

REVIEWS

DOI: 10.15838/esc.2021.2.74.13

UDC 314.4:616.89:614.4:59.9.072, LBC 60.524:88.5:51.9

© Shmatova Yu.E.

Mental Health of Population in the COVID-19 Pandemic: Trends, Consequences, Factors, and Risk Groups



Yuliya E.

SHMATOVA

Vologda Research Center of RAS

Vologda, Russian Federation

e-mail: ueshmatova@mail.ru

ORCID: 0000-0002-1881-0963; ResearcherID: R-1021-2018

Abstract. The purpose of the study is to analyze the mental health losses of population during the COVID-19 pandemic. Based on the systematization of foreign and Russian studies regarding the pandemic impact on mental health, two major burdens (neuro-psychiatric and psycho-emotional) and three levels of ill health manifestations (physiological, mental, and behavioral disorders) were revealed. We used the method of analyzing articles from international electronic databases on the topic of mental health loss due to the new coronavirus pandemic and other epidemics. The scientific novelty of the study consists of the identification of psycho-emotional and psycho-neurological burden of the pandemic, determination of a three-level structure of mental ill health manifestations, and a comprehensive approach to the analysis of losses (includes the characterization of emerging mental health disorders, risk factors and groups, as well as the search for its prevention areas). We achieved the following results: neuropsychiatric burden is manifested in damages to the central and peripheral nervous system, neuropsychiatric and cerebrovascular complications, and changes of mental status due to the neurotoxic effects of the SARS CoV-2 virus. The psycho-emotional burden of the COVID-19 pandemic reveals itself physiologically – in somatic reactions to a stressful situation. At the mental level, there is a debut or relapse of panic, anxiety, depressive disorders, adaptation disorders, and symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder. The behavioral level is associated with an increase in cases of domestic violence, various addictions, suicidal and protective behavior, changes of food habits, etc. The authors conclude that most negative consequences

For citation: Shmatova Yu.E. Mental health of population in the COVID-19 pandemic: trends, consequences, factors, and risk groups. *Economic and Social Changes: Facts, Trends, Forecast*, 2021, vol. 14, no. 2, pp. 201–224. DOI: 10.15838/esc.2021.2.74.13

are preventable. The practical significance of the research is to prepare a list of mental health disorders during the pandemic, groups, and risk factors for its loss. Findings about groups and risk factors will allow substantiating the structure of further sociological research. The results obtained (including a list of ways of reducing the burden) can be used by authorities in the development of programs to strengthen population's mental health, including high-risk groups. Their implementation will reduce the burden on the medical network, improve population's quality of life, preserve the labor potential and social stability of society necessary for the post-pandemic economic recovery, and prevent the psycho-emotional burden of future epidemics. Research perspectives are cross-country comparison of the psycho-emotional burden of the pandemic and its dependence on the anti-epidemic policies implemented by governments (introduction of strict self-isolation measures, lockdown, media activities, mandatory testing, etc.).

Key words: COVID-19 pandemic, mental health, psychoemotional burden, mental disorders, neuropsychiatric disorders, suicide, depression, anxiety, domestic violence, infodemic.

Introduction

2020 was a year devoted to the fight against the new coronavirus infection. Attempts to limit the SARS CoV-2 spread led to the introduction of severe restrictions on movement and social distance measures. Ultimately, the COVID-19 pandemic seriously damaged human health, the healthcare system, and the economy.

Several scientists call a lockdown, which was introduced in many countries, a largest psychological [1, p. 46] (or psychosocial [2]) experiment, and they are only beginning to analyze its results.

Unclear, invisible threat of a previously unknown virus, combined with an inability to take clear active actions, increases fear and anxiety, can provoke the onset or relapse of anxiety, depressive, obsessive-compulsive, and other mental disorders, pathological addictions and suicide. Some authors even mention the risk of mass psychosis. The mechanisms of imitativeness and suggestibility, which are usually necessary for efficient regulation of social behavior, contribute to the triggering of psychoses while experiencing fear and distress in a large group [3]. RANS Academician, Dr. Sci. (Med.) I. Gundarov calls the current situation "social schizoid psychosis" in his numerous speeches in mass media. N. Solov'ova, speaking about mental disorders provoked by the pandemic,

introduces the "coronavirus syndrome" term, which will affect up to 10% of population involved in the pandemic. In her opinion, the situation and its consequences are similar to those observed in Russia during the perestroika, since the causes of mental disorders are not specific traumas localized in time, but long-term neurotic experiences that go beyond ordinary experience, changes of social ties and life plans, instability and uncertainty of the future, as well as a large amount of unconstructive disturbing information in the media [4].

We need to learn more about the impact of COVID-19 on population's mental health to successfully counter current and future pandemics.

The purpose of the study is to analyze population's mental health losses due to the impact of the SARS CoV-2 virus and measures, taken to combat it, and to find ways to decrease them.

Research objectives:

- 1) consider the main components of psycho-emotional and neuropsychiatric burden of the COVID-19 pandemic;
- 2) identify predictors of negative psychological outcomes in the outbreak of a new coronavirus infection and the most vulnerable groups of people;
- 3) identify ways to reduce population's mental health losses due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

The object of the research is foreign and Russian scientific studies on mental health of population during epidemics and emergencies. **The subject** is human mental health during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Research methodology

The information was collected in the electronic databases PubMed, Elibrary, and Ciberleninka using the search terms “COVID-19”, “mental health”, “mental disorders”, “neurology”, “suicide”, “depression”, “anxiety”, “stress”, “risk factor” in English and Russian in different combinations. In total, more than four thousand foreign and more than a thousand Russian-language links were received. Most of them are theoretical explorations of various aspects of the studied problem. At the time of writing (late December 2020), the databases contained the results of 647 cross-sectional and two longitudinal studies on the negative impact of the COVID-19 pandemic, various epidemics, and emergencies on public mental health. To prepare the review, we studied 165 articles (in English, Chinese, Italian, German, French, and Indian).

Overall, we considered 74 studies on the impact of the pandemic on covid-positive patients (in the Russian Federation at the time of the review – only a few [5]), mentally ill people, medical professionals, students and other groups, as well as general population. 18 of them reflected case-control compared to the norm, while the rest had no control groups. Two retrospective studies were based on the analysis of several million electronic medical records.

Some results of these surveys are heterogeneous due to differences in locations, timing, and the methods used (mostly anonymous online surveys, patients' self-reports). The collection of data on the psychoemotional state was conducted using the following methods: A.S. Zigmond and R.P. Snaith's The Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS), General Anxiety Disorder Scale

(GAD-7), Zung Self-Rating Depression Scale (SDS) and Anxiety Scale (SAS), Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) and Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI), Depression Anxiety Stress Scale (DASS21), Perceived Stress Scale (PSS), Stress Reaction Questionnaire (SRQ), Stanford Acute Stress Reaction Questionnaire (SASR), Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9 and PHQ-4), Impact of Event Scale – Revised (IES-R), Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (PSQI), Insomnia Severity Index (ISI), Social Support Rating Scale (SSRS), Symptom Check List (SCL-90-R). Most surveys are cross-sectional, and their results are preliminary, which means that they are supported by well-developed longitudinal studies [6]. Nevertheless, they deserve attention since they allow assessing the risks of the virus and the countermeasures for population's mental health.

We relied on the fact that the emergence of COVID-19 is similar to the outbreaks of closely related coronaviruses of 2003 acute respiratory syndrome (SARS or “atypical pneumonia”) and 2012 Middle East respiratory syndrome (MERS). According to most scientists, we should expect similar emotional and behavioral reactions among population. We also analyzed articles reflecting psycho-emotional outcomes of other epidemics (Ebola, Spanish flu, swine flu, etc.) and emergency situations (natural disasters and terrorist attacks).

The main advantage of some prominent foreign journals, such as *The Lancet Psychiatry*, is the speed of the latest studies publishing (first online and then in print), which allows the whole world to timely learn its results that have not lost its relevance in a constantly changing pandemic. In this regard, a major part of the presented review includes foreign information sources.

The scientific novelty of the work is the author's understanding of the psycho-emotional burden of the pandemic and its structure, based on three levels of reactions/changes (physiological, mental, and

behavioral); generalization and structuring of foreign and domestic experience of studying a group of coronaviruses from the point of view of their psycho-neurological and psycho-emotional burden; a comprehensive approach to the analysis of the issue – a study of negative consequences (of the SARS CoV-2 virus and its containment measures), risk factors and groups, and areas for strengthening mental health.

The practical significance of the work is a list of violations of public mental health during the pandemic, groups, and risk factors for its loss. The conclusions will allow justifying the structure of further sociological research of this problem.

The results obtained (including a list of ways to reduce the burden) can be used by authorities for developing programs to promote health among population, including ones for high-risk groups (medical staff, citizens who have been ill with COVID-19, people with chronic diseases). The implementation of these programs will help to reduce the burden on the medical network, reduce several cases and duration of temporary and permanent disability, preserve the labor potential needed in the subsequent period of economic recovery and social stability in society. Everything aforementioned will lead to the reduction of the disease burden. Conclusions about groups and risk factors will allow justifying the structure of further sociological studies on this problem, planned by the Vologda Research Center of RAS for 2021.

Results of the research

Considering studies on various negative effects of a new coronavirus infection outbreak on population's mental health, we can divide the pandemic burden into two types: psycho-emotional and psycho-neurological. Neuropsychiatric burden of the COVID-19 pandemic implies the damage of the central nervous system caused by the neurotoxic SARS-CoV-2 virus. Psycho-emotional burden means psycho-emotional disorders caused by the virus itself and/or measures to contain it.

Considering the fact that the psycho-emotional state is a set of changes occurring in a body and mind, including behavioral reactions to a situation, we will study manifestations of mental disorders at three levels: physiological, mental, and behavioral. Let us take a look at them in more detail.

The first level – physiological. This section includes not only “classic” bodily reactions to a stressful situation (increased heart rate, increased blood pressure, increased blood sugar, impaired appetite, sleep disorders, headache, body aches, endocrine disorders, etc.), but also psycho-neurological disorders that emerged due to the impact of the SARS CoV-2 virus, because they manifest themselves at the level of physiology and affect mental well-being.

It has long been known that an infection not associated with the central nervous system (CNS) can cause neuropsychiatric signs. The Spanish flu epidemic of 1918–1919 provoked a sharp increase in the incidence of post-encephalitic parkinsonism [7]. Coronaviruses, closely related to COVID-19, are biologically neurotropic, clinically neurotoxic, and they cause neurological disorders [8–10]. The new coronavirus infection, in addition to changes in lungs, leads to various lesions of all body systems¹ [11]: thrombotic complications, myocardial dysfunction (cardiomyopathy) and arrhythmia, acute coronary syndromes, acute kidney damage, gastrointestinal symptoms, hyperglycemia, ketosis, vasculitis, eye and skin damage, and neurological disorders.

However, a consequence of COVID-19 is of particular importance – cerebrovascular complications, i.e. acute disorders of cerebral circulation (strokes). They are observed during some acute

¹ Meeting the psychological needs of people recovering from severe coronavirus (Covid-19). *Official website of the British Psychological Society*. Available at: <https://www.bps.org.uk/sites/www.bps.org.uk/files/Policy/Policy%20-%20Files/Meeting%20the%20psychological%20needs%20of%20people%20recovering%20from%20severe%20coronavirus.pdf> (accessed: January 21, 2021).

severe viral diseases (for example, influenza [12; 13]). The main predictors of their development are arterial hypertension, diabetes mellitus, coronary heart disease, and diseases of the respiratory system [14; 15].

Another cause of brain damage during COVID-19 may be encephalopathy of various etiologies, which is also natural for viral infections [16; 17]. Cytokine storm is considered a mechanism of encephalopathy development in coronavirus [18; 19].

Several authors note a possible link between human coronaviruses and the development of multiple sclerosis [20; 21].

CNS lesions more often occur in the group of “severe” patients. Thus, according to a retrospective study in Wuhan, 36% of hospitalized patients had symptoms of CNS disorders, in the “severe” group – 45% [22]. Rogers found evidence of delirium (65%) and agitation (69%) among ICU patients. Every fifth resuscitation patient was diagnosed with altered consciousness (all of them subsequently died) [23].

A study, conducted by a group of scientists led by Varatharaj, of “severe” hospitalized Covid-positive patients in the UK revealed that 62% of them had a violation of cerebral circulation (mostly ischemic stroke – 3/4 of cases). A third of hospitalized patients had an altered mental status (23% of them – unspecified encephalopathy, 18% – encephalitis, remaining 59% – neuropsychiatric disorders). The vast majority of the latter (92%) were diagnosed for the first time (psychosis, neurocognitive syndrome, affective disorder) [24].

Moreover, SARs-CoV-2 virus can lead to lesions of the peripheral nervous system (twice as common in the mild course of the disease [15]). These include damages of olfactory nerves, which were also observed in the exposure to the related coronavirus SARS-CoV-1 [25].

Moreover, according to most researchers, loss of the sense of smell may be an only clinical

manifestation of COVID-19² [26]. Data on taste changes [15] and oculomotor nerve damage among Covid-positive patients [27] are also interesting.

Patients who were experiencing Covid for two months or more have persisting physiological symptoms: weakness (53.1%), shortness of breath (43.2%), joint pain, muscle pain (27.3%), chest pain (21.7%), as well as cough, loss of smell, dry eyes and oral mucosa, runny nose, red eyes, taste disorders, headache, sweating, loss of appetite, sore throat, dizziness, diarrhea [28].

Thus, acute neuropsychiatric reactions of a body to the neurotoxic COVID-19 virus often lead to severe complications (post-Covid strokes, heart attacks, encephalopathy, etc.), somatogenic mental and neurotic disorders, disability and even death of a patient. Therefore, they reflect and expand the spectrum of the disease burden.

The second level – mental. The spread of the new coronavirus infection and the measures to contain it contribute to the emergence of anxiety and depressive disorders (panic disorder, generalized anxiety disorder, phobias, panic attacks), which constitute the group of the most common comorbidities in various epidemics and emergency situations [29].

Forced isolation has an extremely negative impact on people’s mental well-being. Currently, there is more and more data on the increase in symptoms of distress during and after quarantine. Thus, S. Wang and colleagues revealed that 53.8% of people in forced isolation believe that their psychological state has seriously deteriorated [30].

Overall prevalence of anxiety symptoms among Chinese population during the pandemic, according to the results of a longitudinal study, was 35% (5% in 2019), depressive symptoms – 20% (3.6% in 2019), sleep disorders – 18% [31; 32].

² Loss of sense of smell as marker of COVID-19 infection. Official website of the ENT UK. Available at: [https://www.entuk.org/sites/default/files/files/Loss of sense of smell as marker of COVID.pdf](https://www.entuk.org/sites/default/files/files/Loss%20of%20sense%20of%20smell%20as%20marker%20of%20COVID.pdf) (accessed: January 29, 2021).

In the United States, there was the increase in a number of prescriptions for anxiolytic (anxiety-reducing) drugs (by 34%), antidepressants (by 19%), and sleeping pills (by 15%) in the first month of the pandemic³.

In Italy, after a three-week lockdown, the population showed symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD; 37%), severe stress (22.8%), adaptation disorder (21.8%), anxiety (20.8%), depression (17.3%), and insomnia (7.3%) [28].

Every second resident of Britain and America experienced a significant level of anxiety at the end of March 2020⁴.

The resulting mental disorders may be prolonged. Thus, every tenth person who was in the center of the SARS epidemic in 2003 met the diagnostic criteria for PTSD a year later [33; 34].

Based on a systematic analysis of the literature, it can be noted that, among population in China, the United Kingdom, the United States, Spain, Italy, India, Denmark, Turkey, Iran, and Nepal, relatively high rates of symptoms of anxiety (from 6 to 51%), depression (from 15 to 48%), post-traumatic stress disorder (from 7 to 54%), psychological distress (from 34 to 38%), and stress (from 8 to 82%) were recorded during the fight against the pandemic [35].

In Russia, several cross-sectional studies were conducted in 2020 to assess the psycho-emotional state of population. According to the results of one of them, clinical values of anxiety and depression were found among 9.3 and 6.1% of respondents, subclinical – in 12.6 and 15.1%, respectively [36].

³ Luhby T. Anti-anxiety medication prescriptions up 34% since coronavirus. *CNN*. April 16, 2020. Available at: <https://edition.cnn.com/2020/04/16/health/anti-anxiety-medication-us-demand-coronavirus/index.html> (accessed: January 29.01.2021).

⁴ Schwartz B.J. New Poll: COVID-19 Impacting Mental Well-Being: Americans Feeling Anxious, Especially for Loved Ones. *APA News*. March 25, 2020. Available at: <https://www.psychiatry.org/newsroom/news-releases/new-poll-covid-19-impacting-mental-well-being-americans-feeling-anxious-especially-for-loved-ones-older-adults-are-less-anxious> (accessed: January 21, 2021).

According to the results of the study of the staff of the Scientific Center for Mental Health [37], 22.3% of respondents (among the residents of the capital – every third one [38, p. 116]) felt a need for psychological assistance. They have significantly higher levels of phobic reactions, somatization, and suicidal risk, but lower levels of stress-reducing coping strategies. Moreover, there is a statistically significant trend of the growth of depressive symptoms with the development of the COVID-19 pandemic (from 0.75 to 0.93 on the SCL-90R scale) [39]. At the same time, there is a negative dynamic of an ability to objectively assess what is happening and comfort oneself, which makes it difficult to resist stress [38, p. 118]. The authors conclude that a prolonged pandemic will lead to an increase in ineffective ways to reduce psychopathological symptoms – aggressive behavior especially.

The third level – behavioral. At the initial stage, behavioral reactions to a stressful pandemic situation may include increased anxiety, inattention, slowness of action, frequent anger. Subsequently, an ability to solve problems, work fully, and critically perceive information decreases (which puts a person at risk of cyber fraud); defensive (avoidance) behavior [40], panic purchases, constant monitoring of news [41], smoking, alcohol abuse, aggressive behavior, gambling, suicidal thoughts and attempts, etc. occur [42]. Moreover, all these reactions appear not only during the pandemic: they become a “long-lasting” burden, stretching over years and even a person’s entire life [43]. Let us overview the most dangerous types of destructive behavioral reactions during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Forced isolation, financial difficulties, and alcohol abuse are the causes of increased **domestic violence**, which, in turn, entails a threat not only to physical, but also to mental health [44; 45, 46]. People in a confined space take their anxiety and irritation out on their loved ones – especially women, children, and elderly people.

Thus, in the Chinese province of Hubei, a number of police calls during the quarantine have tripled. In France, only in the first week of quarantine, a number of domestic violence cases increased by a third; in the UK, a number of calls to the helpline of the organization for combating domestic violence grew up by a quarter [47]. In Australia, people were 75% more likely to score the query “what to do in a situation of domestic violence” in the Google search bar, in Brazil – by 50% [46]. In Denmark, Spain, and Cyprus, women also began to seek help more often⁵. According to the Ombudsman in the Russian Federation, a number of victims and cases of domestic violence increased by 2.5 times in April.

More data suggest that a correlation between mental illness and domestic violence exists [48; 49]. Nearly a quarter of people who committed family homicides had been in contact with psychiatric services for a year prior to the crime, and a third had psychiatric symptoms at the time of the crime [50]. This correlation is largely caused by an influence of alcohol and psychoactive substances (surfactants) [43], and it proves the urgent need for continuous provision of qualified support to mentally ill and potential victims of domestic violence – even during quarantine measures and self-isolation.

Continuing the topic of alcohol dependence, we add that, according to the team of scientists led by J. Rehm, at the first stage of the fight against COVID-19, the scenario of a decrease in the level of *alcohol consumption* due to the decrease in its physical and economic availability was more likely. However, in the United States, there was an increase in alcohol sales in February – March [51; 52], in June – more than 13% of respondents reported that they started or increased drug use to cope with stress or emotions associated with COVID-19, and among those under 24 years of age – every fourth, and in the age group of 25–44 years – every fifth [53].

⁵ Nazarova N. Locked together. How victims of domestic violence live in quarantine. April 7, 2020. Available at: <https://www.bbc.com/russian/features-52184701>

Increased psychological distress on the background of financial difficulties, social isolation, and insecurity feeling, according to Rehm, can further exacerbate alcohol use and increase the associated harm in the medium- and long-term perspective [54; 55].

For example, a year after the SARS pandemic in China, nearly 5% of men and 15% of women reported increased alcohol consumption [56]. The risks are particularly high among medical workers. For those employees who were either quarantined or worked in the “red zone”, the risk of alcohol disorders, was about 1.5 times higher than that of other hospital employees even three years after the “SARS” outbreak [57].

Any increase in alcohol consumption in the current situation will not only increase the usual burden of diseases associated with it [54; 55], but also strengthen the risks of contracting COVID-19 by weakening the immune system [58].

Despite a low mortality rate from the SARS-CoV-2 virus, fear of the outcome, stigma, and financial losses often cause people to suffer, and it leads to impulsive decisions [59]. The pandemic, being a chronic phenomenon with uncertain and persistent biopsychosocial consequences for several months, can contribute to the increased *suicidal behavior* [59; 60]. There is evidence of an increase in the suicide rate during the epidemics of bubonic plague [61], “Spanish flu” [62], “SARS” [63], Ebola [64]. Suicide cases are reported in China, India, Bangladesh, Italy, and the United States of America [65–68].

According to an online survey, conducted in the United States in late June, one of ten (10.7%) respondents seriously considered suicide in the last month. The share of such people is noticeably higher among those aged 18–24 (25.5%), people without education (30%), racial/ethnic minorities (15.1–18.6%), persons who provide free adult care (30.7%), and those who work (21.7%). Moreover,

only 22–24% of them had been observed by a specialist earlier for anxiety or depression, 44% – for PTSD [53].

Torales' review [69] reported increased self-harm thoughts among medical professionals working with COVID-19 [70].

A Pakistani study revealed 29 cases of suicide, 16 of which were directly related to COVID-19. The majority of suicides, according to the authors, occurred due to the economic downturn caused by the lockdown. Fear of infection was the second factor contributing to suicide [71].

A study conducted in Canada predicted an increase in unemployment in 2020–2021, which will lead to an increase in the number of suicides to the level of 11.6–14.0 cases per 100,000 people in 2020 and to 13.6 in 2021. As a result, 2114 “extra” suicides will occur in 2020–2021 [72].

These results show that suicide prevention in the context of COVID-19-related unemployment is a top priority. In addition, timely access to mental healthcare, financial support, and social/work support programs, as well as optimal treatment for mental disorders, are urgently needed.

Domestic studies on suicidal behavior are not so numerous. In April 2020, the staff of V.P. Serbsky National Medical Research Center for Psychiatry and Narcology conducted a comparative study on the frequency of suicides in five entities of the Russian Federation. It showed that the mortality suicide rate even decreased compared to the period in 2019. According to the authors, this was caused by “the mobilization of a body's internal reserves, aimed at preserving humanity as a biological species” [73, p.4].

The staff of the Mental Health Research Center revealed a statistically significant increase in the frequency of suicidal thoughts among Russians as the pandemic progressed (the frequency of serious intentions was noted among 4.5% of respondents in late March, and every tenth respondent mentioned it late June). The increase in the severity of suicidal

thoughts lags behind the growth of depressive symptoms. Probably, suicidal ideas do not appear or increase immediately, but act as a delayed effect of stress [39, p. 12]. It is not explained by an “objective” threat of infection and fears for life, but it is experienced as an “indefinite” anxiety associated with measures to counteract the pandemic – restrictions of social interaction, loneliness, uncertainty [39].

According to E.B. Lyubov and his colleagues from the Moscow Research Institute of Psychiatry, we should expect “an increase in suicides in Russian regions with relatively low suicide rates. In recessive regions with chronic economic stagnation and depopulation, the “contribution of the Coronavirus”, on the contrary, may not be that noticeable due to adaptation to stressful events (“if you have not lived richly, you will not have to get used to it”), low availability of medical care, and epidemiological records. Experts believe that mortality rates and suicide rates may remain increased for several years, and regional indicators may be increased only after an acute phase of the pandemic – especially in high-risk groups” [74, p. 36].

Suicide factors during the pandemic constitute two groups:

1. **Psychological:** social isolation, anxiety, fear and uncertainty (infection/infection of others/availability of specific treatment or vaccination in the near future), poor sleep quality and eating habits [75], previously diagnosed mental health problems, relapse of a disease due to violations of a treatment regime and restrictions on access to help, alcohol, and psychoactive substances use [76].

2. **Social:** financial crisis, unemployment, limited supplies of basic necessities, domestic violence, school closures, exposure to vulnerable groups (homeless/unemployed/children/elderly), COVID-19 diagnosis, hospitalization in COVID-19 intensive care units, burnout among frontline medical workers, death of family members, stigmatization and discrimination due to the

outbreak, restrictions on participation in religious meetings or visiting religious places, and the “infodemic” phenomenon [77–80].

Healthcare workers, elderly people, migrants, homeless, economically vulnerable, and people with pre-existing mental disorders, substance abuse, and a family history of suicide are at higher risk of suicide.

Another behavioral response to the COVID-19 problem may be “*avoidance*” or *defensive behavior*. After the end of the quarantine period, many participants continue to behave in such a way to avoid its repetition. More than half of them avoid those who cough or sneeze, a quarter of them do not visit crowded places, and every fifth avoid all public places for a few weeks after the quarantine period [81]. For some, the return to normal life has been delayed for many months.

Several scientists call *changes in habits* another type of behavioral response to a pandemic situation. Thus, an Italian study revealed that a third of respondents had an increased appetite during the lockdown period, while 18%, on the contrary, had a reduced appetite. As a result, almost half of the study participants experienced weight gain. Nearly 3% of smokers quit smoking during this period, probably due to fear of an increased risk of respiratory distress and mortality from COVID-19 [82].

Thus, we summed up possible disorders of a body (physiological, including neuropsychiatric changes due to exposure to the virus), and the psyche (mental and behavioral) of a person, mostly caused by measures introduced to combat the pandemic, which characterize the damage to mental health caused by the COVID-19 pandemic.

Let us analyze *the factors provoking adverse mental outcomes among some population groups*.

1. COVID-19 disease, according to the results of most studies, may provoke psychological instability [23; 83–88]. More severe symptoms are observed during acute illness, due to exposure to the

virus itself and fear for one’s life, loneliness, forced isolation, poor health: confusion (on average, 28% of patients), depressed mood (33%), anxiety (36%), memory impairment (34%), insomnia (42%) [23]. One study revealed that the level of post-traumatic stress symptoms (PTSD) among Covid-positive patients in the initial period of the disease was extremely high (96.2%) [89].

In the post-disease stage (after suffering from coronavirus infections, such as SARS and MERS), the symptoms are less pronounced, but they persist. Insomnia was identified among 12% of respondents, irritability – 13%, depressive or anxiety disorder – 15%, memory impairment and fatigue – 19%, traumatic memories – 30%, PTSD symptoms – every third respondent [23].

According to another retrospective analysis of more than 60 thousand electronic medical records of Covid-positive patients, conducted by M. Taquet and colleagues in 2020, the frequency of any psychiatric diagnosis after 0.5–3 months after a positive test for COVID-19 was 18% (a third of which was a first-time diagnosis). The most frequent one was anxiety disorder (especially adaptation disorder and generalized anxiety disorder, less often – panic and post-traumatic stress disorder) [84].

There is evidence that patients who have experienced COVID-19 in intensive care units have numerous neurological, cognitive, and psychological symptoms [90]. However, it should be noted that high rates of post-traumatic symptoms of anxiety and depression were also reported from clinically stable people discharged from the hospital after recovering from COVID-19 [91].

2. Psychiatric predictors. A medical history of mental disorder is a significant risk factor for relapse during the pandemic [92–95]. Individuals with pre-existing mental health problems have reported increased symptoms and decreased access to services and support since the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic [68; 96–99].

Moreover, studies indicate that many people had undiagnosed diseases during the introduction of quarantine measures – including psychiatric ones [100]. Thus, during the lockdown period in the UK in March 2020, there was a 50% decrease in referrals for mental health problems compared to the expected demand. In turn, diagnostic delays among patients, for example, with depression can cause increased mortality, including suicides [101].

The reasons for the vulnerability of a group of mentally ill people during a pandemic may be as follows: (1) such people are more susceptible to emotional responses due to their high stress sensitivity compared to general population; (2) neurotoxic SARS-CoV-2 virus can cause a violation of the stress system regulation [102]; (3) mental disorders (especially attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, bipolar disorder, depression, and schizophrenia [103]) may increase the risk of SARS-CoV-2 infection [68; 104–109] (by 1.6 times [84]), pneumonia [68], and death [110; 111] (2–3 times more often [112]); (4) physical distancing reduces the availability of many types of drug, family, social, and psychiatric support [68; 98; 113; 114]; (5) serious functional disorders prevent access to medical care and compliance with a doctor’s instructions [115; 116]; even a patient with depression is about three times more likely to not follow the treatment recommendations [117]; (6) inpatient psychiatric facilities are often outdated; (7) resources are diverted from patients with chronic diseases (including mental disorders) to fight COVID-19; (8) most primary care physicians in COVID-19 are not able to work with neurocognitive and mental disorders.

Patients with dementia, Alzheimer’s disease, people in a suicidal crisis, patients with obsessive-compulsive disorder [33], panic attacks and other anxiety disorders, eating disorders [118], and autism spectrum disorders [119; 120; 121] are *especially vulnerable in the group of mentally ill patients*.

3. Professional and labor risk factors. Work on the front line, especially in medical institutions, closely to sick people is the main risk factor for psycho-emotional problems during a pandemic. The so-called frontline health workers can be affected by the fear of infection, lack of protective equipment, death of patients and colleagues, understaffing, need to make extremely difficult decisions, including ethical ones [122], separation from families, loneliness, and physical fatigue.

They experience great stigmatization, feelings of helplessness, guilt, loneliness, fear, anger, exhaustion, detachment, anxiety, irritability, insomnia, poor concentration and indecision, poor productivity, and unwillingness to work. In the future, they are more likely to exhibit “avoidance” behavior [122; 123].

Most studies on the mental health of medical workers during previous pandemics also show an increase in their distress, depression, anxiety, and post-traumatic stress⁶ [124–127].

According to the results of a Chinese study, during the COVID-19 pandemic, symptoms of anxiety disorder were detected among 36% of medical workers, depressive disorder – 20%, poor sleep – 24% [32]. According to the results of another study, the prevalence of depression and anxiety is even higher (51 and 45%, respectively), insomnia – 36%, and stress-related symptoms – 74% [128]. These symptoms were more common among female junior medical employees directly involved in the diagnosis and treatment of COVID-19 [129].

In general, according to various studies, 9–51% of medical professionals experienced symptoms of depression, anxiety – 15–45%, sleep disorders – 8–36%, excessive stress exposure – 7–72%,

⁶ Murphy J., Spikol E., McBride O., et al. The psychological well-being of frontline workers in the United Kingdom during the COVID-19 pandemic: first and second wave findings from the COVID-19 Psychological Research Consortium (C19PRC) Study. *PsyArXiv Preprints*. Available at: <https://psyarxiv.com/dcyw/> (accessed: January 29, 2021).

PTSD – 8–50%⁷. Even three years after the SARS outbreak, this group still had symptoms of post-traumatic stress [57], depression, and alcohol dependence [130].

However, three studies did not reveal an increase in mental disorders among healthcare professionals due to COVID-19 compared to general population⁸ [131].

Several scientists believe that the increase in distress among doctors amid the pandemic may be temporary, not pathological. Distress can be normalized through peer support, Schwartz rounds, and active monitoring, rather than formal psychiatric interventions [132]. These findings were repeated in 2020 in Wuhan, where health professionals reported the need for adequate rest and personal protective equipment, rather than mental health interventions [124]. Studies have shown that full breaks for food and sleep affect mental well-being more than a number of hours worked [133].

Other risk factors for health workers include lack of social support and communication, maladaptive coping strategies, and insufficient training [129]. In turn, negative emotions experienced by staff treating infected patients are assessed by them as trigger events that lead to errors and delays in providing care to patients [134], which also increases the burden of COVID-19.

⁷ Recommendations for medical professionals who are under conditions of increased psychoemotional stress during the COVID-19 pandemic. Moscow, 2020. Available at: https://edu.rosminzdrav.ru/fileadmin/user_upload/specialists/COVID-19/dop-materials/13-5-20/Rekomendacii_dlja_medrabortnikov.pdf (accessed: January 21, 2021).

⁸ Jia R., Ayling K., Chalder T., et al. Mental health in the UK during the COVID-19 pandemic: early observations. *BMJ medRxiv*, 2020 (preprint published online May 19). DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.05.14.20102012>. Available at: <https://www.medrxiv.org/content/10.1101/2020.05.14.20102012v1.full.pdf> (accessed: January 29, 2021); Kwong A.S.F., Pearson R.M., Adams M.J., et al. Mental health during the COVID-19 pandemic in two longitudinal UK population cohorts. *BMJ medRxiv*, 2020; (preprint published online June 18). DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.06.16.20133116>. Available at: <https://www.medrxiv.org/content/10.1101/2020.06.16.20133116v1> (accessed: January 29, 2021).

4. Financial and economic prerequisites. The loss of financial stability during the pandemic due to self-isolation and quarantine creates serious socio-economic prerequisites for the development of psychological disorders symptoms, anger, and anxiety not only during this period, but also after a few months [71; 135–139].

Thus, in Russia, according to several public opinion polls conducted in late June by various organizations, economic problems are extremely urgent. Nearly 84% of respondents were concerned about the pandemic-related economic crisis⁹. Seven out of ten respondents assessed the threat of a pandemic as significant for the Russian economy, and for their personal financial situation – more than 40%¹⁰. 42% of respondents noted the deterioration of their family's financial situation over the past three months, with one of three forced to borrow, and one in five – to take out loans. A third of respondents reported wage cuts, and a quarter – layoffs¹¹. Population's expectations are quite pessimistic (63% expect further deterioration of the financial situation). More than half are convinced that the state is taking insufficient measures to provide material support to the population in the current situation¹².

The importance of the economic factor is also discussed in foreign studies. For example, among those who lost their jobs and income in the United States, more than half reported anxiety or stress; people with lower incomes were more likely to report serious negative consequences for mental health.

According to Pierce, in the lowest-income households, an average level of mental disorder was 13.9 points (among high-income people – 12.0); among the unemployed – 15.0; economically inactive – 15.3 (employed – 12.5 or retired – 11.1).

⁹ Data of Russian Public Opinion Research Center.

¹⁰ Data of the RANEPА monitoring.

¹¹ Data of the Levada-Center.

¹² Data of the RANEPА monitoring.

Although the rates of mental disorders were higher among people who were unemployed or engaged in other economically inactive roles before the isolation, the greatest increase was recorded among those who worked before the pandemic [131].

In addition, numerous theoretical models link the projected increase in unemployment and the financial crisis with the increase in suicides [140–143]. Thus, due to unemployment in 2010–2011 (after the 2008 economic crisis), the suicide rate increased by 20–30% [144].

Russian economists, politicians, and experts also agree that the consequences of the 2020 crisis will be more dramatic than those of the 2008–2009 crisis¹³. They forecast mass unemployment. Its level may jump to 8–10% of the labor force (a pessimistic scenario), about 15 million of Russians may suffer or lose their jobs¹⁴. Preliminary estimates of the International Labor Organization indicate that the growth of global unemployment may range from 5.3 million (low scenario) up to 24.7 million people (high scenario)¹⁵.

Given that, according to WHO, every suicide among population is accompanied by more than 20 attempts, we may soon expect an increased load on mental healthcare services [144]. The readiness of all healthcare facilities can be vital to understanding and preventing it.

5. Media (infodemic) predictors. Most people around the world now have easy access to information thanks to an Internet connection and electronic media, which helps to share informa-

tion – about the pandemic too. Many researchers speak of a parallel infodemic (i.e., overabundance of information (accurate and not)). Like an epidemic, it spreads between people through digital and physical information systems [145]. As in the previous SARS (2003), H1N1 (2009), and MERS (2012) pandemics, media have significantly contributed to the COVID-19 infodemic [146; 147], provoking a surge of numerous rumors, hoaxes, conspiracy theories, and misinformation regarding the etiology, outcomes, prevention, and treatment of this disease. The spread of misinformation masks healthy behaviors and promotes erroneous practices that increase the spread of the virus and ultimately lead to the destruction of mental health [148]. Media position COVID-19 as rather an exceptional threat, which exacerbates panic and stress among general population, provokes the onset or relapse of anxiety, obsessive-compulsive, and post-traumatic stress disorder [149]. Social networks play a significant role in the infodemic phenomenon [19]. Their consumption increases the chances of anxiety (by 1.7 times) and depression (by 1.9 times) [150]. Thus, the high prevalence of mental health problems (depression – 48.3%, anxiety – 22.6%) during the outbreak of the new coronavirus infection in Wuhan correlated with the frequent use of social networks (nearly 80% of those who have problems) [150]. According to another study on people with dysfunctional anxiety (which arose during the pandemic), every fifth respondent spent 3–5 hours watching the news daily, a quarter – 5–7 hours, and another 20% – more than 7 hours. At the same time, two-thirds of them had never suffered from such a disease before and had not sought treatment for anxiety [151].

Several studies show that the commonness of television exposure can provoke not only an increase in stress levels [152], development of PTSD symptoms, and the risk of suicide [153], but also

¹³ Dynkin A., Telegina E. Black swan dance: world premiere. Available at: <https://scientificrussia.ru/articles/rossijskie-spetsialisty-ob-ekonomicheskikh-aspektah-pandemii> (accessed: January 21, 2021).

¹⁴ On the medium-term forecast of the development of the Russian economy in the context of the coronavirus pandemic and a possible crisis of the world economy. Report of the Center for Macroeconomic Analysis and Short-term Forecasting. Available at: <http://www.forecast.ru/Forecast/fore052020.pdf> (accessed: January 21, 2021).

¹⁵ Available at: <https://www.interfax.ru/business/703088> (accessed: January 21, 2021).

new cardiovascular diseases within 2–3 years after a stressful event [152].

Anxiety and uncertainty caused by the infodemic, in turn, may lead to additional media consumption, creating a vicious circle. Media-fueled distress can have a negative impact on the healthcare system (for example, provoking an increase in referrals and visits to emergency departments) [6].

The role of media and communications in the field of public health needs to be comprehended and studied further, as they will become an important tool in the fight against COVID-19 and future outbreaks [146]. Most researchers emphasize the importance of informational reliability disseminated through the media and social networks, as well as the search for viable strategies to counter disinformation during a pandemic [19; 145; 147; 150]. The response to the COVID-19 pandemic and related infodemics requires rapid, regular, systematic, and coordinated actions by various sectors of society and government, and it must be monitored by regulatory and law enforcement authorities, along with the provision of telemedicine services that provide accurate information about COVID-19 [148].

6. Socio-demographic prerequisites for mental health deterioration are ambiguous. According to most studies, young urban women are more vulnerable to the impact of the pandemic on their psyche [32; 131; 154; 155]. For example, there has been a steady increase in the level of psycho-emotional disorders among general population (from 16.7% in 2014–2015 to 18.9% in 2018–2019) in recent years in the UK. It was much more pronounced in 2020, especially among women aged 16–24 years (from 32% in 2017–2018 to 44% in April 2020) [131]. Psycho-emotional vulnerability of young women in crisis periods is also confirmed by the results of previous studies [156–159].

Several authors reveal an increasing number of mental health problems among children and adolescents during the pandemic [77; 160; 162]. In previous pandemics, quarantined children were more likely to suffer from acute stress disorder, adjustment disorders, and grief than those not quarantined [163]. An increased number of young people contacting the helpline with anxiety symptoms has also been reported¹⁶.

However, Y. Wang and his colleagues revealed an increased risk of anxiety among, on the contrary, people older than 40 years (40% higher than among younger people) [42]. Given that elderly people are at particularly high risk for severe COVID-19 and its associated mental health consequences (some cognitive impairments), they should also receive significant attention from mental health professionals during the pandemic [113].

In some studies, no correlation between adverse psychological outcomes of the pandemic, gender and age was found.

The scientists also revealed higher scores of the mental distress level among people who are single or do not live together with a partner, as well as among those having one little child [131]. According to another study, the presence of one child in a family contributes to distress during the coronavirus pandemic, and the presence of more than three children, on the contrary, increases psychological stability [154].

An additional stressor during a pandemic is, of course, a quarantine, especially if it is a prolonged one. People experience fear of infecting their relatives, boredom, frustration, lack of food supplies, stigmatization, difficulties in distance learning, a sense of lack of freedom and restrictions on their own rights and worry about their health.

¹⁶ Weale S. Sharp rise in number of calls to ChildLine over coronavirus. Available at: <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2020/mar/27/sharp-rise-in-number-of-calls-to-childline-over-coronavirus> (accessed: January 21, 2021).

Considering studied increased risk factors, it is possible to identify the main population groups vulnerable to the psychosocial and psycho-emotional consequences of the pandemic the most:

- those infected with COVID-19 and their quarantined family members;
- relatives of those who died due to the coronavirus;
- people with pre-existing psychiatric problems, including those dependent on alcohol and surfactants;
- healthcare workers who take care after infected people;
- people with low income, financial instability, migrant workers, unemployed;
- victims of domestic violence;
- lonely people;
- socially isolated groups (prisoners, homeless people, refugees, etc.);
- elderly people;
- children and teenagers;
- patients with concomitant somatic diseases;
- people with disabilities.

After studying and summarizing the results of numerous studies on the psycho-emotional burden of the COVID-19 pandemic, we present **several main directions for strengthening mental health** in this crisis period:

- 1) creation of a formal, integrated, unified platform for mental health counseling during a pandemic;
- 2) integration of mental health services into the COVID-19 care system;
- 3) provision of employment and material support for population;
- 4) development of a strategy for informed media policy on pandemic reporting;
- 5) events aimed directly at vulnerable groups;
- 6) promotion of a healthy lifestyle;
- 7) mitigation of a negative impact of quarantine on human psyche;
- 8) further scientific research.

There is a need for interdisciplinary well-coordinated work of representatives of all mental health sciences with the involvement of people with an experience of solving problems. The neuropsychiatric and psycho-emotional burden of the pandemic should be comprehended and studied – not just now, but in the future. The results of direct studies could help to develop responses to future waves of infection in terms of preventing the damage they cause to population's mental well-being and reducing the burden of the disease.

Conclusion

By late 2020, there were thousands of articles in electronic databases on various aspects of a negative impact of COVID-19 on population's mental health. Their results are sometimes contradictory due to differences of the methods used. Some of them are based on the results of cross-sectional studies, a small part – on longitudinal ones. In some works, the biological impact of the virus itself on the human nervous system is considered. Others, similar to the current work, are overviews, and they are devoted to many aspects.

Nevertheless, we have not found a single study that characterizes all the transformations which occur as a result of the spread of the COVID-19 virus, measures taken to combat it (neuropsychiatric, psycho-emotional, behavioral) and lead to the loss of mental health as the “psycho-emotional burden of the pandemic”. The authors of the current work have done it for the first time. Also, possible negative manifestations of mental health loss were structured into three main blocks: physiological, mental, and behavioral. It is the author's contribution to the development of theoretical science.

As a result, the burden of the new coronavirus pandemic in terms of mental health loss can be expressed in the following indicators:

1. Physiological level:
 - a) physical reactions to a stressful situation (increased heart rate, blood pressure, and blood sugar; impaired appetite, sleep, headache, body aches, endocrine disorders);

b) increased damages of the central and peripheral nervous system, neuropsychiatric and cerebrovascular complications (strokes, encephalopathy), changes of mental status (as well as disruption of the cardiovascular, digestive, and endocrine systems of a body) due to the neurotoxic effects of the SARS CoV-2 virus.

2. Mental level:

a) increased anxiety, unease, fear, anger;
b) onset or relapse of panic, anxiety, depressive disorders, adjustment disorders, and appearance of PTSD symptoms.

3. Behavioral level:

a) increase in aggressive behavior (surge of domestic violence);
b) auto-destructive behavior (alcohol and drug addiction, suicidal behavior);
c) internet and computer addictions;
d) avoidace (defensive) behavior;
e) change of food habits;
f) panic purchases, panic calls to the emergency service, etc.

These disorders in a body, psyche, and behavior inevitably lead to a significant deterioration of victims' mental state, decrease in their quality of life, disability, and even death. This puts an increasing strain on the healthcare system, diverting such limited resources needed to fight the pandemic. In addition, the healthcare crisis has led to many potentially missed or delayed diagnoses of high-risk diseases if they are not promptly diagnosed and effectively treated. Primary and secondary healthcare services should be prepared for a large influx of patients and increased severity of their diagnoses [77; 100; 164].

All this will entail direct and indirect economic costs for society (for treatment and rehabilitation, reducing the share of the working-age population), expanding the burden of the disease. It is important that the state loses the labor and human potential necessary for the economic recovery after the pandemic.

Most consequences of the pandemic regarding mental health are preventable if we develop a system for early diagnosis of mental health problems (especially in COVID-19 institutions), psychological support for population and risk groups (those who have had coronavirus and their families; healthcare workers; people suffering from mental disorders and those in a suicidal crisis; lonely people; those who lost income and jobs; victims of domestic violence; elderly people; children and adolescents; socially isolated groups; people with concomitant somatic diseases and disabilities). Prevention of the socio-economic consequences of the pandemic is extremely important.

We need further research on how the psycho-emotional burden of the pandemic can be mitigated now and later, as mental health consequences will take longer to manifest themselves, and they peak after the pandemic. As economic consequences of isolation develop, vacations turn into layoffs, tax and mortgage breaks expire, and a recession takes effect, should we expect not only sustained distress and clinically significant mental health deterioration [131] among some people, but also well-described long-term impact of the economic downturn on mental health, including an increase in suicide rates [165]. According to experts, up to 70% of the world's population may potentially need psychological help during the COVID-19 spread¹⁷.

Nevertheless, several researchers also note a new positive experience of people gained during the coronavirus outbreak. This is a pride that we have shown resilience and coped with difficulties, a sense of community against one misfortune, and a deep satisfaction after helping each other. There is also a

¹⁷ Axelrod J. Coronavirus may infect up to 70% of world's population, expert warns. March 2, 2020. Available at: <https://www.cbsnews.com/news/coronavirus-infection-outbreakworldwide-virus-expert-warning-today-2020-03-02/> (accessed: December 21, 2020).

decrease in the stigmatization of mental disorders. Many people now experience psychological problems that they could talk about. According to experts, it should contribute to their earlier detection and treatment, and therefore reduce the burden of the disease.

References

1. Denworth L. The largest psychological experiment. *V mire nauki. Scientific American= In the World of Science. Scientific American*, 2020, no. 8–9, pp. 44–53 (in Russian).
2. Shader R. COVID-19 and depression. *Clin Ther*, 2020, vol. 42 (6), pp. 962–963. DOI: 10.1016/j.clinthera.2020.04.010
3. Maltseva M.N., Shmonin A.A., Melnikova E.V., Ivanova G.E. Medical rehabilitation for coronavirus infection: New challenges for physical and rehabilitation medicine in Russia. *Vestnik vosstanovitel'noi meditsiny=Bulletin of Rehabilitation Medicine*, 2020, no. 97 (3), pp. 105–109. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.38025/2078-1962-2020-97-3-105-109> (in Russian).
4. Solovieva N.V., Makarova E.V., Kichuk I.V. “Coronavirus syndrome”: prevention of psychotrauma caused by COVID-19. *RMZh=RMJ*, 2020, no. 9, pp. 18–22 (in Russian).
5. Tsvetkov A.I. et al. Consequences of COVID-19 on the mental health of society: Statement of the problem and main directions of interdisciplinary research. *Ural'skii meditsinskii zhurnal=Ural Medical Journal*, 2020, no. 6 (189), pp. 95–101 (in Russian).
6. Holmes E.A., O'Connor R.C., Perry V.H. et al. Multidisciplinary research priorities for the COVID-19 pandemic: A call for action for mental health science. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 7, pp. 547–560.
7. McCall S., Vilensky J.A., Gilman S., Taubenberger J.K. The relationship between encephalitis lethargica and influenza: A critical analysis. *J Neurovirol*, 2008, vol. 14, pp. 177–185.
8. Li Y.C., Bai W.Z., Hirano N., Hayashida T., Hashikawa T. Coronavirus infection of rat dorsal root ganglia: Ultrastructural characterization of viral replication, transfer, and the early response of satellite cells. *Virus Res*, 2012, vol. 163, pp. 628–635.
9. Li K., Wohlford-Lenane C., Perlman S., et al. Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus causes multiple organ damage and lethal disease in mice transgenic for human dipeptidyl peptidase 4. *J Infect Dis*, 2016, vol. 213, pp. 712–722. DOI: 10.1093/infdis/jiv499
10. Xu J., Zhong S., Liu J., et al. Detection of severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus in the brain: Potential role of the chemokine mig in pathogenesis. *Clin Infect Dis*, 2005, vol. 41, pp. 1089–1096. DOI: 10.1086/444461
11. Wade D.M., Brewin C.R., Howell D., et al. Intrusive memories of hallucinations and delusions in traumatized intensive care patients: An interview study. *Br J Health Psychol*, 2015, vol. 20, pp. 613–631.
12. Madjid M., Casscells S.W. Of birds and men: Cardiologists' role in influenza pandemics. *Lancet*, 2004, vol. 364 (9442), 1309. DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(04\)17176-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(04)17176-6)
13. Manjunatha N., Math S.B., Kulkarni G.B., Chaturvedi S.K. The neuropsychiatric aspects of influenza / swine flu: A selective re-view. *Ind Psychiatry J*. 2011, vol. 20 (2), pp. 83–90.
14. Gusev E.I. et al. Novel coronavirus infection (COVID-19) and nervous system involvement: Pathogenesis, clinical manifestations, organization of neurological care. *Zhurnal nevrologii i psikiatrii im. S.S. Korsakova=S.S. Korsakov Journal of Neurology and Psychiatry*, 2020, no. 120 (6), pp. 7–16. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.17116/jnevro20201200617> (in Russian).
15. Mao L., Jin H., Wang M., et al. Neurologic manifestations of hospitalized patients with coronavirus disease 2019 in Wuhan, China. *JAMA Neurol*, 2020, vol. 77 (6), pp. 683–690. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaneurol.2020.1127>
16. Abdelrahman H.S., Safwat A.M., Alsagheir M.M. Acute necrotizing encephalopathy in an adult as a complication of H1N1 infection. *BJR Case Rep*, 2019, vol. 5 (4), 20190028. Available at: <https://www.birpublications.org/doi/10.1259/bjrcr.20190028>. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1259/bjrcr.20190028>

17. Luneva I.E. et al. Influenza-associated acute necrotizing encephalitis in an adult. *Zhurnal neurologii i psikiatrii im. S.S. Korsakova=S.S. Korsakov Journal of Neurology and Psychiatry*, 2020, no. 120 (4), pp. 101–105 (in Russian).
18. Koh J.C., Murugasu A., Krishnappa J., Thomas T. Favorable outcomes with early interleukin 6 receptor blockade in severe acute necrotizing encephalopathy of childhood. *Pediatr Neurol*, 2019, vol. 98, pp. 80–84. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pediatrneurol.2019.04.009>
19. Lin Y.Y., Lee K.Y., Ro L.S., et al. Clinical and cytokine profile of adult acute necrotizing encephalopathy. *Biomed J*, 2019, vol. 42 (3), pp. 178–186. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bj.2019.01.008>
20. Desforges M., Le Coupanec A., Stodola J.K., et al. Human coronaviruses: Viral and cellular factors involved in neuroinvasiveness and neuropathogenesis. *Virus Res*, 2014, vol. 194, pp. 145–158. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.virusres.2014.09.011>
21. Arbour N., Day R., Newcombe J., Talbot P.J. Neuroinvasion by human respiratory coronaviruses. *J Virol*, 2000, vol. 74 (19), pp. 8913–8921. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1128/jvi.74.19.8913-8921.2000>
22. Mao L., Wang M., Chen S., et al. Neurological manifestations of hospitalized patients with coronavirus disease 2019 in Wuhan, China. *JAMA Neurol*, 2020, vol. 77 (6), pp. 683–690. DOI: [10.1001/jamaneurol.2020.1127](https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaneurol.2020.1127)
23. Rogers J.P., Chesney E., Oliver D., et al. Psychiatric and neuropsychiatric presentations associated with severe coronavirus infections: A systematic review and meta-analysis with comparison to the COVID-19 pandemic. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 7, pp. 611–627.
24. Varatharaj A., Thomas N., Ellul M.A., et al. Neurological and neuropsychiatric complications of COVID-19 in 153 patients: A UK-wide surveillance study. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 7 (10), pp. 875–882. DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366\(20\)30287-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366(20)30287-X)
25. Netland J., Meyerholz D.K., Moore S., et al. Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus infection causes neuronal death in the absence of encephalitis in mice transgenic for human ACE2. *J Virol*, 2008, vol. 82 (15), pp. 7264–7275. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1128/JVI.00737-08>
26. Gane S.B., Kelly C., Hopkins C. Isolated sudden onset anosmia in COVID-19 infection. A novel syndrome? *Rhinology*, 2020, vol. 58 (3), pp. 299–301. DOI: [10.4193/Rhin20.114](https://doi.org/10.4193/Rhin20.114)
27. Wei H., Yin H., Huang M., Guo Z. The 2019 novel coronavirus pneumonia with onset of oculomotor nerve palsy: A case study. *J Neurol*. 2020, vol. 267, pp. 1550–1553. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00415-020-09773-9>
28. Rossi R., Soggi V., Talevi D., et al. COVID-19 pandemic and lockdown measures impact on mental health among the general population in Italy. *Frontiers in Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 11, p. 790. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.04.09.20057802>
29. American Psychiatric Association. *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-5®)*. American Psychiatric Pub., 2013. 991 p. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1176/appi.books.9780890425596>
30. Wang C., Pan R., Wan X. et al. Immediate psychological responses and associated factors during the initial stage of the 2019 coronavirus disease (COVID-19) epidemic among the general population in China. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*, 2020, vol. 17 (5), p. 1729. DOI: [10.3390/ijerph17051729](https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17051729)
31. Huang Y., Wang Y., Wang H., et al. Prevalence of mental disorders in China: A cross-sectional epidemiological study. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 2019, vol. 6(3), pp. 211–224. DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366\(18\)30511-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366(18)30511-X)
32. Huang Y., Zhao N. Mental health burden for the public affected by the COVID-19 outbreak in China: Who will be the high-risk group? *Psychology, Health & Medicine*, 2021, vol. 26, no. 1, pp. 23–34. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1080/13548506.2020.1754438>
33. Mak I.W.C., Chu C.M., Pan P.C., et al. Long-term psychiatric morbidities among SARS survivors. *Gen. Hosp. Psychiatry*, 2009, vol. 31 (4), pp. 318–326.
34. Lee S.W., Yang J.M., Moon S.Y., et al. Association between mental illness and COVID-19 susceptibility and clinical outcomes in South Korea: A nationwide cohort study. *Lancet Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 7 (12), pp. 1025–1031. DOI: [10.1016/S2215-0366\(20\)30421-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366(20)30421-1)

35. Xiong J., Lipsitz O., Nasri F. et al. Impact of COVID-19 pandemic on mental health in the general population: A systematic review. *J Affect Disord*, 2020, vol. 277, pp. 55–64. DOI: 10.1016/j.jad.2020.08.001
36. Opekina T.P., Shipova N.S. Family in lockdown: Stress, risks and coping opportunities. *Vestnik Kostromskogo gosudarstvennogo universiteta. Seriya: Pedagogika. Psikhologiya. Sotsiokinetika=Vestnik of Kostroma State University. Series: Pedagogy. Psychology. Sociokinetics*, 2020, vol. 26, no. 3, pp. 121–128. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.34216/2073-1426-2020-26-3-121-128> (in Russian).
37. Boyko O.M. et al. The psychological state of people during the COVID-19 pandemic and the target of psychological work. *Psikhologicheskie issledovaniya=Psikhologicheskie Issledovaniya*, 2020, vol. 13, no. 70. Available at: <http://psystudy.ru> (accessed: 24.12.2020) (in Russian).
38. Enikolopov S.N. et al. Dynamics of Psychological reactions at the start of the pandemic of COVID-19. *Psikhologo-pedagogicheskie issledovaniya=Psychological-Educational Studies*, 2020, vol. 12, no. 2, pp. 108–126 (in Russian).
39. Medvedeva T.I., Enikolopov S.N., Boiko O.M., Vorontsova O.Yu. The dynamics of depressive symptoms and suicidal ideation during the COVID-19 pandemic in Russia. *Suitsidologiya=Suicidology*, 2020, no. 11 (3), pp. 3–16. DOI: 10.32878/suiciderus.20-11-03(40)-3-16 (in Russian).
40. Tian F., Li H., Tian S., et al. Psychological symptoms of ordinary Chinese citizens based on SCL-90 during the level I emergency response to COVID-19. *Psychiatry Res*, 2020, vol. 288, 112992. DOI: 10.1016/j.psychres.2020.112992/
41. Dixit A., Marthoenis M., Arafat S., et al. Binge watching behavior during COVID 19 pandemic: A cross-sectional, cross-national online survey. *Psychiatry Res*, 2020, vol. 289, 113089. DOI: 10.1016/j.psychres.2020.113089
42. Wang Y., Di Y., Ye J., Wei W. Study on the public psychological states and its related factors during the outbreak of coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) in some regions of China. *Psychology, Health & Medicine*, 2020, vol. 26 (1), pp. 13–22. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1080/13548506.2020.1746817>
43. Bhavsar V., Kirkpatrick K., Calcia M., Howard L.M. Lockdown, domestic abuse perpetration, and mental health care: Gaps in training, research, and policy. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 2020. DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366\(20\)30397-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366(20)30397-7) / Available at: [https://www.thelancet.com/journals/lanpsy/article/PIIS2215-0366\(20\)30397-7/fulltext](https://www.thelancet.com/journals/lanpsy/article/PIIS2215-0366(20)30397-7/fulltext) (accessed: 21.01.2021).
44. Van Gelder N., Peterman A., Potts A. et al. COVID-19: Reducing the risk of infection might increase the risk of intimate partner violence. *EClinicalMedicine*, 2020, vol. 21, 100348. DOI: 10.1016/j.eclinm.2020.100348
45. Bavel J.J., Baicker K., Boggio P.S., et al. Using social and behavioural science to support COVID-19 pandemic response. *Nat. Hum. Behav*, 2020, vol. 4, pp. 460–471. DOI: 10.1038/s41562-020-0884-z
46. Usher K., Bhullar N., Durkin J., et al. Family violence and COVID-19: Increased vulnerability and reduced options for support. *Int. J. Ment. Health Nurs*, 2020, vol. 29, pp. 549–552. DOI: 10.1111/inm.12735
47. Bradbury-Jones C., Isham L. The pandemic paradox: The consequences of COVID-19 on domestic violence. *J. Clin. Nurs*, 2020, vol. 29, pp. 2047–2049. DOI: 10.1111/jocn.15296
48. Oram S., Trevillion K., Khalifeh H., et al. Systematic review and meta-analysis of psychiatric disorder and the perpetration of partner violence. *Epidemiol Psychiatr Sci*, 2013, vol. 23, pp. 361–376.
49. Yu R., Nevado-Holgado A.J., Molero Y. et al. Mental disorders and intimate partner violence perpetrated by men towards women: A Swedish population-based longitudinal study. *PLoS Med*, 2019, vol. 16 (12), 16e1002995.
50. Oram S., Flynn S.M., Shaw J., et al. Mental illness and domestic homicide: A population-based descriptive study. *Psychiatr Serv*, 2013, vol. 64, pp. 1006–1011.
51. Clay J.M., Parker M.O. Alcohol use and misuse during the COVID-19 pandemic: A potential public health crisis? *Lancet Public Health*, 2020, vol. 5, e259.
52. Sher K., Bhullar N., Durkin J., et al. Family violence and COVID-19: Increased vulnerability and reduced options for support. *Int J Ment Health Nur*, 2020, vol. 29 (4), pp. 549–552. DOI: 10.1111/inm.12735

53. Czeisler M.E., Lane R.I., Petrosky E., et al. Mental health, substance use, and suicidal ideation during the COVID-19 pandemic – United States, June 24–30, 2020. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep.*, 2020, vol. 69 (32), pp. 1049–1057. DOI: 10.15585/mmwr.mm6932a1
54. Rehm J., Gmel G., Gmel G., et al. The relationship between different dimensions of alcohol use and the burden of disease—an update. *Addiction*, 2017, vol. 12, pp. 968–1001. DOI: 10.1111/add.13757
55. Shield K.D., Mantney J., Rylett M., et al. National, regional, and global burdens of disease from 2000 to 2016 attributable to alcohol use: A comparative risk assessment study. *Lancet Public Health*, 2020, vol. 5, pp. 51–61.
56. Lau J.T., Yang X., Pang E., et al. SARS-related perceptions in Hong Kong. *Emerg Infect Dis*, 2005, vol. 11, pp. 417–424.
57. Wu P., Liu X., Fang Y., et al. Alcohol abuse/dependence symptoms among hospital employees exposed to a SARS outbreak. *Alcohol and Alcoholism*, 2008, vol. 43, pp. 706–712. DOI:10.1093/alcalc/agn073
58. Molina P.E., Happel K.I., Zhang P., et al. Focus on: Alcohol and the immune system. *Alcohol Res Health*, 2010, vol. 33, pp. 97–108.
59. Banerjee D., Kosagisharaf J.R., Rao T.S. «The dual pandemic» of suicide and COVID-19: A biopsychosocial narrative of risks and prevention. *Psychiatry Res*, 2020, Nov. 18, 113577. DOI: 10.1016/j.psychres.2020.113577. Available at: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32302816/>
60. Devitt P. Can we expect an increased suicide rate due to Covid-19? *Irish J. Psychol. Med*, 2020, vol. 37 (4), pp. 264–268. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1017/ipm.2020.46>
61. Benedictow O.J. *The Black Death 1346–1353: The Complete History*. Woodbridge and Rochester, Boydell Press, 2004. 451 p.
62. Wasserman I.M. The impact of epidemic, war, prohibition and media on suicide: United States, 1910–1920. *Suicide Life-Threat. Behav*, 1992, vol. 22 (2), pp. 240–254.
63. Cheung Y.T., Chau P.H., Yip P.S. A revisit on older adults' suicides and Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) epidemic in Hong Kong. *Int. J. Geriatr. Psychiatry*, 2008, vol. 23 (12), pp. 1231–1238.
64. Bitanahirwe B.K.Y. Monitoring and managing mental health in the wake of Ebola. *Ann. dell'Istituto Super. Sanita*, 2016, vol. 52 (3), pp. 320–322.
65. Mamun M.A., Griffiths M.D. First COVID-19 suicide case in Bangladesh due to fear of COVID-19 and xenophobia: Possible suicide prevention strategies. *Asian J. Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 51, 102073. DOI: 10.1016/j.ajp.2020.102073
66. Thakur V., Jain A. COVID 2019-suicides: A global psychological pandemic. *Brain Behav. Immun.*, 2020, vol. 88, pp. 952–953. DOI: 10.1016/j.bbi.2020.04.062
67. Montemurro N. The emotional impact of COVID-19: From medical staff to common people. *Brain Behav. Immun*, 2020, vol. 87, pp. 23–24. DOI: 10.1016/j.bbi.2020.03.032
68. Yao H., Chen J.-H., Xu Y.-F. Patients with mental health disorders in the COVID-19 epidemic. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 7 (4), e21. DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366\(20\)30090-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366(20)30090-0)
69. Torales J., O'Higgins M., Castaldelli-Maia J.M., Ventriglio A. The outbreak of COVID-19 coronavirus and its impact on global mental health. *Int. J. Soc. Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 66 (4), pp. 317–320. DOI: 10.1177/0020764020915212
70. Reger M.A., Stanley I.H., Joiner T.E. Suicide mortality and coronavirus disease 2019 – a perfect storm? *JAMA Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 77 (11), pp. 1093–1094. DOI:10.1001/jamapsychiatry.2020.1060
71. Mamun M.A., Ullah I. COVID-19 suicides in Pakistan, dying off not COVID-19 fear but poverty? The forthcoming economic challenges for a developing country. *Brain Behav Immun*, 2020, vol. 87, pp. 163–166. DOI: 10.1016/j.bbi.2020.05.028
72. McIntyre R.S., Lee Y. Projected increases in suicide in Canada as a consequence of COVID-19. *Psychiatry Res*, 2020, vol. 290, 113104. DOI: 10.1016/j.psychres.2020.113104
73. Kekelidze Z.I. et al. Suicide during the pandemic self-isolation. *Rossiiskii psikhiatricheskii zhurnal=Russian Journal of Psychiatry*, 2020, no. 3, pp. 4–13. DOI: 10.24411/1560-957X-2020-10301 (in Russian).

74. Lyubov E.B., Zotov P.B., Polozhy B.S. Pandemics and suicide: A perfect storm and a moment of truth. *Suitsidologiya=Suicidology*, 2020, no. 11 (1), pp. 3–38. DOI: doi.org/10.32878/suiciderus.20-11-01(38)-3-38 (in Russian).
75. Sher L. COVID-19, anxiety, sleep disturbances and suicide. *Sleep Medicine*, 2020, vol. 70, p. 124. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sleep.2020.04.019
76. Joseph S.J., Shoib S., Thejaswi S.G., Bhandari S.S. Psychological concerns and musculoskeletal pain amidst the COVID-19 lockdown. *Open Journal of Psychiatry and Allied Sciences*, 2020, vol. 11 (2), pp. 137–139.
77. Gunnell D., Appleby L., Arensman E., et al. Suicide risk and prevention during the COVID-19 pandemic. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 7 (6), pp. 468–471. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366(20)30171-1
78. Joseph S. J., Bhandari S.S., Ranjitkar S., Dutta S. School closures and mental health concerns for children and adolescents during the covid-19 pandemic. *Psychiatria Danubina*, 2020, vol. 32 (2), pp. 309–310.
79. Joseph Sh.J., Bhandari S.S. Dealing with the rising tide of suicides during the COVID-19 pandemic: Strengthening the pillars of prevention and timely intervention. *International Journal of Social Psychiatry*, 2020. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1177/0020764020962146. Available at: https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/0020764020962146
80. Sher L. The impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on suicide rates. *QJM: An International Journal of Medicine*, 2020, vol. 113 (10), pp. 707–712. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1093/qjmed/hcaa202
81. Reynolds D.L., Garay J.R., Deamond S.L., et al. Understanding, compliance and psychological impact of the SARS quarantine experience. *Epidemiol Infect.*, 2008, vol. 136, pp. 997–1007.
82. Di Renzo L., Gualtieri P., Pivari F., et al. Eating habits and lifestyle changes during COVID-19 lockdown: An Italian survey. *J. Transl. Med.*, 2020, vol. 18, no. 229.
83. Helms J., Kremer S., Merdji H., et al. Neurologic features in severe SARS-CoV-2 infection. *N Engl J Med*, 2020, vol. 382, pp. 2268–2270.
84. Taquet M., Luciano S., Geddes J.R., Harrison P.J. Bidirectional associations between COVID-19 and psychiatric disorder: Retrospective cohort studies of 62 354 COVID-19 cases in the USA. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 2021, vol. 8 (2), pp. 130–140. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366(20)30462-4
85. Paz C., Mascialino G., Adana-Díaz L., et al. Anxiety and depression in patients with confirmed and suspected COVID-19 in Ecuador. *Psychiatry Clin Neurosci*, 2020, vol. 74, pp. 554–555.
86. Gennaro M., De Lorenzo R., Conte C., et al. Anxiety and depression in COVID-19 survivors: Role of inflammatory and clinical predictors. *Brain Behav Immun?* 2020, vol. 89, pp. 594–600.
87. Halpin S.J., McIvor C., Whyatt G., et al. Postdischarge symptoms and rehabilitation needs in survivors of COVID-19 infection: A cross-sectional evaluation. *J Med Virol*, 2021, vol. 93, pp. 1013–1022. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1002/jmv.26368
88. Zhang J., Lu H., Zeng H., et al. The differential psychological distress of populations affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. *Brain Behav Immun*, 2020, vol. 87, pp. 49–50.
89. Vindegaard N., Benros M.E. COVID-19 pandemic and mental health consequences: Systematic review of the current evidence. *Brain Behav Immun*, 2020, vol. 89, pp. 531–542.
90. Rawal G., Yadav S., Kumar R/ Post-intensive care syndrome: An overview. *J Transl Int Med*, 2017, vol. 5, pp. 90–92.
91. Bo H.-X., Li W., Yang Y., et al. Posttraumatic stress symptoms and attitude toward crisis mental health services among clinically stable patients with COVID-19 in China. *Psychol Med*, 2020. DOI: https://doi.org.10.1017/S0033291720000999
92. Seminog O.O., Goldacre M.J. Risk of pneumonia and pneumococcal disease in people with severe mental illness: English record linkage studies. *Thorax*, 2013, vol. 68, pp. 171–176.
93. Roberts A.R. *Crisis Intervention Handbook: Assessment, Treatment, and Research*. 3rd ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2005. 872 p.

94. Wang J., Lloyd-Evans B., Giacco D., et al. Social isolation in mental health: A conceptual and methodological review. *Soc Psychiatry Psychiatr Epidemiol*, 2017, vol. 52, pp. 1451–1461. DOI: 10.1007/s00127-017-1446-1
95. Cacioppo J.T., Hughes M.E., Waite L.J., Hawkley L.C., Thisted R.A. Loneliness as a specific risk factor for depressive symptoms: Cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses. *Psychol Aging*, 2006, vol. 21, pp. 140–151. DOI: 10.1037/0882-7974.21.1.140
96. Hao F., Tan W., Jiang L., et al. Do psychiatric patients experience more psychiatric symptoms during COVID-19 pandemic and lockdown? A case-control study with service and research implications for immunopsychiatry. *Brain Behav Immun*, 2020, vol. 87, pp. 100–106.
97. Chevance A., Gourion D., Hoertel N., et al. Ensuring mental health care during the SARS-CoV-2 epidemic in France: A narrative review. *Encephale*, 2020, vol. 46 (3), pp. 193–201.
98. Kozloff N., Mulsant B.H., Stergiopoulos V., Voineskos A.N. The COVID-19 global pandemic: Implications for people with schizophrenia and related disorders. *Schizophr Bull.*, 2020, vol. 46 (4), pp. 752–757. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1093/schbul/sbaa051>
99. Duan L., Zhu G. Psychological interventions for people affected by the COVID-19 epidemic. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 7 (4), pp. 300–302.
100. Williams R., Jenkins D.A., Ashcroft D.A., et al. Diagnosis of physical and mental health conditions in primary care during the COVID-19 pandemic: A retrospective cohort study. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 5 (10), pp. 543–550. DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2468-2667\(20\)30201-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2468-2667(20)30201-2)
101. Ghio L., Gotelli S., Marcenaro M., et al. Duration of untreated illness and outcomes in unipolar depression: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Affect Disord*, 2014, vol. 152–154, pp. 45–51.
102. Steenblock C., Todorov V., Kanczkowski W., et al. Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) and the neuroendocrine stress axis. *Mol Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 25 (8), pp. 1611–1617. DOI: 10.1038/s41380-020-0758-9
103. Wang Q., Xu R., Volkow N.D. Increased risk of COVID-19 infection and mortality in people with mental disorders: Analysis from electronic health records in the United States. *World Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 20 (1), pp. 124–130. DOI: 10.1002/wps.20806
104. Cohen S. Keynote presentation at the Eight International Congress of Behavioral Medicine: The Pittsburgh common cold studies: Psychosocial predictors of susceptibility to respiratory infectious illness. *Int J Behav Med*, 2005, vol. 12, pp. 123–131.
105. Zhu Y., Chen L., Ji H., et al. The risk and prevention of novel coronavirus pneumonia infections among inpatients in psychiatric hospitals. *Neurosci Bull*, 2020, vol. 36, pp. 299–302.
106. Walker E.R., McGee R.E., Druss B.G. Mortality in mental disorders and global disease burden implications: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *JAMA Psychiatry*, 2015, vol. 72, pp. 334–341.
107. Kola L. Global mental health and COVID-19. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 7, pp. 655–657.
108. Momen N.C., Plana-Ripoll O., Agerbo E., et al. Association between mental disorders and subsequent medical conditions. *N Engl J Med*, 2020, vol. 382, pp. 1721–1731.
109. Moreno C., Wykes T., Galderisi S., et al. How mental health care should change as a consequence of the COVID-19 pandemic. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 7, pp. 813–824.
110. Nicholson A., Kuper H., Hemingway H. Depression as an aetiologic and prognostic factor in coronary heart disease: A meta-analysis of 6362 events among 146 538 participants in 54 observational studies. *Eur Heart J*, 2006, vol. 27, pp. 2763–2774.
111. Shen H.N., Lu C.L., Yang H.H. Increased risks of acute organ dysfunction and mortality in intensive care unit patients with schizophrenia: A nationwide population-based study. *Psychosom Med*, 2011, vol. 73, pp. 620–626.
112. Seung W.L., Jee Yang J.Y., Moon S.Y., et al. Association between mental illness and COVID-19 susceptibility and clinical outcomes in South Korea: A nationwide cohort study. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 7 (12), pp. 1025–1031. DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366\(20\)30421-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366(20)30421-1)

113. Brown E.E., Kumar S., Rajji T.K., Pollock B.G., Mulsant B.H. Anticipating and mitigating the impact of the covid-19 pandemic on Alzheimer's disease and related dementias. *The American Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry*, 2020. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jagp.2020.04.010>. Available at: <https://psycnet.apa.org/record/2020-28743-001>
114. Cluver L. Lachman J.M., Sherr L. et al. Parenting in a time of COVID-19. *Lancet*, 2020, vol. 395, e64.
115. Teasdale S.B., Ward P.B., Samaras K., et al. Dietary intake of people with severe mental illness: Systematic review and meta-analysis. *Br J Psychiatry*, 2019, vol. 214, pp. 251–259.
116. Evans S., Banerjee S., Leese M., Huxley P. The impact of mental illness on quality of life: A comparison of severe mental illness, common mental disorder and healthy population samples. *Qual Life Res*, 2007, vol. 16, pp. 17–29.
117. DiMatteo M.R., Lepper H.S., Croghan T.W. Depression is a risk factor for noncompliance with medical treatment: Meta-analysis of the effects of anxiety and depression on patient adherence. *Arch Intern Med*, 2000, vol. 160, pp. 2101–2107.
118. Fernandez-Aranda F., Casas M., Claes L., et al. COVID-19 and implications for eating disorders. *Eur Eat Disord Rev*, 2020, vol. 28 (3), pp. 239–245.
119. Cortese S., Asherson P., Sonuga-Barke E. et al. ADHD management during the COVID-19 pandemic: Guidance from the European ADHD Guidelines Group. *Lancet Child Adolesc Health*, 2020, vol. 4, pp. 412–414.
120. Garriga M., Agasi I., Fedida E., et al. The role of mental health home hospitalization care during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Acta Psychiatr Scand.*, 2020, vol. 141, pp. 479–480.
121. Narzisi A. Handle the autism spectrum condition during coronavirus (COVID-19) stay at home period: Ten tips for helping parents and caregivers of young children. *Brain Sci*, 2020, vol. 10 (4), 207.
122. Brooks S.K., Webster R.K., Smith L.E., et al. The psychological impact of quarantine and how to reduce it: Rapid review of the evidence. *Lancet*, 2020, vol. 395, pp. 912–920. DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(20\)30460-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30460-8)
123. Bai Y., Lin C.C., Lin C.Y, et al. Survey of stress reactions among health care workers involved with the SARS outbreak. *Psychiatr Serv*, 2004, vol. 55, pp. 1055–1057. DOI: 10.1176/appi.ps.55.9.1055
124. Chen Q., Liang M., Li Y., et al. Mental health care for medical staff in China during the COVID-19 outbreak. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 7, pp. 15–16.
125. Tang H.H., Lu X.Y., Cai S.X., et al. Investigation and analysis on mental health status of frontline nurses in Wuhan during COVID-19 epidemic. *Int Infect Dis*, 2020, vol. 9, pp. 296–297.
126. Xiao H., Zhang Y., Kong D., et al. The effects of social support on sleep quality of medical staff treating patients with coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) in January and February 2020 in China. *Med Sci Monit*, 2020, vol. 26, e923549.
127. Kisely S., Warren N., McMahon L., et al. Occurrence, prevention, and management of the psychological effects of emerging virus outbreaks on healthcare workers: Rapid review and meta-analysis. *BMJ*, 2020, vol. 369, m1642.
128. Liu S., Yang L., Zhang C., Xiang Y., Liu Z., Hu S., Zhang B. Online mental health services in China during the COVID-19 outbreak. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 7 (4), e17–e18. DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366\(20\)30077-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366(20)30077-8)
129. Lai J., Ma S., Wang Y., et al. Factors associated with mental health outcomes among health care workers exposed to coronavirus disease 2019. *JAMA Netw Open*, 2020, vol. 3, e203976.
130. Liu X., Kakade M., Fuller C.J., et al. Depression after exposure to stressful events: Lessons learned from the severe acute respiratory syndrome epidemic. *Compr Psychiatry*, 2012, vol. 53, pp. 15–23. DOI: 10.1016/j.comppsy.2011.02.003
131. Pierce M., Hope H, Ford T., et al. Mental health before and during the COVID-19 pandemic: A longitudinal probability sample survey of the UK population. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 7 (10), pp. 883–892. DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366\(20\)30308-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366(20)30308-4)

132. Lamb D., Greenberg N., Stevelink S., Wessely S. Mixed signals about the mental health of the NHS workforce. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 7 (12), pp. 1009–1011. DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366\(20\)30379-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366(20)30379-5)
133. Firth-Cozens J., What I learnt from studying doctors' mental health over 20 years-an essay by Jenny Firth-Cozens. *BMJ*, 2020, vol. 369, m1374.
134. Son H., Lee W.J., Kim H.S., et al. Examination of hospital workers' emotional responses to an infectious disease outbreak: Lessons from the 205 MERS Co-V outbreak in South Korea. *Disaster Med Public Health Prep.*, 2019, vol. 13, pp. 504–510. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1017/dmp.2018.95>
135. Greenberg N., Docherty M., Gnanapragasam S., Wessely S. Managing mental health challenges faced by healthcare workers during covid-19 pandemic. *BMJ*, 2020, vol. 368, m1211.
136. Andrew A., Cattan S., Dias M.C., et al. *How are Mothers and Fathers Balancing Work and Family under Lockdown?* Institute of Fiscal Studies, London, 2020.
137. Townsend E., Nielsen E., Allister R., Cassidy S.A. Key ethical questions for research during the COVID-19 pandemic. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 7, pp. 381–383.
138. Restubog S.L.D., Ocampo A.C.G., Wang L. Taking control amidst the chaos: Emotion regulation during the COVID-19 pandemic. *J. Vocat. Behav*, 2020, vol. 119, 103440. DOI: 10.1016/j.jvb.2020.103440
139. Dsouza D.D., Quadros S., Hyderabadwala Z.J., Mamun M.A. Aggregated COVID-19 suicide incidences in India: Fear of COVID-19 infection is the prominent causative factor. *Psychiatry Res*, 2020, vol. 290, 113145. DOI: 10.1016/j.psychres.2020.113145
140. Kawohl W., Nordt C. COVID-19, unemployment, and suicide. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 7 (5), pp. 389–390.
141. Moser D.A., Glaus J., Frangou S., Schechter D.S. Years of life lost due to the psychosocial consequences of COVID19 mitigation strategies based on Swiss data. *Eur. Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 63 (1), e58.
142. Conejero I., Berrouiguet S., Ducasse D., et al. Épidémie de COVID-19 et prise en charge des conduites suicidaires: Challenge et perspectives. *Encéphale*, 2020, no. 46, pp. S66–S72. DOI: 10.1016/j.encep.2020.05.001
143. Vandoros S., Avendano M., Kawachi I. The association between economic uncertainty and suicide in the short-run. *Soc. Sci. Med*, 2019, vol. 220, pp. 403–410. DOI: 10.1016/j.socscimed.2018.11.035
144. Nordt C., Warnke I., Seifritz E., Kawohl W. Modelling suicide and unemployment: A longitudinal analysis covering 63 countries, 2000–11. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 2015, vol. 2, pp. 239–245.
145. Tangcharoensathien V., Calleja N., Nguyen T., et al. Framework for managing the COVID-19 infodemic: Methods and results of an online, crowdsourced WHO technical consultation. *J Med Internet Res*, 2020, vol. 22 (6), e19659. DOI: 10.2196/19659
146. Anwar A., Malik M., Raees V. Role of mass media and public health communications in the COVID-19 pandemic. *Cureus*, 2020, vol. 14, no. 12(9): e10453. DOI: 10.7759/cureus.10453
147. Rathore F.A., Farooq F. Information overload and infodemic in the COVID-19 pandemic. *J Pak Med Assoc.*, 2020, no. 70 (5), pp. 162–165. DOI: 10.5455/JPMA.38
148. Tasnim S., Hossain M., Hoimonty Mazumder H. Impact of rumors and misinformation on COVID-19 in social media. *J Prev Med Public Health*, 2020, vol. 53 (3), pp. 171–174. DOI: 10.3961/jpmp.20.094
149. Shuja K.H., Aqeel M., Jaffar A., Ahmed A. COVID-19 pandemic and impending global mental health implications. *Psychiatr Danub*, 2020, vol. 32 (1), pp. 32–35. DOI: 10.24869/psyd.2020.32
150. Gao J., Zheng P., Jia Y., Chen H., et al. Mental health problems and social media exposure during COVID-19 outbreak. *PLoS One*, 2020, vol. 15 (4), e0231924. DOI: 10.1371/journal.pone.0231924
151. Sherman A.L. Coronavirus Anxiety Scale: A brief mental health screener for COVID-19 related anxiety. *Death Studies*, 2020, vol. 44 (7), pp. 1–9. DOI: 10.1080/07481187.2020.1748481
152. Holman E.A., Garfin D.R., Lubens P., Silver R.C. Media exposure to collective trauma, mental health, and functioning: Does it matter what you see? *Clinical Psychological Science*, 2020, vol. 8, pp. 111–124. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1177/2167702619858300>

153. Garfin D.R., Silver R.C., Holman E.A. The novel coronavirus (COVID-2019) outbreak: Amplification of public health consequences by media exposure. *Health Psychol*, 2020, vol. 39 (5), pp. 355–357. DOI:10.1037/hea0000875
154. Hawryluck L., Gold W.L., Robinson S., Pogorski S., Galea S., Styra R. SARS control and psychological effects of quarantine, Toronto, Canada. *Emerg Infect Dis*, 2004, vol. 10, pp. 1206–1212. DOI: 10.3201/eid1007.030703
155. McGinty E.E., Presskreischer R., Han H., Barry C.L. Psychological distress and loneliness reported by US adults in 2018 and April 2020. *JAMA*, 2020, vol. 324 (1), pp. 93–94.
156. Bebbington P.E., McManus S. Revisiting the one in four: The prevalence of psychiatric disorder in the population of England 2000–2014. *Br J Psychiatry*, 2020, vol. 216, pp. 55–57.
157. Marmot M. *Health Equity in England: The Marmot Review 10 Years On*. London: The Institute of Health Equity, 2020. 172 p.
158. McManus S., Bebbington P.E., Jenkins R., et al. Data resource profile: Adult Psychiatric Morbidity Survey (APMS). *Int J Epidemiol*, 2020, vol. 49 (62e), 361.
159. McManus S., Gunnell D., Cooper C., et al. Prevalence of non-suicidal self-harm and service contact in England, 2000–14: Repeated cross-sectional surveys of the general population. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 2019, vol. 6, pp. 573–581.
160. Fan F., Long K., Zhou Y., Zheng Y., Liu X. Longitudinal trajectories of post-traumatic stress disorder symptoms among adolescents after the Wenchuan earthquake in China. *Psychol Med*, 2015, vol. 45, pp. 2885–2896. DOI: 10.1017/S0033291715000884
161. Cheng S.K.-W., Wong C.W., Tsang J., Wong K.C. Psychological distress and negative appraisals in survivors of severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS). *Psychol Med*, 2004, vol. 34, pp. 1187–1195. DOI: 10.1017/S0033291704002272
162. Fegert J.M., Vitiello B., Plener P.L., Clemens V. Challenges and burden of the Coronavirus 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic for child and adolescent mental health: A narrative review to highlight clinical and research needs in the acute phase and the long return to normality. *Child Adolesc Psychiatry Ment Health*, 2020, vol. 14, no. 20. DOI: 10.1186/s13034-020-00329-3
163. Sprang G., Silman M. Posttraumatic stress disorder in parents and youth after health-related disasters. *Disaster Med Public Health Prep*, 2013, vol. 7, pp. 105–110.
164. Chang S.-S., Stuckler D., Yip P., Gunnell D. Impact of 2008 global economic crisis on suicide: Time trend study in 54 countries. *BMJ*, 2013, vol. 347, f5239.
165. Barr B., Taylor-Robinson D., Scott-Samuel A., et al. Suicides associated with the 2008–10 economic recession in England: Time trend analysis. *BMJ Br Med J*, 2012, vol. 345, e5142.

Information about the Author

Yuliya E. Shmatova – Candidate of Sciences (Economics), Researcher, Vologda Research Center of the Russian Academy of Sciences (56A, Gorky Street, Vologda, 160014, Russian Federation; e-mail: ueshmatova@mail.ru)

Received January 29, 2021.