COVID-19 pandemic related excessive electronic media exposure and mental health in Saudi Arabia

S. ALNOHAIR¹, N.K. SYED², H.G. AHMED³, F. SHARAF⁴, F. ALSHEHRI⁵, S. HAQUE^{6,7}, M.D. GRIFFITHS⁸

¹Department of Family and Community Medicine, College of Medicine, Oassim University, Buraydah, Saudi Arabia

²Pharmacy Practice Research Unit, Department of Clinical Pharmacy, College of Pharmacy, Jazan University, Saudi Arabia

³College of Medicine, University of Ha'il, Ha'il, Saudi Arabia

⁴Department of Family & Community Medicine, Islamic University, Palestine

⁵Department of Radiology, College of Medicine, Qassim University, Buraydah, Saudi Arabia

⁶Research and Scientific Studies Unit, College of Nursing & Allied Health Sciences, Jazan University, Jazan, Saudi Arabia

⁷Bursa Uludağ University, Faculty of Medicine, Nilüfer, Bursa, Turkey

⁸Psychology Department, Nottingham Trent University, 50 Shakespeare Street, Nottingham, Nottingham Trent University, UK

Abstract. – OBJECTIVE: Due to the continued spread of COVID-19 and the emergence of novel mutated viral variants, families all over the world are experiencing wide-ranging stressors that threaten not only their financial well-being but also their physical and mental health. The present study assessed the association between excessive electronic media exposure of pandemic-related news and mental health of the residents of Ha'il Province, Saudi Arabia. The present study also assessed the prevalence of perceived stress, fear of COVID-19, anxiety, depression, and loneliness due to COVID-19-related restrictions in the same population.

MATERIALS AND METHODS: A total of 490 residents of Ha'il Province participated in a cross-sectional online survey during a two-month period (March to April 2021). A validated 38-item self-report survey was used to collect the data.

RESULTS: Significant associations were reported between excessive electronic media exposure and the prevalence of perceived stress (χ^2 =140.56; *p*<.001), generalized anxiety (χ^2 =74.55; *p*<.001), depression (χ^2 =71.58; *p*<.001), COVID-19-related fear (χ^2 =24.54; *p*<.001), and loneliness (χ^2 =11.46; *p*<.001). It was also found that participants without depressive symptoms were 0.28 times less likely to have been exposed to excessive electronic media exposure (AOR: 0.28; C.I. 0.16-0.48; *p*<.001). Sim-

ilarly, participants with no stress/mild stress were 0.32 times less likely to have been exposed to excessive electronic media exposure (AOR: 0.32; C.I. 0.19-0.52; p<.001).

CONCLUSIONS: The findings of the present study suggest an urgent need for educational resilience programs (online and in-person) for susceptible individuals (females, unemployed, urban residents, etc.). Such programs would help them to develop skills to cope with the psychological impact of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Key Words:

COVID-19 restrictions, Pandemic-related news, Electronic media exposure, Perceived stress, Depression, Generalized anxiety.

Introduction

By the beginning of November 2021, more than 249 million individuals across the world had been diagnosed with coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) along with 5.05 million reported deaths. In Saudi Arabia (the location of the present study), over 548,000 diagnosed cases and approximately 8,800 deaths have been reported due to COVID-19¹. Individuals of all ages and characteristics have suffered due to the COVID-19

Corresponding Author: Shafiul Haque, Ph.D; e-mail: shafiul.haque@hotmail.com

pandemic^{2,3}. During the initial phases of the pandemic, many countries worldwide implemented measures of quarantining and spatial distancing as fundamental measures to control the spread of the disease⁴. Since then, many countries have either gone into second or third national lockdowns or are seriously thinking of re-implementing them, to control the recent upsurge in new cases.

Prolonged nationwide lockdowns not only cause physical suffering, but also have the potential to cause mass hysteria. They can also lead to elevated levels of anxiety and emotional distress among the population⁵⁻⁷. Social isolation, quarantine (self or enforced), and stringent measures of spatial distancing have been commonly seen during extended lockdowns. These measures coupled with constrained and limited social interaction can negatively impact individuals' emotional and psychological well-being^{3,8}. Financial hardships and unemployment, as well as closing of businesses seen during extensive worldwide outbreaks of infectious diseases like COVID-19 are known to be associated with emotional anguish and anxiety9. Numerous indices that are associated with the psychological well-being of the general population can potentially be impacted by the societal disconnect and seclusion that are generally associated with pandemics¹⁰.

Job loss, shutting down of businesses, and the economic fallout all associated with lengthened lockdowns can potentially lead to mental instability. These factors can also have a negative impact on the psychological well-being of the general population¹¹⁻¹³. Additionally, with the relative relaxing of the spatial distancing measures, the non-mandatory wearing of facemasks in public, and the permission of social gatherings, there have been instances where countries that had hurriedly eased off their COVID-19 preventive measures were hit by subsequent second (and in some cases third) waves¹⁴. Moreover, the recent emergence of numerous novel mutated viral variants (most notably the delta variant of concern)¹⁵ has increased concerns regarding their infectivity as well as virulence. It has also caused an extensive increase in new COVID-19 cases¹⁶.

In relation to studies carried out during the COVID-19 pandemic, a meta-analysis by Salari et al¹⁷ reported that the prevalence of (i) stress was 29.6% (N=9074; five studies), (ii) anxiety was 31.9% (N=63,439; 17 studies), and (iii) depression was 33.7% (N=44,531; 14 studies). In relation to prevalence of mental health disorder by country during the ongoing pandemic, studies have reported that the (i) rates of anxiety were 50.9% in Iran¹⁸, in China^{19,20} were in the range of 6.3%-44.6%, 33.2% in Japan²¹, 31% in Nepal²², 43% in India²³, 47.1% in Iraq²⁴, 21.6% in the United Kingdom (UK)²⁵, 32.4% in Spain²⁶, 49.6% in Nigeria²⁷, and 18.7% in Italy²⁸, 49.1% in Bangladesh²⁹; (ii) rates of depression were in the range of 17.2%-53.5% in China^{19,20}, 43.1% in Japan²¹, 34% in Nepal²², 38.9% in India²³, 44.9% in Iraq²⁴, 22.1% in the UK²⁵, 44.1% in Spain²⁶, 23.5% in Nigeria²⁷, and 32.8% in Italy²⁸; and (iii) rates of stress were 32.1% in China²⁰, 35.7% in India²³, 17.5% in Iraq²⁴, 37% in Spain²⁶, and 27.2% in Italy²⁷.

The COVID-19 pandemic can potentially worsen individuals' pre-existing poor mental health, social isolation, and loneliness³⁰. It can also be associated with elevated levels of anxiety, depression, and (in extreme cases) suicidal ideas⁸. Social seclusion has also been reported to be associated with suicidal ideas as well as suicidal attempts³¹. During COVID-19-related lockdown, the rates of reported loneliness have been high. A study³² conducted in the UK reported the prevalence of loneliness to be 27%. Another study³³, analyzed the predictors of loneliness before the COVID-19 pandemic (UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS) and during the COVID-19 pandemic (University College London [UCL] COVID-19 Social Study). This study showed loneliness levels to be higher during the pandemic. Before the pandemic, the UKHLS reported 28.6% of sample felt lonely sometimes and 8.5% felt lonely often during the pandemic. The UCL COVID-19 Social Study reported 32.5% of participants felt lonely sometimes and 18.3% felt lonely often.

A heightened perception of the risk of contracting the disease, lack of essential daily supplies, extreme financial suffering, job losses, and the fear of losing jobs have been common during the ongoing pandemic⁵⁻⁷. These stressors coupled with the sense of losing control in life can all get amplified by the misinformation, rumors, and false information present on the media during the COVID-19 pandemic⁵⁻⁷. A study conducted in Bangladesh²⁹ found that increased exposure to electronic media (internet) and social media (Facebook) during the pandemic were associated with increased anxiety. The fear of COVID-19 appears to be the most common central emotional response to the pandemic³⁴. Wide-ranging stressors are being experienced by families all over the world due to the recent worldwide upsurge of new cases of COVID-19. These stressors not only threaten their financial well-being but also their physical and mental health. The present study examined the association between excessive electronic media exposure (EME) of pandemic-related news and mental health of the residents in the Ha'il Province of Saudi Arabia. The present study also assessed the prevalence of perceived stress, fear of COVID-19, anxiety, depression, loneliness due to COVID-19-related restrictions in the same population.

Ha'il Province is the eighth largest Province amongst the 13 Provinces of Saudi Arabia, in terms of area and the ninth largest in terms of population. Most of the population in the province (around 77%) are Saudi nationals³⁵. The 2017 population characteristics survey found the population of Ha'il Province to be around 699,774 (approximately 2.19% of the total population of KSA)³⁶. According to projections by the United Nations, more than two-thirds of the population of Ha'il province resides in Ha'il city itself³⁷.

Materials and Methods

Study Design and Study Population

An online cross-sectional survey was used to collect the data. Google Forms was used to prepare and host the self-report survey. The anonymous online survey was then disseminated on various social media platforms (WhatsApp, Instagram, Twitter, Facebook, etc.) among male and female residents above 18 years of age living in Ha'il Province, Saudi Arabia.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Saudi male as well as female residents of Ha'il Province, above the age of 18 years, having a proper understanding of English (or) Arabic languages, willing to participate in the study, complete the survey, and provide informed consent were included in the study. Those residents not meeting the inclusion criteria were excluded from the present study.

Data Collection

A 38-item validated, self-report survey was used for data collection. The survey comprised six sections (Supplementary Material 1). Section one included 14 questions regarding the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents; section two comprised ten questions of the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS-10)³⁸; Section three comprised seven questions of the Fear of COVID-19 Scale (FCV-19S)³⁹; sections four and five comprised two questions each of the Generalized Anxiety Disorder Scale (GAD-2)⁴⁰ and Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-2)⁴¹ respectively; and section six comprised three questions of the University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA) Lone-liness Scale⁴².

Measures

Socio-demographic information

Participants in the present study reported their gender, town/city of current residence, age-group, exact-age, educational level, location of current residence, employment status, family income, marital status, living status, relative and/or family member and/or friend with COVID-19, type of electronic media used and the EME to pandemic-related news.

Perceived Stress Scale-10

The Perceived Stress Scale-10 (PSS-10)³⁸, is a 10-item instrument assessing various perceived stresses (e.g., *"How often have you been upset because of something that happened unexpect-edly?"*). The responses of the instrument were scored on a five-point scale from 0 (*Never*) to 4 (*Very often*), providing scores in the range of 0 to 40. Higher scores signify higher perceived stress³⁸. Scores of 0 to 12 indicate no stress, 13 to 17 indicate mild stress, 18 to 21 indicate moderate stress, and > 22 indicate severe stress⁴³. Internal consistency of PSS-10 in the present study was excellent (α =.93).

Fear of COVID-19 Scale

The Fear of COVID-19 Scale (FCV-19S)³⁹, is a seven-item instrument useful in assessing the fear of COVID-19 (e.g., *"It makes me uncomfortable to think about COVID-19"*). Responses of the instrument are scored on a five-point scale from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*) with scores in the range of 7 to 35. Higher scores indicate greater fear of COVID-19. A cut-off score of (\geq 16.5) has been used to differentiate extreme COVID-19-related fear and those with normal fear of COVID-19⁴⁴. Internal consistency of FCV-19S in the current sample was very good (α =.88).

Generalized Anxiety Disorder-2

The Generalized Anxiety Disorder-2 (GAD-2)⁴⁰, is a two-item instrument that assesses generalized anxiety disorder over the previous twoweeks (e.g., "Over the last 2 weeks how often were you bothered by the following problems: Feeling ner*vous, anxious, or on edge?*"). Responses of the instrument were scored on a four-point scale from 0 (*Not at all*) to 3 (*Nearly every day*) with total scores in the range of 0 to 6. Cut-off score of \geq 3, for GAD-2 scale has shown 83% specificity as well as 86% sensitivity in diagnosing generalized anxiety disorder⁴⁰. Internal consistency of GAD-2 in the present study was good ($\alpha = .79$).

Patient Health Questionnaire-2

The Patient Health Questionnaire-2 (PHQ-2)⁴¹, is a two-item instrument that assesses depression, and comprises the first two items of the nine-item Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9). It assesses the extent to which an individual experiences depressive mood as well as anhedonia over the previous two-week period (e.g., "Over the last 2 weeks how often were you bothered by the following problems: Little interest or pleasure in doing things?"). Responses of the instrument are scored a four-point scale with scores having a range 0 to 6. A cut-off score of \geq 3, can be used to diagnose depression⁴¹. Internal consistency of PHQ-2 in the present study was very good (α =.80).

Three-item UCLA Loneliness Scale

The three-item UCLA Loneliness Scale⁴², was used to assess loneliness (e.g., *"How often do you feel isolated from others?"*). Responses of the instrument are scored on a three-point scale from 1 (*Hardly ever*) to 3 (*Often*) with scores in the range of 3 to 9. Higher scores indicate greater loneliness. A score greater than 6 has been used in previous research as a cut-off score for loneliness⁴². Internal consistency of the three-item UCLA Loneliness Scale in the present study was good ($\alpha = .78$).

Survey instrument and pilot study

After a thorough and extensive literature review, the research team decided to use the PSS-10, FCV-19S, GAD-2, PHQ-2 and the three-item UCLA Loneliness Scale for assessing the psychological impact of COVID-19 restrictions amongst the current sample. Like Hossain et al²⁹, questions relating to the EME were also included in the survey to assess the association between excessive EME and mental health among the sample. As aforementioned, the final version of the survey comprised 38 questions spread across six sections. It was then translated into Arabic by making use of the forward-backward translation method⁴⁵. For assessing the ease of use and for determining the completion time, the survey was piloted amongst a focus group of 49 participants

based on previous studies⁴⁶⁻⁴⁸. An average completion time of approximately 10 minutes was observed and participants understood the questions with relative ease.

Data Collection

Data were collected using an anonymous online survey. Informed consent was taken by asking study participants to select 'Yes' for the mandatory question seeking their consent only after which they could progress to other sections of the survey. A 'No' response automatically ended the survey and this was deemed as a dropout. Failure to complete any section of the survey rendered the response incomplete, and any section having missing values was subsequently excluded from the analysis. Strict confidentiality of data was maintained. The participants were also informed that the data generated would be used only for scientific purpose. A response rate of 89.1% (490/550) was observed.

Sample size calculation

Raosoft sample size calculator was used for calculating the sample size. A sample size of 384 was calculated based on a 5% margin of error, 95% confidence interval, along with an approximate population size of 700,000, power (1- β) of 0.80and with a 50% response distribution^{49,50}. The Cochran's equation⁵¹, was used to reconfirm the calculated sample size.n₀ = $Z^2 pq/e^2$;n₀: sample size, Z^2 : corresponds to the desired confidence level, e.g., 95% (i.e., Z = 1.96), e - desired level of precision (e = 5% = 0.05), *p* - estimated proportion of an attribute that is present in the population(*p* = 0.5), and *q* = *1*-*p* (i.e., *q* = 1 - 0.5 = 0.5).

 $(1.96)^2 \ge 0.5 \ge 0.5 / (0.5)^2 = 3.84 \ge 0.25 / 0.0025 = 0.96 / 0.0025 = 384$

The sample size was further cross-checked and reconfirmed using Open Epi⁵²; having a population of 1,000,000; with a finite population correction factor, having a confidence limit of 5%, along with a design effect of 1, yielding a 384 sample size⁵³.

Ethics

Approval of the Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC), University of Ha'il, was taken prior to the start of the study. Reference number: EC-00119; approval number: HREC 00119/CM-UOH.04/20.

Statistical Analysis

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS-10 Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) version 23 was used to analyze the data. The demographics were expressed as frequencies, total percentages, means, and standard deviations. Cross-tabulations with Pearson's Chi-square was used to look for any statistically significant association between the variables. For variables with an expected cell count less than five, Fisher's exact test was used. Pearson's correlation was calculated to examine significant associations between continuous variables (scores of different scales). Multivariate logistic regression was used to assess any association between socio-economic characteristics and with EME as the outcome variable. Linear regression model was also used to assess any association between socio-economic characteristics and with stress as the outcome variable. Before any statistical analysis was carried out, the normality of data was confirmed by the Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests. The alpha level was set at 0.05 to determine statistical significance.

Results

Sample Characteristics

Table I shows the socio-economic characteristics of study participants. Over half of participants were female (n=284; 58%), while the rest were male (n=206; 42%). All participants were Saudi nationals (n=490; 100%) who resided in Ha'il city (n=371; 75.7%) or resided outside the city (n=119; 24.3%). The mean age of the sample was 34.81 years (SD \pm 13.01). Approximately two-fifths of participants were aged 18-27 years (38%), while only 8.8% were aged over 57 years. Approximately one-third had a Bachelor's degree (35.3%), while the percentage of those with Masters (23.3%) and Doctorates (8.8%) was lower. Approximately, one-third of participants (31.0%) had government jobs, while 22.7% were unemployed during the pandemic. More than three-quarters of participants (77.5%) earned less than 15,000 Saudi Riyals (SAR) per month at the time of the study (approximately \$4000[US] per month). Nearly half of participants were married (46.3%), while 39.6% were unmarried/single. Approximately, two-thirds of participants (64.5%) lived with their family or friends, while the rest lived alone (35.5%). The most popular form of electronic media used by participants was internet (51.6%), while radio was the least popular media

form (21.6%). Nearly half of participants (49%) spent more than three hours daily on electronic media seeking pandemic-related news (Table I).

Association Between Electronic Media Exposure of Pandemic-Related News and the Socio-Demographics of Participants

Table II shows the results of the cross-tabulations between EME to pandemic-related news (hours/day) and the participants' socio-economic characteristics. EME to pandemic-related news was significantly associated with being a female $(\chi^2=39.59; p<.001)$, belonging to the age group 18-47 years, having Masters or doctorate degree $(\chi^2=52.66; p < .001)$, being single/unmarried or divorced (χ^2 =54.46; *p*<.001), being unemployed or a student (χ^2 =78.23; p<.001). EME to pandemic-related news was also significantly associated living in an urban locality (χ^2 =60.43; p<.001), having a family income below 15,000 SAR/month $(\chi^2 = 85.76; p < .001)$, and using internet as a form of electronic media to seek pandemic-related news $(\chi^2 = 21.33; p < .001).$

Significant associations were reported between the EME to pandemic-related newsand the prevalence of generalized anxiety ($\chi^2=74.55$; p<.001), depression ($\chi^2=71.58$; p<.001), COVID-19-related fear ($\chi^2=24.54$; p<.001), and loneliness ($\chi^2=11.46$; p<.001) (Table III)

Association Between EME of Pandemic-Related News and the Mental Health of Participants

Table IV shows the results of multivariable binary logistic regression. It was found that participants without depressive symptoms were 0.28 times less likely to have been exposed to excessive EME(AOR: 0.28; 95% C.I. 0.16-0.48; p<.001). Similarly, participants with no stress/mild stress were 0.32 times less likely to have been exposed to excessive EME (AOR: 0.32; 95% C.I. 0.19-0.52; p<.001).

Association Between Socio-Demographics and the Mental Health of Participants

Table V shows the results of the cross-tabulations between the participants' socio-economic characteristics and the different categories of perceived stress. Perceived stress was significantly associated with having Masters or doctorate degree (χ^2 =204.87; p<.001), living in an urban locality (χ^2 =217.50; p<.001), being married or divorced (χ^2 =112.02; p<.001), living alone (χ^2 =45.88; p<.001). Perceived stress was also seen to be sig-

Variable	Options	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	206	42.0
	Female	284	58.0
Residence in Ha'il Province	In Ha'il city	371	75.7
	Around Ha'il city	119	24.3
Residence in Ha'il Province	5		
(Around Ha'il city)	Bagaa	35	7.1
	Ghazalah	30	6.1
	Shanan	12	2.4
	Sumairah	15	3.1
	Mawqaq	10	2.0
	Shamli	5	1.0
	Sulaimi	8	1.6
	Ha'it	4	0.8
Age group	18-27 years	186	38.0
100 Droup	28-37 years	118	24.1
	38-47 years	86	17.6
	48-57 years	57	11.6
	> 57 years	43	8.8
Maan aga (SD)		45	0.0
Mean age (SD)	34.81 years (± 13.01)	1(0	22.7
Educational level	High school	160	32.7
	Bachelors	173	35.3
	Masters	114	23.3
	Doctorate	43	8.8
Location	Rural	222	45.3
	Urban	268	54.7
Employment status	Student	90	18.4
	Unemployed	111	22.7
	Private/self-employed	137	28.0
	Government employee	152	31.0
Family income (in SAR per month)	< 5000	129	26.3
	5001-10000	153	31.2
	10001-15000	98	20.0
	> 15000	110	22.4
Marital status	Unmarried/single	194	39.6
	Married	227	46.3
	Divorced	69	14.1
Living status	Living with family/friends	316	64.5
	Living alone	174	35.5
Relative (and/or) family member (and/or)	Living alone	1/1	55.5
friend with COVID-19	No	421	85.9
	Yes	69	14.1
Type of electronic media	Radio	106	21.6
Type of electronic media	Television	131	26.7
	Internet	253	51.6
EME (hours/day) to pondomia related norm	< 1	253 169	34.5
EME (hours/day) to pandemic-related news	-		
	1 - 2	81	16.5
	3 - 4	122	24.9
	> 4	118	24.1

 Table I. Participant's socio-economic characteristics.

nificantly associated having a family member and/or friend with COVID-19 ($\chi^2=78.69$; p<.001), spending more than three hours per day on electronic media seeking pandemic-related news ($\chi^2=140.56$; p<.001), being female ($\chi^2=100.93$; p<.001), being a student or being unemployed ($\chi^2=142.63$; p<.001), and earning less than 15,000 SAR per month ($\chi^2=103.57$; p<.001).

Association Between Participants Different Mental Health Parameters (Depression, Anxiety, Loneliness, Perceived Stress and COVID-19-Related Fear

Significant associations were observed between prevalence of loneliness and generalized anxiety (χ^2 =34.93; *p*<.001), prevalence of loneliness and depression (χ^2 =79.76; *p*<.001), prevalence of lone-

liness and COVID-19-related fear (χ^2 =140.56; p<.001). Significant associations were also seen between the prevalence of COVID-19-related fear and generalized anxiety (χ^2 =65.19; p<.001), and the prevalence of COVID-19-related fear and depression (χ^2 =52.66; p<.001) (Table VI).

Significant positive associations were also found between PSS-10 score and GAD-2 score (r=.54; p<.001), PSS-10 Score and PHQ-2 score

(r=.57; p<.001), PSS-10 Score and FCV-19S score (r=.56; p<.001), PSS-10 Score and ULCA 3-item Loneliness score (r=.35; p<.001), ULCA 3-item Loneliness score and GAD-2 score (r=.24; p<.001). Similar significant positive associations were also seen between ULCA 3-item Loneliness score and PHQ-2 score (r=.41; p<.001), and the ULCA 3-item Loneliness score and FCV-19S score (r=.38; p<.001). These significant positive

Table II. Cross-tabulations electronic media exposure to pandemic-related news (hours/day) and participants' socio-economic characteristics.

					Free even ev		
Variable	< 1	1 - 2	3 - 4	> 4	Frequency (percentage)	<i>p</i> -value	χ²
Gender							
Female	66 (39.1%)	51 (63.0%)	88 (72.1%)	79 (66.9%)	284 (58.0%)	<i>p</i> <.001***	39.59
Male	103 (60.9%)	30 (37.0%)	34 (27.9%)	39 (33.1%)	206 (42.0%)	1	
Residence in Ha'il Prov	ince						
In Ha'il City	126 (74.6%)	63 (77.8%)	90 (73.8%)	92 (78.0%)	371 (75.7%)	0.83	0.89
Around Ha'il City	43 (25.4%)	18 (22.2%)	32 (26.2%)	26 (22.0%)	119 (24.3%)		
Age group							
18-27 years	82 (48.5%)	34 (42.0%)	35 (28.7%)	35 (29.7%)	186 (38.0%)	<i>p</i> <.001***	52.66
28-37 years	30 (17.8%)	21 (25.9%)	41 (33.6%)	26 (22.0%)	118 (24.1%)		
38-47 years	13 (7.7%)	8 (9.9%)	28 (23.0%)	37 (31.4%)	86 (17.6%)		
48-57 years	25 (14.8%)	13 (16.0%)	9 (7.4%)	10 (8.5%)	57 (11.6%)		
> 57 years	19 (11.2%)	5 (6.2%)	9 (7.4%)	10 (8.5%)	43 (8.8%)		
Marital status							
Unmarried/single	86 (50.9%)	36 (44.4%)	36 (29.5%)	36 (30.5%)	194 (39.6%)	<i>p</i> <.001***	54.46
Married	76 (45.0%)	43 (53.1%)	59 (48.4%)	49 (41.5%)	227 (46.3%)	1	
Divorced	7 (4.1%)	2 (2.5%)	27 (22.1%)	33 (28.0%)	69 (14.1%)		
Educational qualification	n						
High school	82 (48.5%)	24 (29.6%)	26 (21.3%)	28 (23.7%)	160 (32.7%)	<i>p</i> <.001***	67.59
Bachelors	51 (30.2%)	39 (48.1%)	58 (47.5%)	25 (21.2%)	173 (35.3%)		
Masters	27 (16.0%)	15 (18.5%)	25 (20.5%)	47 (39.8%)	114 (23.3%)		
Doctorate	9 (5.3%)	3 (3.7%)	13 (10.7%)	18 (15.3%)	43 (8.8%)		
Employment status							
Student	17 (10.1%)	9 (11.1%)	28 (23.0%)	36 (30.5%)	90 (18.4%)	<i>p</i> <.001***	78.23
Unemployed	20 (11.8%)	23 (28.4%)	29 (23.8%)	39 (33.1%)	111 (22.7%)	1	
Private/self employed	44 (26.0%)	28 (34.6%)	40 (32.8%)	25 (21.2%)	137 (28.0%)		
Government Employee	88 (52.1%)	21 (25.9%)	25 (20.5%)	18 (15.3%)	152 (31.0%)		
Location of current resi	dence						
Rural	116 (68.6%)	33 (40.7%)	33 (27.0%)	40 (33.9%)	222 (45.3%)	<i>p</i> <.001***	60.42
Urban	53 (31.4%)	48 (59.3%)	89 (73.0%)	78 (66.1%)	268 (54.7%)	[*]	
Family income							
< 5000	15 (8.9%)	12 (14.8%)	40 (32.8%)	62 (52.5%)	129 (26.3%)	<i>p</i> <.001***	85.76
5001-10000	59 (34.9%)	24 (29.6%)	43 (35.2%)	27 (22.9%)	153 (31.2%)	-	
10001-15000	44 (26.0%)	19 (23.5%)	23 (18.9%)	12 (10.2%)	98 (20.0%)		
> 15000	51 (30.2%)	26 (32.1%)	16 (13.1%)	17 (14.4%)	110 (22.4%)		
Type of electronic media	a used						
Internet	83 (49.1%)	40 (49.4%)	60 (49.2%)	70 (59.3%)	253 (51.6%)	(<i>p</i> <0.01**)	
Television	33 (19.5%)	28 (34.6%)	42 (34.4%)	28 (23.7%)	131 (26.7%)	0.002	21.33
Others	53 (31.4%)	13 (16.0%)	20 (16.4%)	20 (16.9%)	106 (21.6%)		
Oulers	35 (31.4%)	15 (10.0%)	20 (10.4%)	20 (10.9%)	100 (21.0%)		

Table III. Prevalence of generalized anxiety, depression, COVID-19-related fear, loneliness and electronic media exposure.

			Frequency		
Variable	No anxiety	Anxiety	(percentage)	<i>p</i> -value	χ²
<1 hour	134 (49.1%)	35 (16.1%)	169 (34.5%)	<i>p</i> <.001***	74.55
1-2 hours	50 (18.3%)	31 (14.3%)	81 (16.5%)	1	
3-4 hours	50 (18.3%)	72 (33.2%)	122 (24.9%)		
> 4 hours	39 (14.3%)	79 (36.4%)	118 (24.1%)		
EME of pande	mic-related news and preval	ence of depression			
	Minimal		Frequency		
Variable	depression	Depression	(percentage)	<i>p</i> -value	χ²
<1 hour	148 (42.8%)	21 (14.6%)	169 (34.5%)	<i>p</i> <.001***	71.58
1-2 hours	70 (20.2%)	11 (7.6%)	81 (16.5%)	1	
3-4 hours	72 (20.8%)	50 (34.7%)	122 (24.9%)		
	56 (16.2%)	62 (43.1%)	118 (24.1%)		
> 4 hours	50 (10.270)	02 (45.170)	110 (2 111/0)		
	mic-related news and preval				
				<i>p</i> -value	χ²
EME of pande	mic-related news and preval Normal COVID-19- related fear	ence of COVID-19-related Extreme COVID-19- related fear	fear Frequency (percentage)		
EME of pander Variable	mic-related news and preval Normal COVID-19- related fear 110 (44.5%)	ence of COVID-19-related Extreme COVID-19- related fear 59 (24.3%)	fear Frequency (percentage) 169 (34.5%)	<i>p</i> -value <i>p</i> <.001***	χ ² 24.54
EME of pander Variable <1 hour	mic-related news and preval Normal COVID-19- related fear	ence of COVID-19-related Extreme COVID-19- related fear 59 (24.3%) 41 (16.9%)	fear Frequency (percentage) 169 (34.5%) 81 (16.5%)		
EME of pander Variable <1 hour 1-2 hours	mic-related news and preval Normal COVID-19- related fear 110 (44.5%) 40 (16.2%)	ence of COVID-19-related Extreme COVID-19- related fear 59 (24.3%)	fear Frequency (percentage) 169 (34.5%)		
EME of pander Variable <1 hour 1-2 hours 3-4 hours > 4 hours	mic-related news and preval Normal COVID-19- related fear 110 (44.5%) 40 (16.2%) 47 (19.0%)	ence of COVID-19-related Extreme COVID-19- related fear 59 (24.3%) 41 (16.9%) 75 (30.9%) 68 (28.0%)	fear Frequency (percentage) 169 (34.5%) 81 (16.5%) 122 (24.9%)		
EME of pander Variable <1 hour 1-2 hours 3-4 hours > 4 hours	mic-related news and preval Normal COVID-19- related fear 110 (44.5%) 40 (16.2%) 47 (19.0%) 50 (20.2%)	ence of COVID-19-related Extreme COVID-19- related fear 59 (24.3%) 41 (16.9%) 75 (30.9%) 68 (28.0%)	fear Frequency (percentage) 169 (34.5%) 81 (16.5%) 122 (24.9%)		
EME of pander Variable <1 hour 1-2 hours 3-4 hours > 4 hours	mic-related news and preval Normal COVID-19- related fear 110 (44.5%) 40 (16.2%) 47 (19.0%) 50 (20.2%)	ence of COVID-19-related Extreme COVID-19- related fear 59 (24.3%) 41 (16.9%) 75 (30.9%) 68 (28.0%)	fear Frequency (percentage) 169 (34.5%) 81 (16.5%) 122 (24.9%) 118 (24.1%)		
EME of pander Variable <1 hour 1-2 hours 3-4 hours > 4 hours EME of pander	mic-related news and preval Normal COVID-19- related fear 110 (44.5%) 40 (16.2%) 47 (19.0%) 50 (20.2%) mic-related news and preval	ence of COVID-19-related Extreme COVID-19- related fear 59 (24.3%) 41 (16.9%) 75 (30.9%) 68 (28.0%) ence of loneliness	fear Frequency (percentage) 169 (34.5%) 81 (16.5%) 122 (24.9%) 118 (24.1%) Frequency	p<.001***	24.54 χ ²
EME of pander Variable <1 hour 1-2 hours 3-4 hours > 4 hours EME of pander Variable	mic-related news and preval Normal COVID-19- related fear 110 (44.5%) 40 (16.2%) 47 (19.0%) 50 (20.2%) mic-related news and preval Not lonely	ence of COVID-19-related Extreme COVID-19- related fear 59 (24.3%) 41 (16.9%) 75 (30.9%) 68 (28.0%) ence of loneliness Lonely	fear Frequency (percentage) 169 (34.5%) 81 (16.5%) 122 (24.9%) 118 (24.1%) Frequency (percentage)	<i>p</i> <.001*** <i>p</i> -value	24.54 χ ²
EME of pander Variable <1 hour 1-2 hours 3-4 hours > 4 hours EME of pander Variable <1 hour	mic-related news and preval Normal COVID-19- related fear 110 (44.5%) 40 (16.2%) 47 (19.0%) 50 (20.2%) mic-related news and preval Not lonely 122 (39.6%)	ence of COVID-19-related Extreme COVID-19- related fear 59 (24.3%) 41 (16.9%) 75 (30.9%) 68 (28.0%) ence of loneliness Lonely 47 (25.8%)	fear Frequency (percentage) 169 (34.5%) 81 (16.5%) 122 (24.9%) 118 (24.1%) Frequency (percentage) 169 (34.5%)	<i>p</i> <.001*** <i>p</i> -value	24.54 χ ²

EME of pandemic-related news and prevalence of generalized anxiety

associations showed that as scores on one variable increased so did the other.

The prevalence of perceived stress had a significant association with generalized anxiety ($\chi^2=162.45$; p<.001), depression ($\chi^2=166.24$; p<.001), loneliness ($\chi^2=60.84$; p<.001) and COVID-19-related fear ($\chi^2=113.88$; p<.001) (Table VII).

Table VIII shows the results of linear regression. The stress level among females was found to be 8.06 points more than their male counterparts (β : 8.06 CI 95%; 6.51-9.61; *p*<0.001). Participants with only a high school qualification were 9.69 points less likely to be stressed in comparison with those with education qualification of a bachelor's degree or higher (β : 9.69 CI 95%; 8.12-11.24; *p*<0.001). Unemployed participants were 9.30 points more likely to be stressed as compared with employed participants (β : 9.30 CI 95%; 7.80-

6948

10.80; p < 0.001). Participants residing in rural localities were 11.65 points less likely to be stressed than those residing in urban localities (β : 11.65 C.I 95%; 10.31-12.98; p < 0.001). Participants who spent less time per day on electronic media seeking pandemic-related news were less likely to be stressed than those spending more time every day on electronic media (β : 4.10 CI 95%; 3.49-4.70; p < 0.001).

Discussion

The findings of the present study are consistent with Hossain et al²⁹ who reported that an increased exposure to electronic (internet) media during the pandemic was associated with increased anxiety. The present study also found sig-

Table IV. Odds of EME associated with prevalence of COVID-19-related fear, depression, anxiety, loneliness, and perceived
stress.

Determinants	Adjusted odds ratio (AOR)	95% C.I. Lower	Upper	<i>p</i> -value
<i>Prevalence of COVID-19-related fear</i> Normal COVID-19-related fear Extreme COVID-19-related fear	1.04	0.65	1.65	0.88 <i>Ref</i>
<i>Prevalence of depression</i> No depression Depression	0.28 Ref	0.16	0.48	p<.001
<i>Prevalence of generalized anxiety</i> No anxiety Anxiety	0.42 Ref	0.27	0.66	<i>p</i> <.001
<i>Prevalence of loneliness</i> Not lonely Lonely	1.66 Ref	1.01	2.72	0.05
<i>Prevalence of perceived stress</i> No stress/mild stress Moderate stress/severe stress	0.32	0.19	0.52	p<.001 Ref

C.I: Confidence Interval; Fear categories, prevalence of depression, prevalence of anxiety, prevalence of loneliness, binary categories of perceived stress and EME as outcome variable.

nificant associations between excessive EME and the prevalence of generalized anxiety, perceived stress, depression, COVID-19-related fear, and loneliness. It was also found that more than half of participants with severe stress (54.7%) had an educational qualification of either a Master's degree or a doctorate. A high percentage of participants with no stress (84.3%) only had a Bachelor's degree or a high school certificate. Given that more educated individuals tend to spend more time on electronic media keeping themselves up-to-date with the latest worldwide news, their over-exposure to pandemic-related news may have possibly contributed to their increased levels of stress.

These findings are in contrast with Kowal et al⁵⁴ who reported increased levels of stress amongparticipants having lower education. The present study also found that 86.6% of participants with severe stress resided in urban localities, while a similarly high percentage of participants with no stress (87.9%) were residents of rural localities. Due to the conservative lifestyle of the residents of rural localities in Muslim and Arab countries, they are likely to have decreased exposure to electronic media and consequently have less exposure to misinformation, false/fake news, and rumours related to the pandemic.This could be a reason for their decreased levels of stress. Recently published COVID-19 response plan by UNHabitat⁵⁵ also emphasized the urban-centric character of the current pandemic. It was reported that the ongoing pandemic has affected in excess of 1430 cities worldwide across 210 countries. Moreover, more than 95% of the total cases are located in urban areas^{55,56}.

A very high percentage of the sample (77.5%) in the present studyearned less than 15,000 SAR per month (approximately \$4000[US]) during the pandemic. Similar findings were also reported in two other Saudi Arabian studies conducted by Al Yami et al^{57,58} who also reported very similar percentages. More specifically, 73.2% and 77.4% of their studied samples earned less than 16,000 SAR per month (approximately \$4266[US]) during the pandemic. Relatively modest earnings during the pandemic might be one of the possible factors to have contributed to their increased psychological distress.

Kowal et al⁵⁴, reported elevated stress among participants who were single during the pandemic. The present study also showed that participants who were living on their own, unmarried/ single orwere divorced during the pandemic had increased stress than those in a relationship. A significant association was also observed in the present study between the participant's gender and

Variable	No stress	Mild stress	Moderate stress	Severe stress	Frequency (percentage)	<i>p</i> -value	χ²
Gender							
Female	47 (28.5%)	40 (55.6%)	43 (72.9%)	154 (79.4%)	284 (58.0%)	<i>p</i> <.001***	100.93
Male	118 (71.5%)	32 (44.4%)	16 (27.1%)	40 (20.6%)	206 (42.0%)	•	
Residence in Ha'il Pr	ovince						
In Ha'il City	121 (73.3%)	55 (76.4%)	43 (72.9%)	152 (78.4%)	371(75.7%)		
Around Ha'il City	44 (26.7%)	17 (23.6%)	16 (27.1%)	42 (21.6%)	119 (24.3%)	.68	1.51
Age group	05(57(0/))	20(40.20/)	19 (20 50/)	44 (22 70/)	19((29,00/)		
18–27 years	95 (57.6%)	29 (40.3%)	18 (30.5%)	44 (22.7%)	186 (38.0%)	< 0.01***	115 17
28–37 years	13 (7.9%)	19 (26.4%)	16 (27.1%)	70 (36.1%)	118 (24.1%)	<i>p</i> <.001***	115.17
38–47 years	10 (6.1%)	7 (9.7%)	8 (13.6%)	61 (31.4%)	86 (17.6%)		
48–57 years	26 (15.8%)	10 (13.9%)	9 (15.3%)	12 (6.2%)	57 (11.6%)		
> 57 years	21 (12.7%)	7 (9.7%)	8 (13.6%)	7 (3.6%)	43 (8.8%)		
Educational level							
High school	113 (68.5%)	24 (33.3%)	7 (11.9%)	16 (8.2%)	160 (32.7%)		
Bachelors	26 (15.8%)	36 (50.0%)	39 (66.1%)	72 (37.1%)	173 (35.3%)	$p < .001^{***}$	204.87
Masters	23 (13.9%)	11 (15.3%)	10 (16.9%)	70 (36.1%)	114 (23.3%)	P	201.07
Doctorate	3 (1.8%)	1 (1.4%)	3 (5.1%)	36 (18.6%)	43 (8.8%)		
Employment status							
Student	14 (8.5%)	6 (8.3%)	8 (13.6%)	62 (32.0%)	90 (18.4%)		
Unemployed	18 (10.9%)	9 (12.5%)	14 (23.7%)	70(36.1%)	111 (22.7%)	$p < .001^{***}$	142.63
Private/self-employed	42 (25.5%)	23 (31.9%)	27 (45.8%)	45 (23.2%)	137 (28.0%)	•	
Government employee		34 (47.2%)	10 (16.9%)	17 (8.8%)	152 (31.0%)		
T							
Location of current ro Rural	145 (87.9%)	39 (54.2%)	12 (20.3%)	26 (13.4%)	222 (45.3%)	<i>p</i> <.001***	217.50
Urban	20 (12.1%)	33 (45.8%)	47 (79.7%)	168 (86.6%)	268 (54.7%)	<i>p</i> <.001	217.30
		×.					
Monthly income (in S < 5000			15 (25 40/)	00(46.49/)	120 (26 20/)		
	16 (9.7%)	8 (11.1%)	15 (25.4%)	90 (46.4%)	129 (26.3%)	. 001***	100.55
5001-10000	45 (27.3%)	25 (34.7%)	26 (44.1%)	57 (29.4%)	153 (31.2%)	$p < .001^{***}$	103.57
10001-15000	40 (24.2%)	17 (23.6%)	13 (22.0%)	28 (14.4%)	98 (20.0%)		
> 15000	64 (38.8%)	22 (30.6%)	5 (8.5%)	19 (9.8%)	110 (22.4%)		
Marital status							
Unmarried/ single	102 (61.8%)	32 (44.4%)	18 (30.5%)	42 (21.6%)	194 (39.6%)		
Married	60 (36.4%)	36 (50.0%)	39 (66.1%)	92 (47.4%)	227 (46.3%)	<i>p</i> <.001***	112.02
Divorced	3 (1.8%)	4 (5.6%)	2 (3.4%)	60 (30.9%)	69 (14.1%)	P	112.02
Living status							
Living with family							
(or) friends	134 (81.2%)	50 (69.4%)	40 (67.8%)	92 (47.4%)	316 (64.5%)	<i>p</i> <.001***	45.88
Living alone	31 (18.8%)	22 (30.6%)	19 (32.2%)	102 (52.6%)	174 (35.5%)	r	
Relative/family memb	per/friend with	COVID-19					
No	162 (98.2%)	67 (93.1%)	51 (86.4%)	125 (64.4%)	405 (82.7%)	$p < .001^{***}$	78.69
Yes	3 (1.8%)	5 (6.9%)	8 (13.6%)	69 (35.6%)	85 (17.3%)	*	
Type of electronic me	dia used						
Internet	90 (54.5%)	24 (33.3%)	20 (33.9%)	119 (61.3%)	253 (51.6%)		
	19 (11.5%)	28 (38.9%)	34 (57.6%)	50 (25.8%)	131 (26.7%)	<i>p</i> <.001***	75.87
Television		20 (27.8%)	5 (8.5%)	25 (12.9%)	106 (21.6%)	P	, 5.07
	56 (33.9%)						
Radio							
Radio EME (hoursper day)	of pandemic-re	elated news	15 (25.4%)	24 (12.4%)	169 (34.5%)		
Radio EME (hoursper day) < 1	of pandemic-re 105 (63.6%)	elated news 25 (34.7%)	15 (25.4%) 16 (27.1%)	24 (12.4%) 25 (12.9%)	169 (34.5%) 81 (16 5%)	n< 001***	140 54
Television Radio EME (hoursper day) < 1 1 - 2 3 - 4	of pandemic-re	elated news	15 (25.4%) 16 (27.1%) 16 (27.1%)	24 (12.4%) 25 (12.9%) 69 (35.6%)	169 (34.5%) 81 (16.5%) 122 (24.9%)	<i>p</i> <.001***	140.56

Table V. Cross-tabulations - Participants' socio-economic characteristics and perceived stress categories.

Table VI. Prevalence of generalized anxiety, depression, COVID-19-related fear, and loneliness.

Variable	No anxiety	Anxiety	Frequency (percentage)	<i>p</i> -value	χ²
Not lonely Lonely	203 (74.4%) 70 (25.6%)	105 (48.4%) 112 (51.6%)	308 (62.9%) 182 (37.1%)	<i>p</i> <.001***	34.93
Prevalence of loneliness an	d depression				
Variable	Minimal depression	Depression	Frequency (percentage)	<i>p</i> -value	χ²
Not lonely Lonely	261 (75.4%) 85 (24.6%)	47 (32.6%) 97 (67.4%)	308 (62.9%) 182 (37.1%)	<i>p</i> <.001***	79.76
Prevalence of loneliness an	d COVID-19-related fear				
Variable	Normal COVID-19- related fear	Extreme COVID-19- related fear	Frequency (percentage)	<i>p</i> -value	χ²
Not lonely Lonely	204 (82.6%) 43 (17.4%)	104 (42.8%) 139 (57.2%)	308 (62.9%) 182 (37.1%)	<i>p</i> <.001***	140.56
Prevalence of generalized a	unxiety and COVID-19-re	elated fear			
Variable	No anxiety	Anxiety	Frequency (percentage)	<i>p</i> -value	χ²
Normal COVID-19-related fear Extreme	182 (66.7%)	65 (30.0%)	247 (50.4%)	<i>p</i> <.001***	65.19
COVID-19-related fear	91 (33.3%)	152 (60.0%)	243 (49.6%)		
Prevalence of depression a	nd COVID-19-related fea	r			
Variable	Minimal Depression	Depression	Frequency (percentage)	<i>p</i> -value	χ²
Normal COVID-19-related fear Extreme	211 (61.0%)	36 (25.0%)	247 (50.4%)	<i>p</i> <.001***	52.66
COVID-19-related fear	135 (39.0)	108 (75.0)	243 (49.6)		

perceived stress. These findings concur with Qiu et al⁵⁹ who observed that during the COVID-19 pandemic females reported more psychosocial distress in comparison with males. Kowal et al⁵⁴ also reported elevated levels of stress among females during the ongoing pandemic. The so-cio-cultural as well as biological factors associated with gender might play a role in mediating this association⁶⁰. For example, hormonal fluctuations appear to have a major impact on the course of panic disorders among females. More specifically, the decrease in the levels of estrogen, as well as progesterone, characteristic of the mid-luteal phase of menstrual cycle has shown to be associ-

ated with the appearance or worsening of symptoms related to anxiety and panic disorder⁶¹. The female predominance in anxiety disorders could also be due to the genetically and/or biologically determined differentiation⁶².

Two-fifths of participants in the present study reported severe stress (39.6%). Similar high levels of stress during the pandemic (27.2%) were also reported in an Italian study²⁸. In the present study, participants with severe stress were predominantly female (79.9%), aged 18-47 years (90.2%), and just over one-third had a relative and/or family member and/or friend who had contracted COVID-19 (36.5%). These findings are relatively similar to

Variable	No stress	Mild stress	Moderate stress	Severe stress	Frequency (percentage)	<i>p</i> -value χ²
No anxiety Anxiety	143 (86.7%) 22 (13.3%)	56 (77.8%) 16 (22.2%)	29 (49.2%) 30 (50.8%)	45 (23.2%) 149 (76.8%)	273 (55.7%) 217 (44.3%)	<i>p</i> <.001*** 162.45
Prevalence of d	epression and pro	evalence of perce	eived stress			
Minimal	158 (95.8%)	61 (84.7%)	53 (89.8%)	74 (38.1%)	346 (70.6%)	<i>p</i> <.001*** 166.24
depression Depression	7 (4.2%)	11 (15.3%)	6 (10.2%)	120 (61.9%)	144 (29.4%)	
Prevalence of lo	oneliness and prev	valence of percei	ived stress			
Not lonely Lonely	135 (81.8%) 30 (18.2%)	49 (68.1%) 23 (31.9%)	41 (69.5%) 18 (30.5%)	83 (42.8%) 111 (57.2%)	308 (62.9%) 182 (37.1%)	<i>p</i> <.001*** 60.84
Prevalence of C	OVID-19-related	l fear and preval	lence of perceive	d stress		
Normal COVID-19- related fear	129 (78.2%)	44 (61.1%)	30 (50.8%)	44 (22.7%)	247 (50.4%)	<i>p</i> <.001*** 113.88
Extreme COVID-19- related fear	36 (20.6%)	28 (38.9%)	29 (49.2%)	150 (77.3%)	243 (49.6%)	

Table VII. Prevalence of perceived stress; generalized anxiety, depression, loneliness, and COVID-19-related fear.

 Prevalence of generalized anxiety and prevalence of perceived stress.

 Table VIII.
 Linear regression between the perceived stress score and selected sample characteristics.

		95	% CI	
Determinant	β	Lower	Upper	<i>p</i> -value
Gender				
Gender Female	8.06	6.51	9.61	< 0.001
Male				Ref
Age Age (years)	0.10	0.03	0.16	0.003
Education level Bachelors or higher High school	9.69	8.12	11.27	<0.001 Ref
Employment status Unemployed Employee (private/government)	9.30	7.80	10.80	<0.001 Ref
Location of current residence Urban Rural	11.65	10.31	12.98	<0.001 Ref
Time spent on electronic media (hours per day) Time (hrs)	4.10	3.49	4.70	<0.001

Note: CI = Confidence Interval. The variables included in the linear regression were continuous variables (PSS-10 scale score, age, time spent on electronic media) and dichotomous variable (gender, education level, employment status and location).

Moghanibashi-Mansourieh¹⁸ who also found anxiety to be more common amongthose aged 21-40 years, among females, and among those who had a family member and/or friend who had contracted COVID-19. Given that the present study also found a significant association between perceived stress and anxiety, these variables might also have an effect on increasing the prevalence of stress among the participants. Qui et al⁵⁹ also reported high psychosocial stress amongst young people during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Three-quarters of participants with severe stress in the present study (76.8%) also reported generalized anxiety. More than half of participants with severe stress (57.2%), generalized anxiety (51.6%), and depression (67.4%) were also found to be lonely. Extreme COVID-19-related fear was significantly associated with perceived stress, generalized anxiety, depression, and loneliness. Additionally, a significant association was also reported by Bauerle et al⁶³ between the level of information attained with regards to COVID-19 and COVID-19-related fear. These findings concur with Alyami et al58 who conducted a path analysis to examine the effects of COVID-19-related fear on mental well-being and quality of life. They suggested that participants having elevated fear of COVID-19 probably experienced symptoms related to anxiety and/or depression.

The sense of ambiguity and feeling of uncertainty associated with infectious disease outbreaks like the COVID-19 pandemic greatly diminish rational thinking and are likely to cause psychological distress as well as mental health illnesses⁶⁴⁻⁶⁶. Social isolation, societal disconnect, and the financial hardship are all commonly associated with pandemics, and can create a sense of insecurity thereby inducing psychological distress, including fear, grief, tedium, anger, irritation, annoyance, vulnerability, seclusion, and loneliness^{2,8,58,64-68}. The present study, also found loneliness to be associated with elevated stress.

Misinformation concerning the COVID-19 pandemic appears to have become widespread⁶⁹. Even though some of this misinformation and fake news might not be harmful but, some falsehoods might lead some individuals to engage in behaviors that do not protect them against the virus⁷⁰. Most of the time, pandemic-related news can be frustrating and disappointing, as well as containing rumors and/or falsehoods¹⁸. This may increase the levels of anxiety among individuals getting exposed to regular and constant COVID-19 pandemic-related news¹⁸. The spread

of misinformation may not only mask healthy behaviors but also encourages erroneous practices which increase the spread of the disease (resulting in poor physical and/or mental health amongst individuals). Countless incidents of misfortune as a consequence of these rumors have been reported worldwide⁷¹. The findings of the present study also showed a significant association between excessive EME and the prevalence of stress, generalized anxiety, and depression. Another study⁷² conducted during the pandemic found constant exposure to pandemic-related news to be one of the most common risk factors associated with mental distress. Extensive COVID-19-related misinformation also has the potential to lead to xenophobia73-75.

Zhu et al⁷⁶ reported that during the COVID-19 pandemic, individuals living in collectivistic societies (e.g., India, China, etc.) were found to be increasingly supportive of the preventive measures put in place by their respective governments to control the spread of the diseases as compared with residents of individualistic societies (e.g., USA, UK, etc.)⁷⁶. Saudi Arabia is a traditional, conservative and a collectivistic society. The low mortality rate of Saudi Arabia bears witness to the widespread popularity, acceptance, and adherence to the preventive measures implemented by the Saudi Ministry of Health to prevent the spread of COVID-1977. It was observed by Shuwiekh et al⁷⁸ while examining the differential mental health impact of COVID-19 in Arab countries, that countries like Saudi Arabia with low population density showed lower negative mental health impacts as compared to other Arab countries, such as Egypt with higher population density⁷⁸.

To help overcome some of the public health issues in KSA, special care and attention (such as identifying and normalizing the stressors, providing psychological support, providing interventions to address mental health issues, sleep deprivation, facilitating contact with agencies to overcome the financial fallout, providing increased access to tools of communication with relatives, etc.)78 to those (i) in guarantine and isolation centers, (ii) who are financially vulnerable, and (iii) who have known histories of mental health issues and/ or addiction issues, in order to assist them in controlling their fears, as well as anxiety during the pandemic period³. The employment of social learning techniques for creative and effective communication (via social, electronic, and print media by making use of sports personalities and celebrities) is needed to highlight and encourage adherence to governmental regulations as well as encourage the general population to participate in activities of community cooperation focusing on helping those in need⁷⁶.

To tackle the unprecedented public health issues arising as a consequence of COVID-19 pandemic in the kingdom, the Saudi Data and Artificial Intelligence Authority (SDAIA), in cooperation with Saudi Ministry of Health (MoH), have introduced various initiatives and developed several mobile applications including Alanzi⁷⁹ to create public health awareness, obtain movement permits during hours of curfew, enable contact tracing, book appointments, and provide online consultations. There is also *Da'em*, a round-theclock confidential online wellness program providing psychological support to healthcare workers across Saudi Arabia⁷⁷.

The current unprecendented situation warrants an unequivocal need for electornic media providers to play a more positive role. Suggestive measures include: (i) fact-checking of information before it is broadcasted, and preventing the spread of misinformation, false-information, rumors, etc.⁸⁰; (ii) broadcasting apolitical, unbiased messages with accurate information to boost the morale of the general public⁸¹; (iii) airing special transmissions of well known psychiatrists, psychologists and other healthcare professionals to advise, instruct, and help vulnerable individuals in coping with the psychological impact of the ongoing pandemic⁸²; (iv) informing the general public about the mental health issues arising from the ongoing pandemic and ways of improving mental wellness⁸³; (v) employing grief counselors and other patients who have recovered to console families who have lost their relatives to the pandemic and help them in coping with their recent loss; (vi) invitingcelebrities, sports personalities, well known politicians, and social media influencers to spread a message of unity, togetherness, and optimism to motivate and to help reduce the panic and anxiety among the general public⁸⁰; and (vii) airing special broadcasts concentrating on the physical and mental well-being of the children, highlighting ways of overcoming boredom and improving their physical condition⁸⁰. Srivastava et al⁸⁴ also advocated the need of the mass media to be careful and responsive when reporting mental health issues, as well as cautious reporting of suicide without sensationalizing^{13,84}.

Moreover, in Arab countries, religious values, social and cultural norms play an important role in shaping the presentation of psychological distress⁸⁵. General awareness towards mental illnesses is poor. Stigma and negative misplaced perceptions⁸⁶ are commonly associated with mental illnesses⁸⁷. Members of the general public are reluctant and hesitant in acknowledging mental health issues and seeking help⁸⁸. Because of the cultural and geographical sensitivities associated with mental health issues in the Arab countries, there is an urgent need to educate the general population for the need to acknowledge and accept any mental health issues that may have risen due to the ongoing pandemic and to seek professional help in overcoming them.

To the best of the authors' knowledge, the present study is the first in Saudi Arabia to examine the association between excessive EME of pandemic-related news and the prevalence of stress, generalized anxiety, depression, COVID-19-related fear, and loneliness. Furthermore, the present study is the first in Saudi Arabia to propose suggestive measures on how the electronic media can play a significant and a positive role in helping the vulnerable cope with the psychological impact of the ongoing pandemic.

However, the present study is not without its limitations. For instance, the cross-sectional design did not make it possible to assess the causality between the variables. Due to COVID restrictions, an online survey was the only possible safe method of data collection. Moreover, the invitation link was distributed on social media, and older people without internet access or without the knowledge of social media, or not knowing how to use Google Forms, might not have been able to participate. Additionally, the study was conducted only in one single Province of Saudi Arabia (i.e., Ha'il) and all participants were Saudi. Therefore, the results cannot necessarily be generalized to other parts of the country and the Saudi participants may not have been representative due to the convenience sampling. Finally, the study utilized a self-report survey, andthere is the possibility of recall bias. The snowball convenience sampling technique may also have led to selection bias.

Conclusions

The findings of the present study suggest that some individuals (females, participants with higher educational qualification, unemployed, those residing in urban areas, and those with excessive EME may be an increased risk of experiencing elevated stress during the COVID-19 pandemic. As elevated stress had a positive association with generalized anxiety and depression, there is an urgent need for educational resilience programs (online, if they cannot be carried out in-person) for these susceptible individuals to help them to develop skills to help cope with the psychological impact of the COVID-19 pandemic. Electronic media can also play a positive role by airing dedicated transmissions of well known psychiatrists and psychologists to help vulnerable individuals cope with the psychological impact of the ongoing pandemic.

Acknowledgments

N.K.S., would like to dedicate this manuscript to his beloved and most dearest father late Mr. Alhaj Syed Maqbool who recently passed away. N.K.S., would also like to express his most heartfelt appreciation and gratitude to Dr. Zia Nadeem (Consultant Psychiatrist St John's Hospital, Livingston, Scotland) for his constant and apt advice in designing (appropriate selection of instruments) and conducting the study. N.K.S., also expresses his sincere gratefulness to Dr. Pallela Ravishanker, Dr. Zamri Chik, Prof. David Banji and Prof. Otilia Banji for their invaluable input for this study. The authors would also like to thank participants for taking time out of their busy schedule to participate in the study. S.H. is grateful to Jazan University, Saudi Arabia for providing the access to the Saudi Digital Library for this research work. The researchers would like to thank the Deanship of Scientific Research, Qassim University, Saudi Arabia for funding the publication charges of this manuscript. .

Author Contributions

S.A., N.K.S., H.A., F.S., F.A., S.H., M.D.G., conceptualization, methodology, investigation, formal analysis, writing-original draft preparation; S.A., N.K.S., H.A., F.S., F.A., S.H., M.D.G., methodology, investigation, formal analysis, validation; S.A., N.K.S., H.A., F.S., F.A., S.H., M.D.G., investigation, formal analysis, S.A., N.K.S., H.A., F.S., F.A., S.H., M.D.G., formal analysis, data curation; S.A., N.K.S., H.A., F.S., F.A., S.H., M.D.G., investigation, formal analysis; S.A., N.K.S., H.A., F.S., F.A., S.H., M.D.G., investigation, formal analysis, data curation; S.A., N.K.S., H.A., F.S., F.A., S.H., M.D.G., investigation, formal analysis; S.A., N.K.S., H.A., F.S., F.A., S.H., M.D.G., supervision, project administration, writing-review and editing. All authors have reviewed and agreed to the final version of the manuscript.

Funding

No financial support was available for this study.

Institutional Review Board Statement

The study was conducted according to the guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki, and approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC), University of Ha'il, reference number: EC-00119; approval number: HREC 00119/CM-UOH.04/20.

Informed Consent Statement

Informed consent was obtained from all subjects involved in the study.

Data Availability Statement

Access to study data can be provided by the first author (Dr. Sultan AlNohair) upon reasonable request.

Conflict of interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interests.

References

- Worldometer. Coronavirus cases. Available online: https://www.worldometers.info/coronavirus/.(accessed 05 November 2021)
- Mamun MA, Griffiths MD. First COVID-19 suicide case in Bangladesh due to fear of COVID-19 and xenophobia: Possible suicide prevention strategies. Asian J Psychiatr 2020; 51: 102073.
- Syed NK, Griffiths MD. Nationwide suicides due to alcohol withdrawal symptoms during COVID-19 pandemic: A review of cases from media reports. J Psychiatr Res 2020; 30: 289-291.
- Rubin GJ, Wessely S. The psychological effects of quarantining a city. BMJ 2020; 368: m313.
- Maunder R, Hunter J, Vincent L, Bennett J, Peladeau N, Leszcz M, Sadavoy J, Verhaeghe LM, Steinberg R, Mazzulli T. The immediate psychological and occupational impact of the 2003 SARS outbreak in a teaching hospital. CMAJ 2003; 168: 1245-1251.
- Hawryluck L, Gold WL, Robinson S, Pogorski S, Galea S, Styra R. SARS control and psychological effects of quarantine, Toronto, Canada. Emerg Infect Dis 2004; 10: 1206-1212.
- Brooks SK, Webster RK, Smith LE, Woodland L, Wessely S, Greenberg N, Rubin GJ. The psychological impact of quarantine and how to reduce it: rapid review of the evidence. The Lancet 2020; 395: 912-920.
- Dsouza DD, Quadros S, Hyderabadwala ZJ, Mamun MA. Aggregated COVID-19 suicide incidences in India: Fear of COVID-19 infection is the prominent causative factor. Psychiatry Res 2020; 290: 113145.
- Montemurro N. The emotional impact of CO-VID-19: From medical staff to common people. Brain Behav Immun 2020; 87: 23-24.
- Satici B, Saricali M, Satici SA, Griffiths MD. Intolerance of uncertainty and mental wellbeing: Serial mediation by rumination and fear of COVID-19. Int J Ment Health Addict 2020; 1-12. Advance online publication.
- Oyesanya M, Lopez-Morinigo J, Dutta R. Systematic review of suicide in economic recession. World J Psychiatr 2015; 5: 243-254.
- Rafi MA, Mamun MA, Hsan K, Hossain M, Gozal D. Psychological implications of unemployment

among Bangladesh civil service job seekers: A pilot study. Front Psychiatry 2019; 10: 578.

- Mamun MA, Syed NK, Griffiths MD. Indian celebrity suicides before and during the COVID-19 pandemic and their associated risk factors: Evidence from media reports. J Psychiatr Res 2020; 131: 177-179.
- 14) Han E, Tan MMJ, Turk E, Sridhar D, Leung GM, Shibuya K, Asgari N, Oh J, García-Basteiro AL, Hanefeld J, Cook AR, Hsu LY, Teo YY, Heymann D, Clark H, McKee M, Legido-Quigley H. Lessons learnt from easing COVID-19 restrictions: an analysis of countries and regions in Asia Pacific and Europe. Lancet 2020; 396: 1525-1534.
- 15) Shah SA, Moore E, Robertson C, McMenamin J, Katikireddi SV, Simpson CR, Shi T, Agrawal U, McCowan C, Stock S, Ritchie LD. Predicted COVID-19 positive cases, hospitalisations, and deaths associated with the Delta variant of concern, June-July, 2021. Lancet Digit Health2021; 3: e539-e541.
- Lauring AS, Hodcroft EB. Genetic variants of SARS-CoV-2-What do they mean? JAMA2021; 325: 529-531.
- 17) Salari N, Hosseinian-Far A, Jalali R, Vaisi-Raygani A, Rasoulpoor S, Mohammadi M, Rasoulpoor S, Khaledi-Paveh B. Prevalence of stress, anxiety, depression among the general population during the COVID-19 pandemic: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Global Health 2020; 16: 57.
- Moghanibashi-Mansourieh A. Assessing the anxiety level of Iranian general population during COVID-19 outbreak. Asian J Psychiatr 2020; 51: 102076.
- 19) 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 (CO-VID-19) in some regions of China. Psychol Health Med 2021; 26: 13-22.
- 20) Liu D, Ren Y, Yan F, Li Y, Xu X, Yu X, Qu W, Wang Z, Tian B, Yang F. Psychological impact and predisposing factors of the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic on general public in China (preprint). SSRN 2020.
- 21) Ueda M, Stickley A, Sueki H, Matsubayashi T. Mental health status of the general population during the COVID-19 pandemic: A cross-sectional national survey in Japan (preprint). MedRxiv 2020; 1-11.
- 22) Sigdel A, Bista A, Bhattarai N, Poon BC, Giri G, Marqusee H. Depression, anxiety and depression-anxiety comorbidity amid COVID-19 pandemic: An online survey conducted during lockdown in Nepal (preprint). MedRxiv 2020; 1-10.
- Kazmi SSH, Hasan K, Talib S, Saxena S. CO-VID-19 and Lockdown: A study on the impact on mental health (preprint). SSRN 2020; 3577515.
- Othman N. Depression, anxiety, and stress in the time of COVID-19 pandemic in Kurdistan region, Iraq. Kurd J Appl Res 2020; 5: 37-44.
- 25) Shevlin M, Nolan E, Owczarek M, McBride O, Murphy J, Gibson Miller J, Hartman TK, Levita L, Mason L, Martinez AP. COVID-19-related anxiety predicts somatic symptoms in the UK population. Br J Health Psychol 2020; 25: 875-882.
- 26) Odriozola-González P, Planchuelo-Gómez Á, Irutia MJ, de Luis-García R. Psychological symptoms

of the outbreak of the COVID-19 confinement in Spain. J Health Psychol 2020; 1359105320967086. Advance online publication.

- 27) Agberotimi SF, Akinsola OS, Oguntayo R, Olaseni AO. Interactions between socioeconomic status and mental health outcomes in the Nigerian context amid COVID-19 pandemic: A comparative study. Front Psychol 2020; 11: 559819.
- 28) Mazza C, Ricci E, Biondi S, Colasanti M, Ferracuti S, Napoli C, Roma PA. Nationwide survey of psychological distress among Italian people during the COVID-19 pandemic: Immediate psychological responses and associated factors. Int J Environ Res Public Health 2020; 17: 3165.
- 29) Hossain MT, Ahammed B, Chanda SK, Jahan N, Ela MZ, Islam MN. Social and electronic media exposure and generalized anxiety disorder among people during COVID-19 outbreak in Bangladesh: A preliminary observation. PLoS One 2020; 15: e0238974.
- 30) Holmes EA, O'Connor RC, Perry VH, Tracey I, Wessely S, Arseneault L, Ballard C, Christensen H, Cohen Silver R, Everall I. Multidisciplinary research priorities for the COVID-19 pandemic: A call for action for mental health science. Lancet Psychiatry 2020; 7: 547-560.
- CalatiR, Ferrari C, Brittner M, Oasi O, Olié E, Carvalho AF, Courtet P. Suicidal thoughts and behaviors and social isolation: A narrative review of the literature. J Affect Disord 2020; 245: 653-667.
- 32) Groarke JM, Berry E, Graham-Wisener L, McKenna-Plumley PE, McGlinchey E, Armour C. Loneliness in the UK during the COVID-19 pandemic: Cross-sectional results from the COVID-19 psychological wellbeing study. PLoS One 2020; 15: e0239698.
- 33) Bu F, Steptoe A, Fancourt D. Who is lonely in lockdown? Cross-cohort analyses of predictors of loneliness before and during the COVID-19 pandemic. Public Health 2020; 186: 31-34.
- 34) Van Bavel JJ, Boggio P, Capraro V, Cichocka A, Cikara M, Crockett M, Ellemers N. Using social and behavioural science to support COVID-19 pandemic response. Nat Hum Behav 2020; 4: 460-471.
- 35) General authority of statistics, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Available online: https://www.stats.gov.sa/ sites/default/files/hail_region_en.pdf. (accessed 04 August 2021)
- 36) Hail, Saudi Arabia Metro Area Population 1950-2021.Available online: https://www.macrotrends. net/cities/22418/hail/population. (accessed 04 August 2021)
- 37) Population characteristics survey. Available online:https://www.stats.gov.sa/sites/default/files/population_characteristics_surveysar.pdf. (accessed 04 August 2021)
- Cohen S, Williamson G. Perceived stress in a probability sample of the United States. In: Spacapan, S. and Oskamp, S. (Eds.), The social psychology of health 1988; 31-67. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- 39) Ahorsu DK, Lin CY, Imani V, Saffari M, Griffiths MD, Pakpour AH. The fear of COVID-19 scale: Development and initial validation. Int J Ment Health Addict 2020; 1-9.Advance online publication.

- 40) Kroenke K, Spitzer RL, Williams JB, Monahan PO, Lowe B. Anxiety disorders in primary care: prevalence, impairment, comorbidity, and detection. Ann Intern Med 2007; 146: 317-325.
- Kroenke K, Spitzer RL, Williams JB. The Patient Health Questionnaire-2: Validity of a two-item depression screener. Med Care 2003; 41: 1284-1292.
- 42) Hughes ME, Waite LJ, Hawkley LC, Cacioppo JT. A short scale for measuring loneliness in large surveys: Results from two population-based studies. Res Aging 2004; 26: 655-672.
- Sunni AAI, Latif R. Perceived stress among medical students in preclinical years: A Saudi Arabian perspective. Saudi J Health Sci 2014; 3: 155-159.
- 44) Nikopoulou VA, Holeva V, Parlapani E, Karamouzi P, Voitsidis P, Porfyri GN, Blekas A, Papigkioti K, Patsiala S, Diakogiannis I. Mental health screening for COVID-19: A proposed cutoff score for the Greek version of the Fear of COVID-19 Scale (FCV-19S). Int J Ment Health Addict 2020; 1-14. Advance online publication.
- 45) Beaton DE, Bombardier C, Guillemin F, Ferraz MB. Guidelines for the process of cross-cultural adaptation of self-report measures. Spine 2000; 25: 3186-3191.
- 46) Syed NK, Syed MH, Meraya AM, Albarraq AA, Al-Kasim MA, Alqahtani S, Makeen HA, Yasmeen A, Banji O, Elnaem MH. The association of dietary behaviors and practices with overweight and obesity parameters among Saudi university students. PLoS One 2020; 15: e0238458.
- Roscoe JT. Fundamental research statistics for the behavioral sciences. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston 1975.
- 48) Aliman NK, Mohamad WN. Linking service quality, patients' satisfaction and behavioral intentions: An investigation on private healthcare in Malaysia. Procedia - Soc Behav Sci 2016; 224: 141-148.
- RaoSoft online sample size calculator. Available online: http://www.raosoft.com/samplesize.html. (accessed 10 January 2020).
- 50) Tripathi R, Alqahtani SS, Albarraq AA, Meraya AM, Tripathi P, Banji D, Alshahrani S, Ahsan W and Alnakhli FM. Awareness and preparedness of COVID-19 outbreak among healthcare workers and other residents of south-west Saudi Arabia: A cross-sectional survey. Front Public Health 2000; 8: 482.
- Isreal GD. (2003). Using formulas to calculate a sample size for small populations. 1–5. Available online: http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu. (accessed 10 February, 2020).
- 52) Sullivan KM, Dean A, Soe MM. On Academics. OpenEpi: A web-based epidemiologic and statistical calculator for public health. Public Health Rep 2009; 124: 471-474.
- 53) Yakubu K, Flinkenflögel M, Okoye I, Lodenyo MM, Popoola O, Mohamoud G. Perceived competency deficits and challenges of family medicine trainees in sub-Saharan Africa. Educ Prim Care 2016; 27: 358-365.
- 54) Kowal M, Coll-Martín T, Ikizer G, Rasmussen J, Eichel K, Studzińska A, Koszałkowska K, Karwowski M, Najmussaqib A, Pankowski D, Lieberoth A, Ahmed O. Who is the most stressed during the COVID-19 pandemic? Data from 26 countries and

areas. Appl Psychol Health Well-Being 2020; 12: 946-966.

- 55) UN-habitat COVID-19 response plan [response plan]. Available online: https://unhabitat.org/sites/ default/files/2020/04/final_un-habitat_covid-19_ response_plan.pdf. (accessed 04 August 2021)
- 56) Mishra SV, Gayen A, Haque SM. COVID-19 and urban vulnerability in India. Habitat Int 2020; 103: 102230.
- 57) Alyami M, Henning M, Krägeloh CU, Alyami H. Psychometric evaluation of the Arabic version of the Fear of COVID-19 Scale. Int J Ment Health Addict 2020; 1-14. Advance online publication.
- 58) Alyami M, de Albuquerque JV, Krägeloh CU, Alyami H, Henning MA. Effects of fear of COVID-19 on mental well-being and quality of life among Saudi adults: A path analysis. Saudi J Med Med Sci 2021; 9: 24-30.
- 59) Qiu J, Shen B, Zhao M, Wang Z, Xie B, Xu Y. A nationwide survey of psychological distress among Chinese people in the COVID-19 epidemic: Implications and policy recommendations. Gen Psychiatry 2020; 33: e100213.
- 60) Younas S, Tahir F, Sabih F, Hussain R, Hassan A, Sohail M, Zer S, Hafa N, Munawar A, Kanwal R, Tanvir M, Zahra M. Psychological capital and mental health: empirical exploration in perspective of gender. Int J Sci Res 2020; 76.
- 61) Yonkers KA, Ellison JM. "Anxiety disorders in women and their pharmacological treatment." Psychopharmacology and Women. Edited by Jensvold MF, Halbreich U, Hamilton JA. Washington DC, American Psychiatric Press 1996; 261-285.
- 62) Lewinsohn PM, Lewinsohn M, Gotlib IH, Seeley JR, Allen NB. Gender differences in anxiety disorders and anxiety symptoms in adolescents. J Abnorm Psychol 1998; 107: 109-117.
- 63) Bäuerle A, Teufel M, Musche V, Weismüller B, Kohler H, Hetkamp M, Dörrie N, Schweda A, Skoda EM. Increased generalized anxiety, depression and distress during the COVID-19 pandemic: a cross-sectional study in Germany. J Public Health 2020; 42: 672-678.
- 64) Arafat S, Kar SK, Marthoenis M, Sharma P, Hoque Apu E, Kabir R. Psychological underpinning of panic buying during pandemic (COVID-19). Psychiatry Res 2020; 289: 113061. Advance online publication.
- Bao Y, Sun Y, Meng S, Shi J, Lu L. 2019-nCoV epidemic: Address mental health care to empower society. Lancet 2020; 395: e37-e38.
- 66) Mukhtar S. Psychological health during the coronavirus disease 2019 pandemic outbreak. Int J Soc Psychiatry 2020; 66: 512-516.
- 67) Gunawan J, Juthamanee S, Aungsuroch Y. Current mental health issues in the era of Covid-19. Asian J Psychiatr2020; 51: 102103.
- 68) Tull MT, Edmonds KA, Scamaldo KM, Richmond JR, Rose JP, Gratz KL. Psychological outcomes associated with stay-at-home orders and the perceived impact of COVID-19 on daily life. Psychiatry Res 2020; 289:113098.
- 69) Xiang YT, Yang Y, Li W, Zhang L, Zhang Q, Cheung T, Ng C.H. Timely mental health care for the 2019 novel coronavirus outbreak is urgently needed. Lancet Psychiatry 2020; 7: 228-229.

- 70) Ahinkorah BO, Ameyaw EK, Hagan Jr JE, Seidu AA, Schack T. Rising above misinformation or fakenews in Africa: Another strategy to control COVID-19 spread. Front Commun 2020; 5: 45.
- Tasnim S, Hossain MM, Mazumder H. Impact of rumors and misinformation on COVID-19 in social media. J Prev Med Public Health 2020; 53: 171-174.
- 72) Xiong J, Lipsitz O, Nasri F, Lui LM, Gill H, Phan L, Chen-Li D, Iacobucci M, Ho R, Majeed A, McIntyre RS. Impact of COVID-19 pandemic on mental health in the general population: A systematic review. J Affect Disord 2020; 277: 55-64.
- Mejova Y, Kalimeri K. Advertisers jump on coronavirus bandwagon: Politics, news, and business (preprint). arXiv 2020.
- 74) Shimizu K. 2019-nCoV, fake news, and racism. The Lancet 2020; 395: 685-686.
- 75) Thomas Z. WHO says fake coronavirus claims causing 'infodemic'. BBC News, Available online: https://www.bbc.com/news/technology-51497800. (accessed 04 August 2021)
- 76) Zhu N, OJ, Lu HJ, Chang L. Debate: Facing uncertainty with(out) a sense of control - cultural influence on adolescents' response to the COVID-19 pandemic. Child AdolescMent Health 2020; 25: 173-174.
- 77) Banjar WM, Alaqeel MK. Healthcare worker's mental health dilemma during COVID-19 pandemic: a reflection on the KSA experience. J Taibah Univ Med Sci 2020; 15: 255-257.
- 78) Shuwiekh HAM, Kira IA, Sous MSF, Ashby JS, Alhuwailah A, Baali SBA, Azdaou C, Oliemat EM, Jamil HJ. The differential mental health impact of COVID-19 in Arab countries. Curr Psychol 2020; 1-15.

- 79) Alanzi T. A review of mobile applications available in the app and Google play stores used during the COVID-19 outbreak. J Multi Discip Healthc 2021; 14: 45-57.
- Bilal Latif F, Bashir MF, Komal B, Tan D. Role of electronic media in mitigating the psychological impacts of novel coronavirus (COVID-19). Psychiatry Res 2020; 289: 113041.
- Bhatia P. Role of media to inform public about depression related diseases. Int J Res 2018; 5: 5272-5277.
- Ali MY, Gatiti P. The COVID-19 (Coronavirus) Pandemic: Reflections on theroles of librarians and information professionals. Health Info Libr J 2020; 37: 158-62.
- McKibbin WJ, Fernando R. The global macroeconomic impacts of COVID-19: Seven scenarios. Asian Economic Papers 2021; 20: 1-30.
- Srivastava K, Chaudhury S, Bhat PS, Mujawar. Social media and mental health. Ind Psychiatry 2018; 27: 1-5.
- 85) Wadoo O, Latoo J, Reagu SM, Amro RAA, Masoodi NA, Alabdulla M. Mental health during COVID-19 in Qatar. Gen Psychiatr 2020; 33: e100313.
- Elzamzamy K, Alsiddiqi A, Khalil A, Elamin H, Abdul Karim M, Wadoo O. Newspaper depiction of mental and physical health in Qatar. B J Psych Int 2020; 23: 1-4.
- 87) Elzamzamy K, Wadoo O. Media and Mental Health. In: Haque, A., Gilstrap, L.L., Ghuloum, S., eds. Mental health in Qatar: challenges and prospects. Cambridge Scholars Publishing 2020; 314-334.
- 88) Johal SS. Psychosocial impacts of quarantine during disease outbreaks and interventions that may help to relieve strain. N Z Med J 2009; 122: 47-52.

6958