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Original quantitative research

Discrimination in the health care system among higher-weight adults: evidence from a Canadian national cross-sectional survey

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Abstract

Introduction: Weight-related social stigma is associated with adverse health outcomes. Health care systems are not exempt of weight stigma, which includes stereotyping, prejudice and discrimination. The objective of this study was to examine the association between body mass index (BMI) class and experiencing discrimination in health

Methods: We used data from the 2013 Canadian Community Health Survey, which included measurements of discrimination never collected previously on a national scale. Logistic regression analysis was used to assess the risk of self-reported discrimination in health care in adults (≥18 years) across weight categories: not obese (BMI < 30 kg/m²), obese class I (BMI = $30 - < 35 \text{ kg/m}^2$) and obese class II or III (BMI $\geq 35 \text{ kg/m}^2$).

Results: One in 15 (6.4%; 95% CI: 5.7–7.0%) of the adult population reported discrimination in a health care setting (e.g. physician's office, clinic or hospital). Compared with those in the not obese group, the risk of discrimination in health care was somewhat higher among those in the class I obesity category (odds ratio [OR] = 1.20; 95% CI: 1.00–1.44) and significantly higher among those in class II/III (OR = 1.52; 95 % CI: 1.21–1.91), after controlling for sex, age and other socioeconomic characteristics.

Conclusion: Quantified experiences of weight-related discrimination underscore the need to change practitioner attitudes and practices as well as the policies and procedures of the health care system. More research is needed on the social and economic impacts of weight stigma to inform focused investments for reducing discrimination in the health care system as a microcosm of the society it reflects.

Keywords: body weight, obesity, social stigma, social discrimination, social determinants of health, health surveys, attitude of health personnel

Introduction

A small but growing body of literature suggests that weight stigma is directly associated with adverse physiological and psychological outcomes.1 Stigma and discrimination have a spectrum of effects that can lead to negative health outcomes by creating and reinforcing social inequalities.2 These inequalities, in turn, limit access to resources and opportunities.2

Stigma in health care undermines diagnosis, treatment and optimal health.3 Consequences of weight stigma may include avoidance of medical care, provider distrust, medication nonadherence, disordered eating, physical inactivity and poorer mental health.4-9 Experiencing weight stigma has been associated with numerous cardiometabolic disturbances including atherosclerosis, cardiovascular conditions, diabetes and biological stress. 10-13

Highlights

- Weight stigma is associated with adverse physical and mental health outcomes.
- · Based on data from the first nationally representative survey on every day and medical discrimination, we found that 6.4% of Canadian adults experienced discrimination in a health care setting.
- Higher-weight people were significantly more likely to report discrimination in health care, after adjusting for sex, income group and other social and demographic characteristics, than those whose body mass index was in the not obese category.
- More research is needed to inform interventions to reduce weight stigma in the health care system.

A longitudinal assessment from the United States associated weight discrimination with increased mortality risk, after adjustment for frequently related morbidities and behaviours.14 The World Health Organization recognizes that many individuals and groups face discrimination in health care settings on the basis of their sex, age, ethnicity, gender identity, vulnerability to ill health and/or other characteristics-and that such discrimination does not occur in a vacuum.15 An enhanced evidence base is needed to support accountability and policy development.15

The implications of stigma and discrimination for population health and health

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inequities are increasingly acknowledged in Canada and elsewhere. 16-18 Data from a national household survey indicate that everyday discrimination persists across multiple social groups in Canada. 19,20 Discrimination is often attributed to gender and physical characteristics such as weight, although the intergroup empirical patterns of chronic subtle mistreatments do not necessarily follow a straightforward socialization theory trajectory. 19,20

In particular, weight stigmatization is a commonly used umbrella term in the literature.21 It can be defined as "negative weight-related attitudes and beliefs that are manifested by stereotypes, rejection and prejudice towards individuals because they are overweight or obese."22 Some studies found that substantial proportions of clinicians hold prejudiced beliefs about higherweight patients, including that they are less motivated, noncompliant, awkward and lack will power.23-25 In a sample of family physicians practising in Canada (n = 400), large proportions gave responses suggestive of weight bias: 49% agreed that "people with obesity increase demand on the public health care system"; 33% stated they "often feel frustrated with patients who have obesity"; 28% stated they felt "patients with obesity are often noncompliant with treatment recommendations"; 19% said "I feel disgust when treating a patient with obesity"; and 17% indicated that "sometimes I think that people with obesity are dishonest."26

Under-explored in Canada is the prevalence of weight-based stigma in different settings, despite its pernicious effects.²⁷ This study aims to address this knowledge gap by assessing the association of higher body weight with self-reported discrimination in health care among Canadian women and men.

We used information from a national data collection on stigma and discrimination as an emerging population health issue to support evidence-based health promotion in this context of publicly funded universal health care coverage. The goal is to inform policy actions for enhanced accountability and reduction of stigma in the health care system as a microcosm of the society it reflects.

Methods

Study design

We analyzed data from the 2013 Canadian Community Health Survey (CCHS) and,

specifically, its rapid response module on everyday discrimination. The CCHS is an annual cross-sectional survey administered by Statistics Canada that collects information on health determinants, health status and health care from a nationally representative sample of the communitydwelling population aged 12 years and over. The 2013 CCHS included a unique module that captured data to measure discrimination never collected previously on a national scale.²⁸ The original sample for the CCHS "everyday discrimination" module included 19 876 respondents.²⁹ We limited the sample to adults aged 18 years and over with valid responses to all variables of interest (n = 16340).

Discrimination in health care

Respondents were asked questions about their perception of discrimination in their day-to-day life and in their experiences with health care services. Previous studies have found itemized measures of perceived discrimination to have consistent predictive validity.30 The outcome variable for this analysis was based on valid answers to the question, "Have you received poorer service than other people in any of the following situations?" The settings included a physician's office, a community health centre, a walk-in clinic, a hospital emergency room or another health care service.31 We measured our outcome dichotomously, that is, whether or not the respondent reported receiving poorer service in any physical health care setting.

Weight category

Our main independent variable was derived from self-reported height and weight. We grouped weight status from calculated body mass index (BMI) based on the standard Health Canada framework for classifying body weight: not categorized as obese (BMI < 30 kg/m²); categorized as obese class I (BMI = 30– < 35 kg/m²); and categorized as obese class II or III (BMI \geq 35 kg/m²). Women who were pregnant at the time of the survey were excluded.

Statistical analysis

We conducted multiple logistic regression analysis to assess the independent association of weight status with stigma in health care, adjusting for other socioeconomic characteristics: sex (male or female); age group (18–29 years, 30–44 years, 45–64 years or

≥ 65 years); marital status (whether or not currently in a marital or common-law union); educational attainment (whether or not a household member had attained a postsecondary level of schooling); and income group. We dichotomized individuals' income group into lower-range versus higher-range categories based on the total annual household income from all sources (\$0–29 999 yersus ≥ 30 000).³²

Bootstrapped survey weights were applied to the descriptive statistics to ensure population representation given the CCHS complex sampling design. Rounding algorithms were further applied to the descriptive counts in respect of data privacy protocols. To ease interpretation of the results from the logistic model, coefficients were converted to odds ratios (ORs) with 95% confidence intervals (CIs) (α = 0.05) using statistical software STATA version 15 (StataCorp LP, College Station, TX, USA).

We accessed the confidential survey microdata used in the analysis in the secure environment of the Statistics Canada Research Data Centre (RDC) at the University of New Brunswick in Fredericton, Canada. The study complied with the University of New Brunswick's Research Ethics Board, which does not require an internal institutional review for research projects using data accessed through the RDC, in accordance with the *Tri-Council Policy Statement on Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans*.³³

Results

Based on data from the CCHS, 32.7% (95% CI: 31.0–34.5%) of the adult population reported experiencing discrimination in their everyday life and 6.4% (5.7–7.0%) reported discrimination in a health care setting. The number reporting discrimination in a health care setting represented 1 616 700 (1 453 400–1 780 000) Canadians. Of these people, 29% (24–33%) specifically reported poorer service in the health care sector, but did not also report everyday discrimination in the previous year.

One in five (19.4%) adults were classified with obesity. Specifically, 13.5% (95% CI: 12.6–14.4%) were categorized with class I obesity and 5.9% (5.4–6.5%) with class II or III (Table 1). Reflecting the aging of the population, there were more adults aged 45 years and over (54.8%; 54.2–55.4%) than those aged 18 to 44 years (45.2%; 44.3–46.0%). Fifteen per cent (15.7%; 95%

TABLE 1
Percentage distribution of the population aged 18 years and over by selected characteristics

Characteristic	Percentage distribution, %	95% CI			
Experience of discrimination in a health care setting					
Yes	6.4	5.7–7.0			
No	93.6	92.7–94.6			
Weight category					
Not obese	80.6	79.5–81.7			
Obesity class I	13.5	12.6–14.4			
Obesity class II or III	5.9	5.4–6.5			
Sex					
Male	50.2	49.8–50.7			
Female	49.8	49.2–50.3			
Age group, years					
18–29	19.7	19.2–20.1			
30–44	25.5	25.1–25.9			
45–64	36.0	35.6–36.4			
≥ 65	18.8	18.6–19.0			
Highest level of household education					
At most secondary diploma	18.8	17.9–19.8			
Any postsecondary education	81.2	80.0-82.3			
Marital status					
Not currently married or in union	36.7	35.5–37.9			
Married or common-law	63.3	62.0–64.6			
Household income group, \$					
0–29 999	15.7	14.8–16.6			
≥ 30 000	84.3	83.2–85.5			

Source: Canadian Community Health Survey 2013–Everyday Discrimination Scale (n = 16 340).

Abbreviation: CI, confidence interval.

Note: Data are bootstrap weighted for population representation.

CI: 14.8–16.6%) were in the lowest household-income range (<\$30,000 annually).

Results from the multiple logistic regression showed that, compared with those whose BMI was categorized as not obese, the odds of reporting discrimination in a health care setting was somewhat higher among those with class I obesity (OR = 1.20, 95% CI: 1.00-1.44, p = .05) and significantly higher among those with class II/III obesity (1.52, 1.21-1.91, p < .05), after controlling for other sociodemographic characteristics (Table 2).

All else being equal, women had significantly higher odds than men of reporting discrimination in health care (OR = 1.48, 95% CI: 1.29–1.70, p < .05). People not currently married or living in union had higher odds of reporting discrimination in health care than those who were married

(1.18, 1.03–1.38, p < .05). The odds of those in the lowest household-income group reporting discrimination were higher than those of their higher-income counterparts (1.69, 1.44–2.00, p < .05). Individuals aged 45 years and over were less likely to report discrimination in health care than those aged 18 to 29 years. People living in a household of at most secondary-level educational attainment were also less likely to report discrimination than those in households where a postsecondary level had been attained.

Discussion

The need to pay attention to the consequences of systemic weight bias is increasingly advocated in policy and practice recommendations made through the lens of health promotion, equity and social determinants.³⁴

This study is, to our knowledge, the first national investigation quantifying experiences of discrimination in health care among higher-weight persons using data representative of the Canadian population. A non-negligible proportion (6.4%) of adults reported discrimination in a health care setting. Compared with those in the not obese group, the risk of discrimination in health care was approaching statistical significance among those in the class I obesity category (OR = 1.20, 95% CI: 1.00–1.44, p = .05) and was significantly higher among those in the class II or III obesity category (1.52, 1.21-1.91, p < .05), after controlling for other sociodemographic characteristics.

Being male was found to be independently protective of the risk of experiencing discrimination in a health care setting. Previous studies have found perceived weight discrimination, including in health care contexts, to be more prevalent among women than men.35,36 Being in a higher household-income group was associated with a significantly lower risk of experiencing discrimination in health care, whereas being in a household with higher educational attainment was associated with a significantly higher risk. These potentially contradictory patterns of selfreported discriminatory experiences depending on the measure of socioeconomic status examined may reflect, on the one hand, underreporting due to minimization bias (e.g. lack of awareness), or on the other hand, overreporting due to vigilance bias (heightened focus on their social identity status).19

These results underscore the need to change practitioner attitudes and practices that may be detrimental to health. One in 15 Canadian adults report discrimination in a health care setting, an indicator suggestive of more overt forms of discrimination compared with global discrimination measures. However, weight bias has been a neglected issue in health professional education and training. Despite the critical importance of an effective providerpatient relationship for achieving positive outcomes, there is little empirical evidence about the pathways to valuing trust and managing the power imbalance. Set 15.

More research is needed to address the negative attitudes health care professionals may have towards higher-weight patients and the underlying causes of

TABLE 2
Adjusted odds ratios (with 95% confidence intervals) from the multiple logistic regression for the risk of self-perceived discrimination in a health care setting

Characteristic	Odds ratio	95% CI	<i>p</i> -value
Weight category			
Not obese (ref.)	1.00	-	_
Obesity class I	1.20	1.00-1.44	.05
Obesity class II or III	1.52*	1.21–1.91	<.001
Sex			
Male (ref.)	1.00	-	-
Female	1.48*	1.29–1.70	<.001
Age group, years			
18–29 (ref.)	1.00	-	-
30–44	0.97	0.79-1.20	.83
45–64	0.72*	0.59-0.88	.001
≥65	0.48*	0.38-0.59	<.001
Highest level of household education			
At most secondary diploma	0.79*	0.67-0.93	.007
Any postsecondary education (ref.)	1.00	-	-
Marital status			
Not currently married or in union	1.18*	1.03-1.38	.02
Married or common law (ref.)	1.00	-	-
Household income group, \$			
0–29 999	1.69*	1.44-2.00	<.001
≥ 30 000 (ref.)	1.00	-	-

Source: Canadian Community Health Survey 2013–Everyday Discrimination Scale (n = 16 340).

Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; ref., reference category.

weight stigma, as few intervention strategies have proven especially effective to date.39,40 A qualitative study of stigmareduction interventions prioritized better education on the etiology of body size, the difficulty of losing weight and the falsity of common weight-based stereotypes.22 Appropriate interventions need to extend beyond issues of controllability of weight and address the negative value of fatness—such as unwarranted assumptions and judgements regarding higher-weight persons' health status or attractiveness.37,40 As the science of anti-weight stigma intervention expands, to ensure lasting and noticeable impacts, anti-stigma education strategies must be supported through antiweight discrimination legislation, antibullying policies and culture change.41 In line with this, favouring neutral terminology such as "higher-weight" in health promotion, research and provider-patient communications has been identified among the evidence-based means of fostering safe and respectful dialogue towards the ultimate goal of eliminating weight-stigmatizing attitudes and practices in health care. 42-44

Strengths and limitations

Strengths of the study include the nationally representative nature of the data. While the "true" extent of discrimination may be impossible to determine, as it may be underreported in a survey, the observational data reflect differences between members of Canadian society in judgements of disparate treatment.²⁰

Limitations include the relatively small sample size of the CCHS rapid response module, which was not designed to produce high quality estimates at detailed levels,²⁹ hindering our ability to tease associations between specific health care settings

(such as a hospital emergency department versus a physician's office) or across provinces. In particular, we were unable to retain the statistical power to comprehensively investigate other individual-level characteristics potentially intersecting with weight-based social identity, such as ethnicity, Indigenous identity, immigration status, occupational type, racialization, language, sexual identity, physical disability status or mental health status.

Given the cross-sectional nature of the data, causality cannot be inferred. It is possible, for example, that individuals' past experiences of discrimination may have led to changes in weight and BMI categorization.1,8 Using data on selfreported weight is known to underestimate BMI compared with measured weight; however, such misreporting is statistically predictable and does not necessarily lead to exaggerated bias in studies aiming to estimate effects of BMI on health-related outcomes (such as, in this case, on weight stigma).45 Lastly, while BMI is an expedient measure to collect in national household surveys, it remains an imprecise means of assessing morbidity or mortality risk.46,47

Conclusion

Quantifying experiences of stigma and discrimination in health care settings as related to higher-weight status and other individual characteristics is an important prerequisite to developing and implementing interventions that achieve better population health and equity in the health care system, including in the Canadian context of publicly funded universal coverage. Weight stigma may be exacerbated in the era of the COVID-19 pandemic, when increasing media and social media attention may be paid to weight gain during associated lockdowns.48 International consultations have highlighted concerns among higher-weight individuals of scrutiny while eating, exercising and grocery shopping and of being stigmatized by health practitioners as a negative and lasting barrier to accessing care.48

The starting points for focused investment in health-care stigma reduction are standardized stigma measures and rigorous evaluation.³ Results from this research, which revealed the persistence of weight stigma in health services delivery, are expected to help support evidence-informed decisions targeting the individual level, to

^{*} p < .05.

change practitioner attitudes and practices, and the structural level, to change the policies and procedures of the health system environment that guide the delivery of care.

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Conflicts of interest

The authors declare they have no competing interests.

Authors' contributions and statement

NG, AB, IF and NR contributed to the design of the work and interpretation of the data. NG effected data acquisition. IF conducted formal data analysis. NG and AB prepared the first draft of the manuscript. All the authors critically reviewed the final version.

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Original quantitative research

Pediatric injuries in the time of COVID-19

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Abstract

Introduction: Research has shown that during the 2003 SARS pandemic, emergency department (ED) visits among the pediatric population decreased. We set out to investigate if this was also true for injury-related ED visits during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Methods: Using data from the Canadian Hospitals Injury Reporting and Prevention Program (CHIRPP), we looked at 28 years of injury-related ED visits at the Montreal Children's Hospital, a provincially designated Pediatric Trauma Centre. We compared data from a two-month period during the COVID-19 lockdown (16 March to 15 May) to the same period in previous years (1993–2019) to determine whether the 2020 decrease in ED visit numbers was unprecedented (i.e. a similar decrease had never occurred) for different age groups, nature of injuries, mechanisms and severity.

Results: The 2020 decrease was unprecedented across all age groups between 1993 and 2019. When compared with the 2015 to 2019 average, the decrease was smallest in children aged 2 to 5 years (a 35% decrease), and greatest in the group aged 12 to 17 years (83%). Motor vehicle collisions and sports-related injuries practically vanished during the COVID-19 lockdown. Surprisingly, more children aged 6 to 17 years presented with less urgent injuries during the COVID-19 lockdown than in previous years.

Conclusion: As was the case with SARS in 2003, COVID-19 acted as a deterrent for pediatric ED visits. The lockdown in particular had a profound impact on injury-related visits. The de-confinement period will be monitored to determine the impact in both the short and the long term.

Keywords: COVID-19, adolescents, children, emergency, epidemiology, primary care, wounds, injuries

Introduction

In his book *Love in the Time of Cholera*, Gabriel García Márquez explores a universal and age-old theme: during pandemics, life goes on. Unfortunately, that includes injuries. While one might not immediately associate a disease pandemic with injuries to children, it remains that the one might influence the other.

Rates of injuries in children and adolescents have been shown to fluctuate from one year to the next,¹⁻⁶ but also within each year according to seasonal variations.⁶⁻¹³ At the onset of the COVID-19 lockdown in Montréal on 16 March, 2020, when schools and daycares closed and all organized sporting activities stopped, we anticipated a decrease in the number of children presenting with an injury to the

Highlights

- During the COVID-19 lockdown in Montréal (16 March to 15 May, 2020) ED visits by children aged 0 to 17 years decreased by 72% compared to the average of the previous 5 years.
- In the same period, children's (aged 0–17 years) injury-related ED visits decreased by 62% compared to the average of the previous 5 years.
- The decrease in numbers was unprecedented over the past 28 years for fractures and mild traumatic brain injuries in children aged 6 to 17 years; for burns in children aged 0 to 5 years; and for motor vehicle collisions (all ages) and sports-related injuries (all ages).

emergency department (ED) of the Montreal Children's Hospital (MCH) Pediatric and Adolescent Trauma Centre.

We looked first at the data from the 2003 SARS outbreak. While we did find research addressing reduced ED visit rates for children during that time, we did not find any papers specifically addressing the impact upon injury rates in the pediatric population. We then set out to determine and document the evolving impact that the COVID-19 lockdown had on ED visits related to injuries in the pediatric population (aged 0–17 years) according to the age of the child, the mechanism of injury, and the nature and the severity of the injury.

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Methods

We retrieved data from the Canadian Hospitals Injury Reporting and Prevention Program (CHIRPP), created in 1990 by the Public Health Agency of Canada to provide a broader understanding of injuries, especially those in the pediatric population (aged under 18 years), by gathering data from emergency visits from 10 pediatric hospitals. As of 2020, CHIRPP has over 3.5 million records and has been expanded to gather data from 19 hospitals across the country: 11 pediatric and 8 general.¹⁴

As per the CHIRPP protocol at Montreal Children's Hospital Pediatric and Adolescent Trauma Centre, patients or parents of patients who presented to the ED for assessment and treatment of an injury were asked to fill out a one-page questionnaire and provide detailed information about the injury, such as when, where and how it happened. In addition, clinical data, such as the nature of the injury, body part and type of treatment, were extracted from the ED record by the CHIRPP coordinator. For cases in which there was no CHIRPP form filled out by families, information was extracted from the patients' medical records by the coordinator. In order to ensure full confidentiality, the patient's hospital medical record number was scrambled, and the child's date of birth was rounded off to 15 or 31. depending on the day of the month the child was born. This was done prior to submission of the information to the central CHIRPP data centre in Ottawa. The Montreal Children's Hospital CHIRPP system captures over 97% of all ED injuryrelated visits occurring at the institution.

To document the decrease in number of injury-related visits during the COVID-19 lockdown period, we opted to do a comparison of the same period of time over 28 years, from 1993 to 2020. We restricted the cases to patients that visited the ED during the period from 16 March to 15 May (which corresponds to two months of COVID-19 lockdown in Montréal) for each of the 28 years. We separated children into four age groups: toddlers (aged 0–1 year), pre-school (2–5 years), elementary school (6–11 years) and high school (12–17 years.)

We limited our injury mechanisms to three categories. The first one, motor vehicle collisions (MVCs), was an obvious choice, as traffic decreased in Montréal during the lockdown. The second, sports-related injuries, was chosen because sports and recreational activities were not allowed during the COVID-19 lockdown. We included sports injuries that occurred in both organized settings and informal ones, and limited the sports to the following: ice hockey, football, soccer, basketball, rugby, skiing and snowboarding. The third category was injuries that occurred during recreational activities, which included cycling, skateboarding, scootering (push scooter) and trampoline (residential backyard trampolines).

To determine variations in injury severity, we used the ED triage scale (Canadian Triage and Acuity Scale)^{15,16} to verify our hypothesis that during COVID-19 lockdown there would be a greater proportion of children presenting with urgent or severe injuries. We calculated the proportion of triage levels 1 (resuscitation), 2 (emergent) and 3 (urgent) for each year between 2010 and 2020 (we could not use years prior to 2010 because triage protocol changed at the MCH ED in 2009).

Statistical analysis

Results are presented as plotted graphs for each age group and then further broken down by specific injuries. Given that there were demographic changes over the long study period, we limited our average calculations to the number of patients seen during the previous five years (2015–2019). We calculated 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for each average. Calculations and analyses were performed using

SPSS software version 17.0 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA).

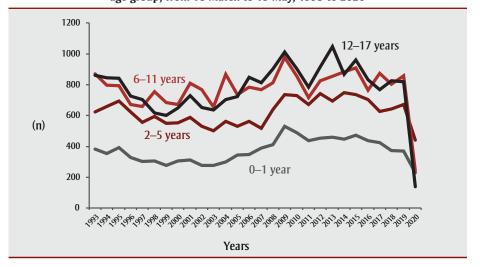
Results

From 2015 to 2019, an average of 14 016 children (95% CI: 13 242–14 789) visited the MCH ED in the two-month period between 16 March and 15 May; in 2020, it was 3909—a 72% decrease. When we considered only those consulting for an injury, we found there was still a marked reduction, from an average of 2774 (95% CI: 2623–2924) down to 1052 in 2020—a 62% decrease.

The decreases in injury-related ED visits varied according to the age of the child (Figure 1). In toddlers aged 0 to 1 year, the lowest number seen over the 28-year period was 275 in 1999, while in 2020 it was 230. In preschoolers aged 2 to 5 years, the lowest number recorded was 500 in 2003, compared to 441 in 2020. When looking at the average for the years 2015 to 2019, we found the decrease was greater for toddlers (a 45% decrease from an average of 415 [95% CI: 377–453]) than for preschoolers (a 35% decrease from an average of 676 [95% CI: 637–715]).

For elementary school children, aged 6 to 11 years, the record low number was 656 in 2003 (241 in 2020), while for high school-aged children from 12 to 17 years, the lowest number was 601 in 1999 (down to 139 in 2020). When looking at the average for 2015 to 2019 for these groups, we found the decrease was greater for high school-aged children (an 83% decrease from an average of 841 [95% CI: 779–902])

FIGURE 1 Number of injury-related visits to Montreal Children's Hospital emergency department, per age group, from 16 March to 15 May, 1993 to 2020



than for elementary school children (a 71% decrease from an average of 842 [95% CI: 792–892]. The gender of children visiting the ED did not vary; it averaged 55.4% males [95% CI: 54.3%-57.4%] between 2015 and 2019, and was 55.8% in

The decrease in numbers also varied by the type of injury and by age. To simplify the figures, we separated children into two age groups, 0 to 5 years and 6 to 17, and only looked at four types of injuries: fractures, mild traumatic brain injuries (mTBI), burns and poisonings. In children aged 0 to 5 years, only burns showed an unprecedented decrease (i.e. a similar decrease had never occurred in the study period): 15 cases in 2014 versus 10 in 2020 (Figures 2 and 3). When the 2015 to 2019 average was used, the decrease in 2020 was statistically significant in mTBI (a 44% decrease, from 285 [95% CI: 260-310] down to 160); in fractures (a 33% decrease, from 132 [95% CI: 114-151] down to 88); and in burns (a 55% decrease, from 22 [95% CI: 17-28] down to 10).

In children aged 6 to 17 years, the decrease in 2020 was unprecedented for fractures (129 in 2020 vs. 265 in 1997) and mTBI (20 in 2020 vs. 75 in 1993). All injuries showed a statistically significant decrease in 2020 in comparison to the 2015 to 2019 average: there was a 70% decrease for fractures (428 [95% CI: 400–456] down to 129); a 93% decrease for mTBI (295 [95% CI: 269–322] down to 20); a 61% decrease for poisonings (36 [95% CI: 29–43] down to 14); and a 47% decrease for burns (8 [95% CI: 5–10] down to 4 (Figures 4 and 5).

With regard to the mechanism of injury, we looked at recreational activities, sports-related and motor vehicle-related injuries. We examined four recreational activities specifically: cycling, skateboarding, scootering (push scooter) and trampoline (residential backyard trampolines). The COVID-19 lockdown did not yield any unprecedented results or significant changes from the past-five-year average. The one exception was cycling: injuries related to cycling had been steadily declining over the years and spiked during the COVID-19 lockdown (Figure 6).

MVCs and sports-related injuries saw the most drastic decreases of all of the

FIGURE 2 Number of visits to Montreal Children's Hospital emergency department for mild traumatic brain injuries and fractures in children aged 0 to 5 years, from 16 March to 15 May, 1993 to 2020

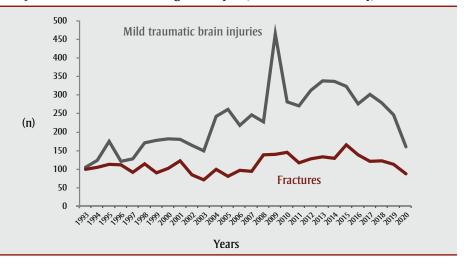


FIGURE 3 Number of visits to Montreal Children's Hospital emergency department for burns and poisonings in children aged 0 to 5 years, from 16 March to 15 May, 1993 to 2020

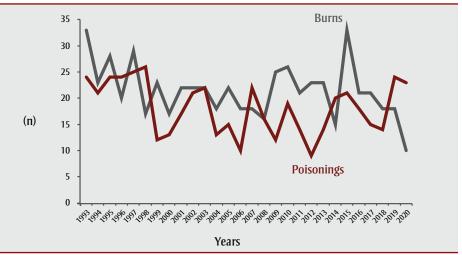


FIGURE 4

Number of visits to Montreal Children's Hospital emergency department for mild traumatic brain injuries and fractures in children aged 6 to 17 years, from 16 March to 15 May, 1993 to 2020

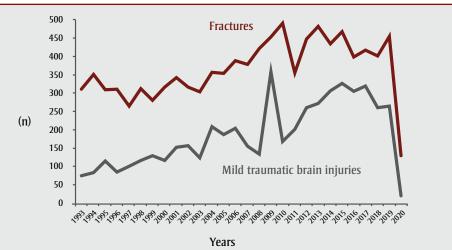


FIGURE 5 Number of visits to Montreal Children's Hospital emergency department for burns and poisonings in children aged 6 to 17 years, from 16 March to 15 May, 1993 to 2020

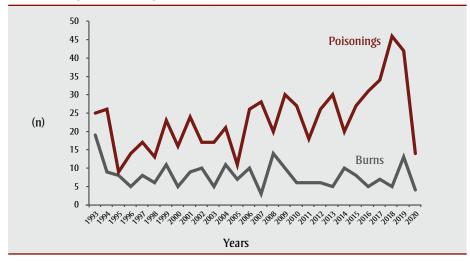


FIGURE 6 Number of visits to Montreal Children's Hospital emergency department for injuries related to recreational activities, in children aged 0 to 17 years, from 16 March to 15 May, 1993 to 2020

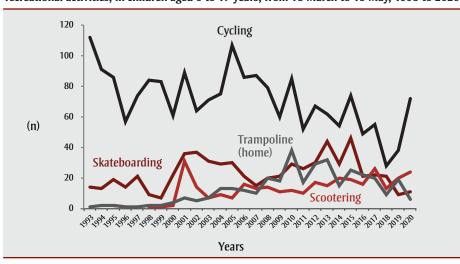
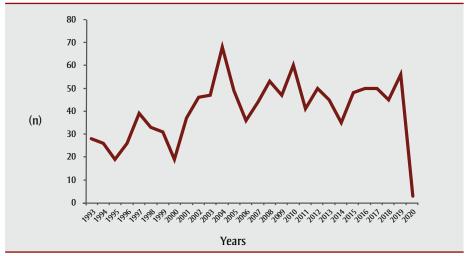


FIGURE 7
Number of visits to Montreal Children's Hospital emergency department for motor vehicle—related injuries in children aged 0 to 17 years, from 16 March to 15 May, 1993 to 2020



mechanisms. For all children, aged 0 to 17 years, the lowest number of motor vehicle-related injuries on record was 19 in 1995; in 2020 it was only 3 (Figure 7), a 99% decrease compared to the 2015 to 2019 average of 50 (95% CI: 46–53). For sports-related injuries, the lowest number was 279 in 2011; in 2020 it was only 17 (Figure 8). As with MVCs, this represents a 99% decrease compared to the 2015 to 2019 average of 520 (95% CI: 481–559).

With regard to a change in severity for all injury-related visits, the proportion of urgent triage (those coded 1 to 3 by the ED triage nurse) remained the same for children aged 0 to 5 years. Surprisingly, for those aged 6 to 17 years, the March-to-May lockdown period in 2020 saw the lowest percentage of urgent/severe injury-related cases, a 63% decrease from the 2015 to 2019 average of 52% [95% CI: 48%–56%] down to 19% in 2020 (Figure 9).

Discussion

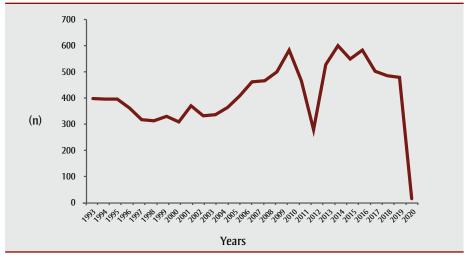
We determined that the COVID-19 lock-down had a drastic impact on children's (aged 0–17 years) ED visits. Studies on the SARS 2003 pandemic also pointed to a decrease in pediatric visits to the ED.¹⁷⁻¹⁹ One study from Italy on COVID-19 has also reported a decrease in pediatric ED visits.²⁰ However, if we use the same age group as a Toronto study on the impact of SARS 2003,¹⁷ we get opposite results (i.e. the decrease in number of cases in the Toronto study was greatest in the youngest age group and lowest in the oldest).

The reduction in MVCs during the COVID-19 lockdown is already making news. A report from the Road Ecology Center estimated a 50% reduction in MVCs in California.²¹ Seattle and San Francisco also reported a 50% reduction.²² We cannot conclude that our nearly 100% decrease in ED visits due to MVCs is reflective of the current number of MVCs in Montréal, but it does point to a substantial reduction in MVCs during COVID-19 times.

We could not find anything in the press or the scientific literature regarding the decrease in sports-related injuries during the COVID-19 lockdown, or during SARS, for that matter. Because the lockdown forced children and teenagers to stop practising sports, it did not surprise us that it was responsible for a nearly 100% decrease in injuries usually sustained through these activities. It will be

FIGURE 8

Number of visits to Montreal Children's Hospital emergency department for sports-related^a injuries in children aged 0 to 17 years, from 16 March to 15 May, 1993 to 2020



^a Sports include ice hockey, football, soccer, basketball, rugby, skiing and snowboarding.

interesting to monitor the situation and determine if a two-month period of inactivity will have an impact on sportsrelated injuries when they reappear.

The decrease in severe/urgent visits for school-aged children (aged 6–17 years) during the COVID-19 lockdown is hard to explain. Interestingly, there were more patients presenting to the ED with nonurgent or mild injuries during this period, which was contrary to what might be expected—that is, that these patients would stay away from the ED for fear of catching COVID-19. It is unclear how to explain these results, as there is nothing in the scientific literature that could shed some light on this issue.

Of interest: five children (aged 0–6 years) consulted our ED (3 were hospitalized) following intoxication from cannabis products (mostly edibles) during the 2020 COVID-19 lockdown. Cannabis intoxication in children aged 0 to 3 years is extremely rare at our ED. In the past 28 years, during the same two-month period, it has only occurred three times: in 1995, 2004 and 2006

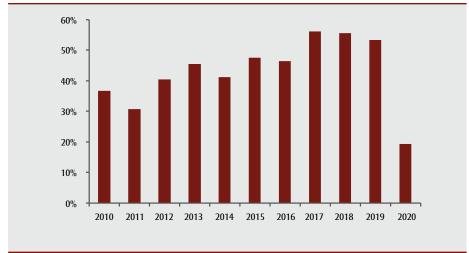
A major strength of this study is that it relied on data collected over a very long period of time, and not just on a yearbefore/year-after design, as many studies have done. Data collected over a short

period, it has only occurred three times: in 1995, 2004 and 2006.

Strengths and limitations

A major strength of this study is that it relied on data collected over a very long

FIGURE 9
Proportion of urgent triage^a injury-related visits to Montreal Children's Hospital emergency department in children aged 6 to 17 years, from 16 March to 15 May, 2010 to 2020



^a Urgent/severe triage levels 1 (resuscitation), 2 (emergent) and 3 (urgent) coded by the emergency department triage nurse.

time frame may indicate a striking change between one year and the next, but not reveal whether this change was unprecedented. Another strength of this study is that although the data come from only one hospital, they relied on large numbers, allowing for small confidence intervals and thus better inference.

The main limitation of this study is that it relied on data from one hospital and cannot be used to infer trends over the general population. While the decrease in pediatric injury-related ED visits is significant and unprecedented, we cannot determine whether there really were fewer injuries, or whether the decrease was a social response to COVID-19. Parents may have decided not to consult or decided to visit private clinics instead of pediatric EDs, which could mean we are overestimating the reduction our results suggest.

During COVID-19, patients (or their parents) visiting the ED were not given CHIRPP questionnaires to fill out for fear of disease transmission; this resulted in a loss of detail, as the information we used came from ED reports. This would have mattered had we chosen to look at specific narratives (e.g. cyclists on bike paths, falls from monkey bars at the local parks, etc.). It is the main reason we did not report on home injuries—the location of the injury is rarely present on the ED report, unlike CHIRPP, and since the 2020 data relied heavily on ED report, information regarding where the injury occurred was missing. It might be tempting to assume that most injuries occurred at home during the lockdown but we cannot be certain (in fact, some of the few CHIRPP reports we received during this period stated that the injury occurred at the grandparents' residence, and others in skate parks, both of which were off limits during lockdown). Nevertheless, our capture rate remained the same for the entire period 1993 to 2020 (between 97% and 98% of all injury-related ED visits were included), and thus we believe our results to be valid, since none of the variables studied (age, gender, and type of injuries) were missing.

Conclusion

The ED department of the Montreal Children's Hospital Pediatric and Adolescent Trauma Centre saw drastic and often unprecedented decreases in pediatric visits during the two-month COVID-19 lockdown period. The decreases were most evident for school-aged children (aged 6–11 years). Injury mechanisms such as MVCs and sports-related injuries practically vanished during lockdown. We hope that others will review their injury-related ED visits during the period of lockdown associated with COVID-19 to help ascertain whether our observed reduction in injuries presenting to the ED remains true across a more generalizable pediatric sample.

Acknowledgements

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Conflicts of interest

We have no conflict of interest to report.

Authors' contributions and statement

GK drafted the manuscript and all authors contributed to its revision. GK analyzed the data and DF and IG contributed to the development and revisions. GK takes responsibility for the paper as a whole.

The content and views expressed in this article are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect those of the Government of Canada.

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Evidence-informed policy brief

Substance use and related harms in the context of COVID-19: a conceptual model

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Abstract

As the effects of COVID-19 have been unfolding, growing attention has been paid to the intersection of COVID-19 and substance use and the related harms. However, there are few theories and little empirical evidence to guide investigations in this area. To advance this emerging area of inquiry, we present a conceptual model that synthesizes evidence, information and knowledge on substance use and related harms in the context of the pandemic. The conceptual model offers a visual representation of the connections between the pandemic and substance use and related harms, and can be used to identify areas for future research.

Keywords: COVID-19, coronavirus, substance use, substance-related harms, opioids, conceptual model

Introduction

In March 2020, the World Health Organization declared the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) a pandemic.1 In response, Canada has implemented significant public health measures to reduce transmission.2 Studies on the effects of physical distancing and self-isolation suggest that people may be changing how they use substances—alcohol,3 opioids4-7 and cigarettes⁷—as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. Moreover, the pandemic and associated secondary effects* may present unique challenges, such as decreased access to services and safe supplies of substances, and increased risk of substance-related harms.3-7

The COVID-19 pandemic is an unprecedented event in modern history. The limited

evidence that can be drawn from previous pandemics, for example, the severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) outbreak of 2003, may not be representative of current circumstances. A rapidly evolving area of investigation has been of substance use and related harms in the context of the pandemic. Despite a growing number of editorials and media reports,³⁻⁷ there are few theories and little empirical evidence to guide future research.

A conceptual model is a diagram of "linkages among a set of concepts believed to be related to a particular public health problem." This type of model is particularly useful when there is little existing empirical evidence and formal theory. Model development involves summarizing and integrating the knowledge available from the scientific literature and from the

Highlights

- As of June 2020, substance use and related harms in the context of a pandemic remained largely uninvestigated.
- The COVID-19 pandemic may impact how Canadians use substances and may present specific challenges and harms among people who use substances.
- The conceptual model in this paper offers a synthesis of evidence, information and knowledge of the concepts and associations relevant to substance use and harms in the context of the pandemic.
- Relevant concepts were synthesized into five interrelated domains that can be used to identify areas for future research into substance use and related harms in the context of COVID-19: substance use as a means of coping; changes in social support and networks; availability and accessibility of services; increased risk of COVID-19 transmission among people who use substances; and increased risk of severe outcomes.

experience of experts and professionals. Conceptual models can guide future research by providing potentially pertinent concepts and guiding hypotheses to

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^{*} In this paper, we use the term "secondary effects of COVID-19" to refer to the indirect effects of the pandemic, including the impacts of public health measures taken to control the spread of COVID-19 and the psychosocial impact of the pandemic environment such as worry and fear.

be tested on the potential relationships between concepts.8

The objective of this paper is to present a conceptual model of the possible effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on substance use and related harms. This model was developed primarily with a focus on opioids and other illegal drugs; however, alcohol and cannabis use were also considered. This model can be used to generate specific research questions and hypotheses that can then be tested through rigorous methods. The model can be updated and refined as evidence emerges.

Model development

While there is no standardized methodology for developing a conceptual model, we used the general approach to model development described by Earp and Ennett⁸ to guide the development process. Earp and Ennett's approach is a wellestablished and widely cited and adapted method of conceptual model development. ^{9,10} The overarching process of model development involves determining the scope of the model, identifying concepts or variables that relate to the issue of interest and explicating potential relationships between concepts. ^{8,9}

The scope of the model presented in this paper includes substance use and related

harms as they pertain to the COVID-19 pandemic. We developed the model through an iterative process of literature review, discussion within the research group and consultation with public health professionals and experts. Model development was led by a researcher (AE) with experience in qualitative research and thematic analysis.

We developed the first version of the model by summarizing a list of potentially relevant concepts and conducting a literature review of these concepts in published and grey literature sources. Beginning in March 2020, we searched the peer-reviewed literature in MEDLINE and the World Health Organization COVID literature database for English-language original research articles, reviews and editorials/commentaries. We then searched pre-print databases and grey literature sources. As the focus on the conceptual model is an emerging area of investigation, with limited high quality literature to rely on, we expanded the search to include expert opinion and media reports to support generating potential concepts to include in the model. The members of the research group discussed the list of concepts and the potential relationships between them, and revised these based on the results of the literature review. We then drafted the visual model and circulated it for discussion and revision within the research group.

To obtain rapid feedback, we invited professionals with expertise in substance use and related harms surveillance, research, policy and program to critically review the draft of the visual model and accompanying text descriptions and to comment. We gave these professionals a spreadsheet to document comments and questions on each domain as well as to provide feedback on the overall model. Using the feedback, we refined the conceptual model and circulated the revised model and text descriptions to the research group and to the experts who had provided feedback on the model for confirmation and additional feedback. The conceptual model was developed between March and May 2020.

This model should be considered a first version that may be revised and expanded as the pandemic and its effects continue to unfold, new areas of concern and investigation emerge, and research evidence becomes available.

Conceptual model

The conceptual model (Figure 1) provides a visual representation of how intersecting factors associated with the COVID-19 pandemic affect harms in people who use

Availability of Stigma associated mental health services with COVID-19 Impact on Impact of COVID-19 Increased caregiving essential workers on mental health Hardships related to employment, ffects on social supp Changes in supply and finances and access to basic needs access to substances and activities Substance use as a means of coping Potential for adverse effects associated with use of Changes in social Changes in pattern of certain substances among people with COVID-19 support & networks ubstance use with other Increased risk of . Changes in availability and Potential for withdrawal to mask Substance use and related harms Impacts on treatment services, COVID-19 symptoms in the context of COVID-19 accessibility of services outreach and substance-related therapie severe outcomes Increased risk of COVID-19 transmission Capacity of EMS. EDs. hospitals to treat People who use substances may be overrepresented Harm reduction services among people who use substances in groups at high risk of severe outcomes verdose and other substance-related harm Incarcerated Increased risk of transmission due populations to shared substance use equipment Stigma associated People experiencing housing with substance use instability or homelessness

FIGURE 1
Conceptual model for substance use and related harms in the context of COVID-19

The intersection of COVID-19 and substance-related harms may differ by sociodemographic and socioeconomic groups.

Certain groups may be at elevated risk of substance-related harms and of COVID-19; thus, research on these concepts through a health equity lens is required.

substances. The model has five main interrelated domains:

- substance use as a means of coping;
- changes in social support and networks;
- changes in availability and accessibility of services related to substance use and harms;
- increased risk of COVID-19 transmission among people who use substances;
 and
- increased risk of severe outcomes among people who use substances.

The domains likely intersect and interact, which may increase the risk of harms in many cases. Moreover, the concepts and relationships may differ between sociodemographic and socioeconomic groups (e.g. by sex, gender, age, ethnicity, racialization, income or occupation) as not all groups and communities in Canada are equally affected by COVID-19 or substancerelated harms. While literature has emerged on the disproportionate effects of COVID-19 in the United States and how the pandemic has exacerbated health inequalities,11 as of June 2020, there was little evidence available on the Canadian context.

Substance use as a means of coping

The COVID-19 pandemic has affected many facets of daily life. People may turn to substances to cope with distress and other secondary effects of COVID-19, such as boredom and changes in routine. A survey of 1036 adults in Canada conducted between March 30 and April 2, 2020, found that a quarter of people aged 35 to 54 years reported increased alcohol consumption during the pandemic outbreak.¹²

Impact of COVID-19 on mental health

Recognition of how the pandemic may directly and indirectly affect mental health is growing. Symptoms of stress, anxiety and depression associated with the pandemic have been observed in the general population.¹³ Fewer people aged 15 and older reported excellent or very good mental health during the period from March 30 to April 2, 2020, compared to 2018 estimates.¹⁴ The survey revealed that younger adults (aged 15 to 24) were particularly affected, with 62% reporting excellent or very good mental health in 2018 compared

to just 42% during the pandemic;¹⁴ thus, this age group may also be at higher risk of using substances to cope.

The number of people experiencing distress may be increasing for reasons directly related to COVID-19, that is, diagnosis with infection and/or risk of transmission. But more people may be experiencing distress due to the secondary effects of the pandemic, for example, economic impacts or changes to health care services. Participants in a United Kingdom survey reported increased anxiety, depression, stress and concerns about the effects of physical distancing and the practical implications, such as financial impacts, on their well-being. ¹⁵

Stigma associated with COVID-19

Experiences of social stigma related to COVID-19 may contribute to poor mental health outcomes in some populations. For example, stereotyping and prejudiced messaging in the media, such as using terms that link COVID-19 to China (e.g., "China virus"), may fuel discrimination and stigmatization. Golder adults, health care workers and people who have tested positive for COVID-19 and their families are among the groups who also potentially face stigma. Increased distress and other impacts on mental health can result in increased use of substances.

Hardships related to employment, finances and access to basic needs

Many people across the country have faced hardships as a result of the decline in employment between February and April, 2020. In April 2020, approximately 5.5 million Canadians either lost their employment or were working substantially reduced hours. Employment decreased more sharply among recent immigrants than among people born in Canada. Moreover, compared with men, women had higher rates of unemployment in the early months of the pandemic. 20

For some, the pandemic has resulted in having to work from home, changes to their regular schedules and boredom. A 2020 survey published by the Canadian Centre on Substance Use and Addiction found that schedule changes and boredom were two of the top three reasons given for increased alcohol and cannabis use. The third reason most often cited was stress. Note that this survey was conducted over 3 days early in the outbreak, and the situation has evolved since then.

Job loss or insecurity and continued financial hardships and related issues, such as food and housing insecurity, may have resulted in increased stress.

Impact on essential workers

Workers who have continued to provide essential services may be at increased risk of exposure to COVID-19 at their physical workplaces and transmission of the virus. Essential workers include people employed in health care, transportation and food and those services necessary for the basic functioning of society. These workers may face demands and challenges associated with implementing new and evolving protocols related to COVID-19. Essential workers may be at increased risk of depression, anxiety and distress,²¹ which increases the likelihood of substance use.

Availability of mental health services

The capacity of mental health services, including the availability and accessibility of trained personnel and infrastructure, may be affected during the pandemic. Demand for services may increase as people try to cope with stressors associated with COVID-19. Many service providers have transitioned to telehealth services.²² This may be a barrier to people who do not have consistent access to phones, computers or private space, for example. If mental health needs are not met because of these limitations, people may turn to substances as a coping behaviour.¹⁹

Changes in social support and networks

Effects on social support and activities

Physical distancing, closures of recreation and community facilities, limits on cultural and religious gatherings and other secondary effects of COVID-19 may affect access to social supports and resources for coping with stress. This could result in people feeling isolated and/or bored.²³ Restrictions or service alterations, such as changes in end-of-life care and funeral arrangements, may also affect the supports available to people who lose a family member or friend during the pandemic. Decreased social support and isolation may be associated with distress and increased use of substances to cope.24,25 Lack of support or social isolation may disproportionately affect some, for example, people living in retirement homes or long-term care facilities that have limited visitors, people living alone and essential workers who may have to spend extended time away from family.

When people are overcoming a substance use disorder, social support, including informal supports and peer-support group meetings, may be a crucial facet of their recovery. The secondary effects of COVID-19 may affect access to such social supports. Support groups may be facilitated through web-based platforms, but people who have barriers to accessing technology may not be able to benefit from this type of support.

Increased caregiving demands

Childcare and caregiving demands may increase because of daycare and school closures and changes in access to support and care resulting from physical distancing. In addition, many people will be caring for sick or distressed loved ones during the pandemic. The impacts of these demands will not be equal across sociodemographic groups; for example, a disproportionately high number of caregivers are women.²⁶ Thus, sex and other factors that affect health inequalities should be considered while examining these issues.²⁶

Quality of care and risk of infection for caregivers may also be of particular concern.

These changes in caregiving demands may increase distress and the use of substances to cope.

Changes in patterns of substance use with others

Patterns of substance use, including where people use and who they use substances with, may change due to the need for physical distancing and other secondary effects of COVID-19. Reduction or closure of harm reduction services may also affect patterns of substance use. If people are following physical distancing guidelines, they may be using substances alone, increasing the risk of death if they overdose.²⁷ People may also be driven to use in public places, which may result in increased risk of harm, anxiety and likelihood of arrest and possible incarceration.²⁸

Changes in supply and access to substances

International travel limitations and reduced travel between Canadian provinces and territories has affected supply chains of illegal substances.^{29,30} In addition, COVID-19 risk reduction measures such as physical distancing and self-isolation may also have affected access. Limited supplies may change the potency or composition of

the illegal drugs that are available.³¹ Changes in supply and access may also pose as a barrier to COVID-19 risk reduction measures. For example, individuals seeking new sources may not be able to practise physical distancing.

If access to substances is limited, there may be an increase in the number of people who go through withdrawal and an increase in instances of people starting to use new or unfamiliar but more readily available substances.³¹ Interruptions in supply can affect a person's tolerance, increasing the risk of overdose when substances do become available. The risk of overdose may be greater if potency is increased or substances are contaminated.

Some jurisdictions have seen increases in overdoses since the beginning of the pandemic. In June 2020, British Columbia recorded the highest number of illicit drug toxicity deaths to date as well as an increase in the number of cases that involved high concentrations of fentanyl.³² Note that there may be geographical differences in supply dynamics and how provinces, territories and municipalities are working to mitigate these issues.

For legal substances such as alcohol and cannabis, some provinces and territories made changes to existing regulations about the sale of these substances. While most licensed establishments were closed for in-person dining and drinking during the initial period of restrictive measures, other actions increased access to alcohol. For example, licensed restaurants in Ontario were allowed to sell alcohol with takeout and delivery orders, and to sell spirits at a lower price with these orders.³³ Delivery of cannabis by licensed retail stores was also allowed in Ontario in March, but was discontinued in July.³⁴

Changes in availability and accessibility of services related to substance use and harms

Impacts on treatment services, outreach and substance-related therapies

The COVID-19 pandemic may affect the availability and accessibility of certain treatment services for substance use disorders.^{4,5} Many providers have shifted to telehealth outpatient services and wait times may be affected. People who made use of outreach services for substance use and related harms may be affected during

the pandemic. Service reductions in outreach programs may take place due to personnel or infrastructure limitations.

The implications of COVID-19 on opioid agonist therapies have been discussed in commentaries, media reports and in regard to policy.^{4,5} As these therapies are typically administered in-person on a regimented basis, the pandemic may disrupt therapy for people who are in isolation or afraid to leave their home. As mentioned above, jurisdictions have responded in different ways to mitigate issues to do with the safe supply of substances. For example, British Columbia has increased efforts to provide a safe supply of substances to reduce harms during the pandemic.35 The safe supply approach involves prescribing and dispensing pharmaceutical-grade medications as an alternative to the unregulated street supply of substances to people who are at risk of harms such as an overdose.36

Harm reduction services

Harm reduction services sites, including safe consumption sites, may reduce their hours, limit the number of people they can serve or close temporarily during the COVID-19 pandemic.³⁷ Service reductions may involve limiting the number of available consumption booths to take into account physical distancing measures and accommodating reductions in staff because of their need to self-isolate or quarantine. Programs that provide harm reduction supplies (e.g. sterile equipment) and distribute naloxone may face closures, reduced hours and/or other service restrictions³⁸ that limit the number of people that they can serve.

Capacity of hospitals, emergency departments, first responders to treat overdose and other substance-related harms

If hospitals or first responders become overwhelmed as a result of pandemic-related patient intake, their capacity to respond to and provide treatment for overdoses and other substance-related harms may be limited.† Moreover, some people may choose to delay treatment, avoid accessing health care services or abstain from calling emergency services due to fears associated with COVID-19.

Drug-related overdoses may be treated differently due to COVID-19. Opioid poisonings (overdoses) are typically treated by administering naloxone and immediately providing oxygen, either through a mask

 $^{^{\}scriptscriptstyle\dagger}$ As of the time of submitting this paper (June 2020), this has not been the case in Canada.

or rescue breathing. First responders may no longer be able to give oxygen this way because of the risk of COVID-19 transmission.²⁹ Moreover, some first responders have stopped administering naloxone in a nasal spray due to the risk of COVID-19 transmission through nasal droplets,³⁹ although as of June 2020, we found no reports of changes to practices of administering naloxone by injection.

Some people who overdose require ventilators to survive. Should a situation occur where demand for ventilators is overwhelmed due to COVID-19, only a limited number of ventilators may be available.[†]

Increased risk of COVID-19 transmission among people who use substances

Increased risk of transmission due to shared substance use equipment

Sharing substance use equipment (e.g. pipes, joints, vaping devices or alcohol containers) increases the risk of virus transmission. (This is linked to the "availability of harm reduction services" domain, as the availability and accessibility of harm reduction services, such as sterile supply programs, may impact access to clean equipment and consequently, risk of transmission.)

Stigma associated with substance use

Stigmatizing substance use stems from erroneous beliefs that people with substance use disorders are to blame for their conditions or are dangerous or reckless, and that substance use is a choice or matter of will power. Experiences related to stigma may act as a barrier to accessing health and social services. 40 People who use substances may also receive poorer quality health care services or engage in harmful behaviours or coping methods (e.g. avoidance of health care or more or more frequent substance use).

Outcomes associated with the stigmatization of people who use substances may be exacerbated during the pandemic and may impede access to care and uptake of COVID-19 risk reduction measures.^{6,12,41} People who use substances are likely to experience multiple forms of stigmas (i.e. targeted toward their health conditions, characteristics, sex/gender or gender identity, racialized identity, age, ability or language). Complex intersections between multiple stigmas can further affect health.⁴⁰

Incarcerated populations

People who use substances tend to be overrepresented in incarcerated populations, and substance use is common in prison populations in Canada.⁴² Incarcerated populations are at increased risk of disease transmission during the pandemic and face unique challenges when implementing risk reduction measures.^{7,43} For example, the aging prison population, issues of crowding within cells and the high prevalence of substance use and associated comorbidities may elevate the risk of COVID-19 infection and likelihood of severe outcomes.⁴³

People experiencing homelessness, instability or inadequate housing

People who use substances may be more likely to experience housing instability or homelessness. Individuals who rely on shelters, shared or overcrowded accommodations or public places are less likely to have regular access to hygiene supplies and may not be able to practise physical distancing. They are at higher risk of acquiring and transmitting COVID-19. In addition, they may face barriers to implemented risk reduction measures.44 Service reductions due to the pandemic and limiting capacity at shelters may serve as a barrier to accessing shelter, hygiene facilities and safe places to use substances. This would likely increase the risks of both infection and overdose. Moreover, this population often has worse access to health services, experiences higher rates of substance use and may be less likely to engage in harm reduction measures (e.g. using sterile drug equipment).44

Increased risk of severe outcomes among people who use substances

People who use substances may be overrepresented in groups at high risk of severe outcomes

Several pre-existing health conditions are risk factors for severe outcomes among people diagnosed with COVID-19.⁴⁵ Many of the conditions that have been identified as risk factors also disproportionately affect people who use substances: chronic lung disease, cardiovascular disease and weakened immune system.^{45,46}

As mentioned in the section "Substance use as a means of coping," effects of the pandemic may contribute to increased substance use. In addition, use of certain

substances may increase the risk of severe illness among people diagnosed with COVID-19: the use of certain substances may weaken the immune system and the use of long-acting and immunosuppressive opioids, such as methadone or fentanyl, has been associated with increased risks of respiratory infections.⁴⁷

Abrupt discontinuation of opioids, which can trigger withdrawal, has also been associated with an elevated risk of serious infection,⁴⁸ meaning that disruptions in access to opioids during the pandemic may exacerbate the risk of COVID-19 infection.

Chronic alcohol consumption has also been associated with weakened immune function and even moderate consumption has been linked with increased risk of infection.⁴⁹

Potential for adverse effects associated with use of certain substances among people with COVID-19

Among those infected with COVID-19, people who use substances may be susceptible to complications and more severe outcomes. Opioid use increases risk of respiratory infections that, in turn, increases the risk of disease complications and severe outcomes.7 Methamphetamine use may also increase the risk of severe COVID-19 outcomes, as its use can lead to pulmonary damage and/or affect immune function.^{7,50} Examining potential adverse effects of methamphetamine use among people with COVID-19 may be an important area of investigation as the prevalence of methamphetamine use is rising in North America.50

Due to the harmful effects on lung health, smoking and vaping may also increase the risk of severe COVID-19 infection.⁷ However, these associations have not yet been substantiated and further investigation is needed.

Poly-substance use may impact disease outcomes and could interact with risk factors, including older age or having one or more chronic conditions, for severe outcomes related to COVID-19.

In addition to the potential for substance use to affect the severity of COVID-19 outcomes, the effects of COVID-19 on respiratory function could affect the risk of opioid overdose. Chronic respiratory

[†] As of the time of submitting this paper (June 2020), this has not been the case in Canada.

disease has been associated with greater risk of opioid overdose hospitalizations and mortality. 51,52 Similarly, diminished lung capacity caused by COVID-19 infection may further increase harms. 7 Coupled with the potential changes in drug supplies and reduced availability of certain harm reduction and treatment services, as described above, the risk of overdose may be particularly high for some people who use substances during the pandemic.

Potential for withdrawal to mask COVID-19 symptoms

COVID-19 symptoms such as fever and difficulty breathing could be mistaken for withdrawal symptoms among people who use substances. Changes in the circulating drug supply and available services as a result of the pandemic may increase the number of people experiencing withdrawal. There may also be less oversight of these issues due to limitations to the accessibility or availability of services during the pandemic.

Implications for research

The secondary effects of the COVID-19 pandemic is a rapidly evolving topic. This conceptual model of substance-related harms and COVID-19 offers guidance for future areas of investigation where there is currently a dearth of empirical evidence.

As this area of investigation is emerging, few original peer-reviewed studies and reviews were available. Therefore we also included commentaries and non-reviewed sources to inform the development of the model. While the quality of evidence informing this conceptual model is limited, the inclusion of a variety of evidence sources, including peer-reviewed original research, allowed for a rapid and in-depth examination of this emerging area. While conceptual models are not intended to specify how or where to target interventions,14 the information provided in this paper may help to identify areas where research could support intervention efforts.

The present model suggests that COVID-19 and its secondary effects may have farreaching implications for how people use substances in Canada and the unique harms to which they are exposed. Given this, research on these topics is needed to confirm or disprove the proposed relationships.

The model presented five interrelated domains of concepts that highlight potential

associations of interest. Empirical evidence on changes in patterns of substance use in response to the mental health and social effects of the pandemic is needed. Substance use and exposure to related harms may be affected by changes in social support, safe access to substances and access to services. Risk of COVID-19 infection among people who use substances, as well as severe outcomes among people diagnosed with COVID-19, should be monitored to elucidate how substance use, including poly-substance use, contribute to disease outcomes.

The relationships posited in this model likely intersect with sociodemographic or socioeconomic factors, as certain populations are at elevated risk for both substance-related harms and COVID-19. Research into how the intersection between the pandemic and substance-related harms affects different communities and groups across Canada is needed to document health inequalities and inequities.

Conclusion

In this paper we presented a model that illustrated relevant interrelated concepts in the emerging area of substance use and related harms in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic. The conceptual model synthesized information from a variety of sources—including peer-reviewed literature, opinion pieces and commentaries, grey literature and expert opinion and perspectives on substance use and related harms during the COVID-19 pandemic—to summarize the available material and generate future research directions.

The full effects of the pandemic on substance use and related harms have likely not yet been realized. Evidence is needed to elucidate the relationships shown in the conceptual model to better understand these issues as they unfold and to guide future research and considerations for policy and programs during the pandemic.

Conflicts of interest

The authors have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

Authors' contributions and statement

AE and HO conceived of the project. AE, AP, JV and VG conducted the literature review. AE led the development of the

conceptual model. AP, JV, VG, MG, NF, TK, BD, AN and HO contributed to the development of the model. AE drafted the article. All authors critically revised the article.

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Commentary

Rapid response to COVID-19: addressing challenges and increasing the mental readiness of public safety personnel

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Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic has underscored the essential role of public safety personnel (PSP) in serving and protecting all Canadians. PSP include professionals striving to ensure the safety and security of Canadians, such as border services officers, public safety communicators (e.g. emergency dispatchers), correctional workers, firefighters (career and volunteer), Indigenous emergency managers, operational and intelligence personnel, paramedics and police (municipal, provincial and federal).1,2 PSP often work alongside health care providers1 and are critical for managing the COVID-19 pandemic. Prior to COVID-19, PSP reported repeated exposures to potentially psychologically traumatic events (PPTE)2 and significant occupational stressors like staffing shortages, insufficient resources and fatigue.3,4 Therefore, pervasive COVID-19 pandemic stressors, such as the risk of personal and familial contagion (Commander S. Leduc, conversation with VT, 20 July, 2020), can be reasonably expected to further increase strain on PSP.

The different PSP sectors (e.g. police, fire, paramedics, corrections) require tailored supports to help sustainably manage the COVID-19 pandemic stressors. A growing literature documents the impact of previous epidemics (e.g. SARS, MERS) and the current pandemic on health care workers,5,6 but there is very little literature delineating the impact of pandemics and epidemics on PSP. Collecting PSP-specific data to generate evidence amidst the COVID crisis would be informative, but would require shifting time and attention away from provision of essential services and towards research. An alternative approach for rapidly synthesizing evidence-informed, peer-reviewed knowledge and for disseminating strategies to support PSP was required; accordingly, the COVID-19 Readiness Resource Project (CRRP) of the Canadian Institute for Public Safety Research and Treatment (CIPSRT) was established with substantive resource support from Veterans Affairs Canada (VAC). The CRRP provides a national online knowledge hub for trusted information on PSP mental health and well-being based on consultations with PSP frontline staff, leadership and subject matter experts to identify challenges faced by PSP. Responses to the challenges are then derived from the extant peer-reviewed literature on the impact of pandemics and epidemics on health care workers, as well as general information on disaster mental health. The resulting derivations are then tailored for PSP and disseminated online by PSP, clinicians and researchers in various forms, including accessible written content; interactive virtual town halls led by subject matter experts and PSP panellists; videos; and guided audio-recorded stress management exercises.

Purpose

This article outlines five priority areas for supporting PSP during COVID-19, as Tweet this article

Highlights

- The COVID-19 pandemic has underscored the essential role of public safety personnel in serving and protecting all Canadians.
- Public safety personnel were reporting challenges with mental health and well-being before the COVID-19 pandemic; accordingly, the new stressors may mean public safety personnel need additional resources to sustainably help them help us.
- This article suggests elements of support that may be attainable avenues for supporting the wellbeing of public safety personnel during the protracted stress caused by the COVID-19 pandemic.
- Sustained self-care may be critical for maintaining the mental health and well-being of public safety personnel during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Keywords: public safety personnel, first responders, COVID-19, training, crisis communication, leadership, quarantine, self-care

identified by the CRRP. The intent is to raise awareness of PSP experiences and to encourage collective innovation in supporting PSP well-being. The listed priorities and recommendations are not exhaustive, definitive or mutually exclusive, and will not apply to every PSP sector or agency. Instead, this work offers

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recommendations for possible starting points to continue supporting PSP, their families and their leaders. Table 1 presents a summary of these recommendations.

Supporting PSP during COVID-19

Specialized preparedness training

PSP operate in environments of heightened uncertainty,⁷ potentiating the mental health risk of repeated PPTE exposures.³ PSP organizations may be able to support PSP functionality and mitigate risks of PPTEs³ through formal and informal preparedness training,^{8,9} as well as mental health training.⁴ Preparedness training through "rehearsal" may familiarize PSP with PPTEs, decrease surprise and mitigate the autonomic "fight, flight or freeze" stress response that might occur during a PPTE.^{10,11} The unexpected nature of the COVID-19 crisis may have compromised

specific preparedness training capacities for many PSP; nevertheless, PSP are working successfully to meet the challenges and may benefit from additional supports to sustain their efforts as the pandemic continues to unfold.

Additional supports may include:

- Just-in-time learning opportunities. Preparedness training for the COVID-19 emergency response was necessarily compromised by the sudden outbreak of COVID-19, and the subsequently compressed time windows available to prepare staff. PSP, however, may continue to benefit from synthesized current information, provided with regular and brief (re)training opportunities (e.g. once weekly at a daily meeting; a brief video clip) from respected authorities on the latest guidelines, developments and intervention strategies. 12-14 Regular training can help to decrease anxiety, increase trust in leadership, reinforce perceptions of agency, and decrease
- 2. Decision-making aids. Formal decision mnemonics, trees or algorithms, if approved by leadership and specific to various COVID-19 challenges, may reduce uncertainty and anxiety for PSP navigating the current crisis. 4,15 The information can be updated as new evidence becomes available.

feelings of isolation. 13,14

3. Being mindful of the marathon. Preparedness during the current pandemic involves pacing to support the "marathon" of navigating the pandemic in the long term, while engaging in the intermittent "sprints" needed for emergency responses. 16 PSP may need additional encouragement to monitor their own health and self-care, including exercise, rest, time off from work and socializing.

Communication

Getting the right information to the right people at the right time can be challenging at the best of times and may be even harder during a pandemic. "Crisis communication" is intended to effectively deliver information during the chaotic milieu of a crisis situation. Communications must be easily understood and consistent for people to remember key messages and take effective action.

TABLE 1
Support summary examples

Support summary examples							
Specialized preparedness training							
Just-in-time learning opportunities	Regular and brief (re)training opportunities with synthesized current information						
Decision-making aids	Formal decision mnemonics, trees or algorithms, approved by leadership and specific to COVID-19 challenges						
Being mindful of the marathon	Encourage people to practise pacing						
	Encourage people to practise self-care (e.g. exercise, rest, time off from work, socializing)						
Communication							
Sustain communication	Frequent, consistent, transparent and interactive						
	Allocate time for questions, discussions and suggestions						
	Underscore recognition and value						
Express empathy	Provide regular messaging that emphasizes understanding and a desire to help						
Leverage media	Use specific and consistent media tools for disseminating information						
Leadership and team building							
Remain visible, available and current	Maintain the visibility of trusted leaders engaged in empathic, constructive and supportive communication						
Support basic needs	Innovate solutions to support members in navigating access to basic needs despite the new complications						
Social support	Emphasize the importance of consistent social support						
	Support peer support efforts						
Quarantine							
Stay connected	Keep quarantined personnel connected with regular remote contact, reinforcing they are integral and valued						
Consider the basics	Support self-isolated PSP in navigating access to services, social support, medical care and groceries						
Address domestic violence and substance misuse	Be aware of increased risk for domestic violence and alcohol and substance misuse; remind members to seek help early and provide information on where to access help						
Self-care							
Healthy coping	Focus on healthy habits for sleep, nutrition, hydration and exercise						
	Practise stress management and relaxation techniques (e.g. diaphragmatic breathing; mindfulness exercises)						
Maintain routines	Sustain or establish routines						
Healthy connections and help	Stay connected with family, friends and co-workers						
	Seek support and assistance from trusted family, peers or evidence-based health care services if needed						

Abbreviation: PSP, public safety personnel.

Federal health authorities such as the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention¹⁷ provide guidelines for supporting efforts towards effective crisis communication. Additional supports may include:

- 1. Sustain communication. Keep communication frequent, consistent, transparent and interactive. New information is best retained and actioned when the content is concise, consistent and delivered by a respected source.18 Allocating time for questions, discussions and suggestions creates spaces that can help leaders better understand PSP needs and is important to sustaining capacity during the marathon.7 Regular interactive communication with leadership can help reinforce team member's self-esteem by underscoring that their efforts are recognized and valued.
- Express empathy. The pandemic crisis may, at times, engender reactions of fear or anger in the public with whom PSP interact. Expressing empathic understanding and a wish to help may defuse these intense emotions.19 However, the pandemic might complicate PSP efforts to convey empathy (e.g. masks can interfere with nonverbal cues), requiring extra effort from PSP, which can increase their levels of strain. Despite the increased effort, overcoming the pandemic barriers to find ways to display empathy and caring may help facilitate positive outcomes for PSP and the people they serve.
- **Leverage media**. Media can help to encourage altruistic, ethical and publicspirited behaviour, which will facilitate healthy communities during times of crisis.18 When possible, choose a small number of consistent sources for delivering information to maximize the number of people reached, while making it easy for PSP to know where to go for information. Traditional and social media can convey important information to help maximize public safety during the pandemic. Media communications can also be used to help mitigate hindsight bias and criticism that PSP and other frontline personnel can experience while making time-sensitive decisions in an unprecedented context that often require developing new best practices in real time.18

Leadership and team building

Leaders can play a critical role in supporting the psychological resilience and morale of their teams. Facilitating rapid access to evidence-based mental health services after a mental health injury remains important;^{5,20} however, reminding PSP that they can have support before, during and after a PPTE, particularly a protracted PPTE like the COVID-19 pandemic, may help to mitigate stress, burnout and other mental health injuries.²¹⁻²³ Evidence-informed recommendations for leaders include:

- Remain visible, available and current. The visibility of trusted leaders can bolster morale and underscore perceptions of available support, which may reinforce resilience. Leaders demonstrating, even briefly, that they have knowledge about shared stressors impacting their teams and unique stressors impacting individual team members can be particularly effective. Leaders can try to help by reminding PSP that COVID-19 is a protracted PPTE that requires attainable shortand long-term goals, as well as a focus on sustainable activities. Leaders can help their personnel to find meaning in the situation, to focus beyond the present crisis and to take pride in knowing they are contributing to the greater good of their community and country. 16,24
- their basic needs. PSP always need their basic needs met in order to do their jobs effectively, but the pandemic has resulted in complications, such as self-isolation, that can compromise their ability to meet basic needs such as childcare and grocery shopping. Leaders and organizations may be able to help by working to identify such challenges and innovating solutions to offset the new complications.²⁵
- also be important for resilience, but aspects of social support can be compromised by necessary social distancing and self-isolation. ^{25,26} PSP leaders can help reinforce positive relationships and morale by emphasizing their support for their teams, encouraging peer-to-peer support within teams and, where possible, supporting sustainable and consistent PSP work cycles and team composition. ²⁵⁻²⁷

Quarantine

Evidence from previous epidemics has associated isolation with compromised mental health. 6,18,28,29 Quarantine or selfisolation can lead to loneliness, boredom, fear, loss of routine and consequences such as alcohol and substance misuse.³⁰⁻³² Multiple rounds of mandatory isolation during a pandemic can also exacerbate pre-existing mental health challenges.5 Following isolation, returning to work may be anxiety-provoking due to fears of (re)infection and reactions of colleagues who may have had to work overtime to cover short-staffing. Potential options for decreasing detrimental impacts of isolation include:

- Stay connected. Workplaces can support isolated personnel by staying connected to them through regular remote check-ins. Reinforcing that people in isolation remain integral and valued members of the team can help mitigate potential mental health challenges.
- 2. Consider the basics. Measures that support PSP during self-isolation may include facilitating access to remote services and supplies (e.g. social support, medical care, groceries).
- 3. Address domestic violence and substance misuse. There have been increased incidents of domestic violence during the COVID-19 pandemic, as well as alcohol and substance misuse. 30-32 PSP should be aware of the increased risk, reminded to seek help early and provided with access to resources.

Self-care

Maintaining self-care can be particularly challenging when facing occupational stressors such as shift work, irregular hours and exhaustion. The increased stress of COVID-19 may be partially mitigated by regularly encouraging PSP to engage in daily self-care practices to support their well-being, particularly their mental health and resilience.^{33,34} Suggestions for self-care include:

1. Healthy coping. Remind and encourage PSP to focus on maintaining healthy sleep, nutrition, exercise and regular rest. Practising stress management and relaxation techniques (e.g. diaphragmatic breathing; mindfulness

exercises) can help to maintain a sense of well-being. Even 30 seconds of deep breathing or a five-minute mindfulness exercise during breaks and before sleep may help.

- 2. Maintain routines. Sustaining even simple routines, such as preparations before sleeping or scheduled physical training, can provide a sense of structure and predictability during the prolonged uncertainty generated by the pandemic.
- 3. Maintain healthy social connections and help. Staying connected with family, friends and co-workers can help preserve a sense of community, resilience and well-being. Where possible, prioritize positive online social media platforms and activities, and minimize platforms and activities that are distracting, distressing and frustrating. Seeking support from trusted family, peers or evidence-based health care services when needed can help PSP to manage the protracted stress caused by the pandemic.

Conclusion

The COVID-19 pandemic has underscored our dependence on the relative few who work to maintain public health, wellbeing and safety, and has highlighted the challenges to supporting PSP while they perform their critical roles. The unprecedented nature, size and scope of the pandemic has required ongoing, innovative and iteratively evaluated solutions. This article outlines clinically informed and, where available, evidence-informed recommendations to support PSP. The recommendations are being curated and disseminated by a national Canadian initiative, the COVID-19 Readiness Resource Project. As the COVID-19 pandemic evolves and new challenges arise, concerted efforts will be needed to provide and sustain psychosocial supports specific to PSP, allowing PSP not only to cope with the many challenges ahead, but to thrive in the face of them.

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Conflicts of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest to report.

Authors' contributions and statement

AH, VT, LSM, SBP and NC informed the concept and contributed to the design, writing, and critical review of this commentary.

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Call for papers – 2021 special issue Tobacco and vaping prevention and control in Canada

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Editors: Jennifer O'Loughlin (University of Montreal), Thierry Gagné (University College London) and Robert Geneau (Editor-in-Chief, Public Health Agency of Canada)

It is estimated that more than 45 000 Canadians die from a tobacco-related disease each year,¹ making tobacco use the leading preventable cause of premature death in Canada.² In recent years, the growing use of vaping products, especially among youth, has also raised significant public health concerns. There is emerging evidence that vaping products are not without risks for individual users, with more research needed to determine the long-term risks. The electronic cigarette market, if left to expand without an appropriate mix of regulations in place, could also threaten the "Tobacco Endgame."^{3,4} Tobacco and vaping control policies are now largely intertwined.

Canada continues to implement comprehensive tobacco control policies and programs as part of its commitment to reach a national target of less than 5% tobacco use by 2035.⁵ Regulations on vaping products have also been introduced in recent years at the federal level and across several provinces and territories, with one of the clear aims being to curb the use of vaping products among youth.

The objective of this special issue is to disseminate current and emerging scientific evidence on tobacco and vaping-related epidemiology, prevention and control, with a focus on youth. To this effect, *Health Promotion and Chronic Disease Prevention in Canada: Research, Policy and Practice* seeks relevant topical research articles that present new findings or synthesize existing evidence on:

- Policies, interventions and regulations related to tobacco and/or vaping initiation, use and consumption, and cessation, including tobacco and vaping-related policy gaps and implementation challenges;
- Health inequalities in tobacco/vaping use and related harms; and
- Associations between the use of vaping products, smoking cessation and harm reduction behaviours in both smokers and non-smokers.

International submissions will be considered if they include Canadian data, results (e.g. as part of global comparisons) and/or evidence-based discussion of implications for public health in Canada.

Consult the journal's website for information on invited article types and detailed submission guidelines for authors. Kindly refer to this call for papers in your cover letter. All manuscript submissions, pre-submission inquiries and questions about suitability or scope should be directed to PHAC.HPCDP.Journal-Revue.PSPMC.ASPC@canada.ca.

Submission Deadline: March 31st, 2021.

References

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Open call for papers: COVID-19 pandemic

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Special Call for Peer Reviewers

The HPCDP Journal is currently seeking volunteer peer reviewers with interdisciplinary expertise to conduct timely reviews of manuscripts submitted to the journal through the issued open call for papers on the COVID-19 pandemic and its links to the fields of health promotion and chronic disease prevention.

Relevant topic areas include, but are not limited to:

- Chronic diseases, their risk factors and links with COVID-19 (e.g., increased risk of severe illness and longer term health effects)
- Mental health
- Problematic substance use
- · Impact and consequences of public health measures
- Delivery of preventive health care
- · Emerging evidence for promising interventions
- Health equity

To be considered as a potential peer reviewer for the HPCDP Journal COVID-19 series, please email us at PHAC.HPCDP.Journal-Revue PSPMC.ASPC@canada.ca, and briefly indicate your areas of expertise, institutional affiliation(s) and availability. A concise biosketch, C.V. or biolinks may be provided to assist in the selection process.

Reviewers are asked to commit to completing at least one peer review within 5 days of accepting a request.

The societal impact of the novel coronavirus disease (COVID-19) pandemic is multifaceted, and all Canadians, one way or another, have been affected. From a public health perspective, we also see this pandemic colliding with the slow-motion chronic disease epidemic that is affecting all parts of the globe.

Health Promotion and Chronic Disease Prevention in Canada: Research, Policy and Practice (the HPCDP Journal) is the monthly, online scientific journal of the Health Promotion and Chronic Disease Prevention Branch of the Public Health Agency of Canada. The HPCDP Journal is hereby inviting original quantitative and qualitative research papers, commentaries, editorials and At-a-glance manuscripts that address the links between the COVID-19 pandemic and health promotion, chronic disease and health equity.

There are many relevant topics, including, but not limited to:

- Associations between chronic diseases (and their risk factors) and the risk for infection, severe illness and poorer outcomes.
- The longer-term health effects of COVID-19 on survivors, including long-lasting mental health issues such as depression, anxiety and more.
- Studying the public health response and its impact and unintended consequences at the individual level (e.g. physical and mental health, health and health-seeking behaviours), family level, and the community or societal level.
- The delivery of preventive health care during the pandemic.
- Emerging scientific evidence, including through natural experimental studies, about promising interventions to improve the public health response (e.g. social distancing measures, protecting people with underlying chronic conditions) or to mitigate the negative impacts of the response (e.g. mental health consequences).
- Health equity and the social determinants of health as cross-cutting issues.

To ensure lasting relevance, we expect all submissions to discuss the implications of their findings for the recovery phase of the current crisis, and beyond.

Manuscripts will be considered as they are received. Those selected for further consideration will be assigned to a special editorial committee dedicated to this series, as well as to two peer reviewers if appropriate for the article type.

We will strive to provide an initial editorial decision on submitted manuscripts within 15 business days of completed submission for peer-reviewed papers and five business days for non-peer-reviewed manuscripts. Accepted manuscripts will be prioritized for publication and will appear online, in HTML format, and be indexed as "ahead of print" articles prior to being produced in PDF and included in a regular issue of the Journal.

Refer to our website for information on invited article types and detailed submission guidelines for authors: https://www.canada.ca/en/public-health/services/reports-publications/health-promotion-chronic-disease-prevention-canada-research-policy-practice/information-authors.html.

For any pre-submission questions about suitability or scope, please direct inquiries to PHAC.HPCDP.Journal-Revue.PSPMC.ASPC@canada.ca.

Submission information: Kindly refer to this call for papers in your submission covering letter and submit manuscripts by email to PHAC.HPCDP.Journal-Revue.PSPMC.ASPC@canada.ca. This call will continue until further notice.

Submission deadline: Open until further notice.

Other PHAC publications

Researchers from the Public Health Agency of Canada also contribute to work published in other journals. Look for the following articles published in 2020:

Auger N, Therrien A, Bilodeau-Bertrand M, **Nelson C**, Arbour L. Coeliac disease and risk of birth defects in pregnancy. Gut. 2020. doi:10.1136/gutjnl-2020-322425.

Fluke JD, **Tonmyr L**, Gray J, et al. Child maltreatment data: a summary of progress, prospects and challenges. Child Abuse Negl. 2020:104650. doi:10.1016/j.chiabu.2020.104650.

Hoffmann MD, **Lang JJ**, Guerrero MD, [...] **Orpana HM**, **de Groh M**. Evaluating the psychometric properties of the parent-rated Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire in a nationally representative sample of Canadian children and adolescents aged 6 to 17 years. Health Rep. 2020;31(8):13-20. doi:10.25318/82-003-x202000800002-eng.

McVea DA, **Cumming E**, Rahim T, Kosatsky T. A descriptive analysis of blood mercury test results in British Columbia to identify excessive exposures. Can J Public Health. 2020. doi:10.17269/s41997-020-00340-3.

Nah K, Chen S, Xiao Y, [...] **Ogden NH**, et al. Scenario tree and adaptive decision making on optimal type and timing for intervention and social-economic activity changes to manage the COVID-19 pandemic. Eur J Pure Appl Math. 2020;13(3):710-29. doi:10.29020/nybg.ejpam.v13i3.3792.

Williams GC, Burns KE, Battista K, de Groh M, Jiang Y, Leatherdale ST. High school sport participation and substance use: a cross-sectional analysis of students from the COMPASS study. Addict Behav Rep. 2020;12:100298. doi:10.1016/j.abrep.2020.100298.