106839. doi: 10.1016/j.addbeh.2021.106839. Epub 2021 Jan 22. PMID: 33556671; PMCID: PMC7985719.
58. Hanafi E, Siste K, Limawan AP, Sen LT, Christian H, Murtani BJ, Adrian, Siswidiani LP, Suwartono C. Alcohol- and Cigarette-Use Related Behaviors During Quarantine and Physical Distancing Amid COVID-19 in Indonesia. *Front Psychiatry.* 2021 Feb 2;12:622917. doi: 10.3389/fpsy.2021.622917. PMID: 33603689; PMCID: PMC7884457.
59. Marshal MP, Friedman MS, Stall R, King KM, Miles J, Gold MA, Bukstein OG, Morse JQ. Sexual orientation and adolescent substance use: a meta-analysis and methodological review. *Addiction.* 2008 Apr;103(4):546-56. doi: 10.1111/j.1360-0443.2008.02149.x. PMID: 18339100; PMCID: PMC2680081.
60. Gilbert PA, Soweid L, Holdefer PJ, Kersten S, Mulia N. Strategies to maintain recovery from alcohol problems during the COVID-19 pandemic: Insights from a mixed-methods national survey of adults in the United States. *PLoS One.* 2023 Apr 17;18(4):e0284435. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0284435. PMID: 37068066; PMCID: PMC10109499.
61. Kar P, Tomfohr-Madsen L, Giesbrecht G, Bagshawe M, Lebel C. Alcohol and substance use in pregnancy during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Drug Alcohol Depend.* 2021 Aug 1;225:108760. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2021.108760. Epub 2021 May 21. PMID: 34102507; PMCID: PMC9758579.
62. Degenhardt L, Hall WD, Lynskey M, McGrath J, McLaren J, Calabria B, Whiteford H, Vos T. Should burden of disease estimates include cannabis use as a risk factor for psychosis? *PLoS Med.* 2009 Sep;6(9):e1000133. doi: 10.1371/journal.pmed.1000133. Epub 2009 Sep 29. PMID: 19787023; PMCID: PMC2741573.
63. Lee MR, Chassin L, Mackinnon D. The effect of marriage on young adult heavy drinking and its mediators: results from two methods of adjusting for selection into marriage. *Psychol Addict Behav.* 2010 Dec;24(4):712-8. doi: 10.1037/a0020983. PMID: 21198229; PMCID: PMC3058715.
64. Regier DA, Farmer ME, Rae DS, Locke BZ, Keith SJ, Judd LL, Goodwin FK. Comorbidity of mental disorders with alcohol and other drug abuse. Results from the Epidemiologic Catchment Area (ECA) Study. *JAMA.* 1990 Nov 21;264(19):2511-8. PMID: 2232018.
65. Le Strat Y, Le Foll B. Obesity and cannabis use: results from 2 representative national surveys. *Am J Epidemiol.* 2011 Oct 15;174(8):929-33. doi: 10.1093/aje/kwr200. Epub 2011 Aug 24. PMID: 21868374.
66. Buckner JD, Keough ME, Schmidt NB. Problematic alcohol and cannabis use among young adults: the roles of depression and discomfort and distress tolerance. *Addict Behav.* 2007 Sep;32(9):1957-63. doi: 10.1016/j.addbeh.2006.12.019. Epub 2006 Dec 22. PMID: 17258398; PMCID: PMC1986746.
67. Kassel JD, Stroud LR, Paronis CA. Smoking, stress, and negative affect: correlation, causation, and context across stages of smoking. *Psychol Bull.* 2003 Mar;129(2):270-304. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.129.2.270. PMID: 12696841.
68. Wilcox HC, Conner KR, Caine ED. Association of alcohol and drug use disorders and completed suicide: an empirical review of cohort studies. *Drug Alcohol Depend.* 2004 Dec 7;76 Suppl:S11-9. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2004.08.003. PMID: 15555812.
69. Kassel JD, Veilleux JC, Wardle MC, Markowitz JT. Associations among crowded living conditions, parent-child relationships, and cigarette smoking among adolescents. *Journal of Pediatric Psychology.* 2016; 41(3):248-257.
70. Latendresse SJ, Rose RJ, Viken RJ, Pulkkinen L, Kaprio J, Dick DM. Parenting mechanisms in links between parents' and adolescents' alcohol use behaviors. *Alcohol Clin Exp Res.* 2008 Feb;32(2):322-30. doi: 10.1111/j.1530-0277.2007.00583.x. Epub 2007 Dec 21. PMID: 18162066; PMCID: PMC2504716.
71. Tucker JS, Orlando M, Ellickson PL. Patterns and correlates of binge drinking trajectories from early adolescence to young adulthood. *Health Psychol.* 2003 Jan;22(1):79-87. doi: 10.1037//0278-6133.22.1.79. PMID: 12558205.
72. Vanderbruggen N, Matthys F, Van Laere S, Zeeuws D, Santermans L, Van den Ameel S, Crunelle CL. Self-Reported Alcohol, Tobacco, and Cannabis Use during COVID-19 Lockdown Measures: Results from a Web-Based Survey. *Eur Addict Res.* 2020;26(6):309-315. doi: 10.1159/000510822. Epub 2020 Sep 22. PMID: 32961535; PMCID: PMC7573904.