

Exploring the relationship between mental wellbeing, exercise routines and the intake of Image and Performance Enhancing Drugs during the COVID-19 pandemic: a comparison across sport disciplines

Mami Shibata¹, Julius Burkauskas², Artemisa R. Dores^{3, 4}, Kei Kobayashi¹, Sayaka Yoshimura⁵, Pierluigi Simonato⁶, Ilaria D. Luca⁶, Dorotea Cicconcelli⁶, Valentina Giorgetti⁶, Irene P. Carvalho⁷, Fernando Barbosa³, Cristina Monteiro⁸, Toshiya Murai¹, M A. Gomez Martínez⁹, Zsolt Demetrovics^{10, 11}, Krisztina E. Ábel¹⁰, Attila Szabo^{10, 11, 12}, Alejandra R. Ventola¹³, Eva M. Arroyo-Anlló¹⁴, Ricardo M. Santos-Labrador¹⁵, Inga Griskova-Bulanova¹⁶, Aiste Prankeviciene², Giuseppe Bersani¹⁷, Naomi A. Fineberg⁶, Hironobu Fujiwara^{1, 18*}, Ornella Corazza^{6, 17*}

¹Department of Neuropsychiatry, Graduate School of Medicine, University of Tokyo, Japan, ²Laboratory of Behavioral Medicine, Institute of Neuroscience, Lithuanian University of Health Sciences, Lithuania, ³Laboratory of Neuropsychophysiology, Faculty of Psychology and Education Science, University of Porto, Portugal, ⁴School of Health, Polytechnic Institute of porto, Portugal, ⁵Department of Human Health Sciences, Graduate School of Medicine, Kyoto University, Japan, ⁶Department of Clinical, Pharmaceutical and Biological Sciences, School of Life and Medical Sciences, University of Hertfordshire, Hatfield, United Kingdom, United Kingdom, ⁷Department of Clinical Neurosciences and Mental Health, Faculty of Medicine, University of Porto, Portugal, ⁸Institute of Psychology, Rio de Janeiro State University, Brazil, ⁹Department of Psychology, Pontifical University of Salamanca, Salamanca, Spain, Spain, ¹⁰Institute of Psychology, Faculty of Education and Psychology, Eötvös Loránd University, Hungary, ¹¹Centre of Excellence in Responsible Gaming, University of Gibraltar, Gibraltar, ¹²Institute of Health Promotion and Sport Sciences, Faculty of Education and Psychology, Eötvös Loránd University, Hungary, ¹³Facultad de Psicología, Universidad Pontificia de Salamanca, Spain, ¹⁴Department of Psychobiology, University of Salamanca, Neuroscience Institute of Castilla-León, Spain, Spain, ¹⁵University Teacher's College Brother Luís de León, Valladolid Castile and León, Spain, Spain, ¹⁶Department of Neurobiology and Biophysics, Institute of Biosciences, Vilnius University, Vilnius, Lithuania, Lithuania, ¹⁷Department of Medical-Surgical Sciences and Biotechnologies, Sapienza University of Rome, Italy, ¹⁸Artificial Intelligence Ethics and Society Team, RIKEN Center for Advanced Intelligence Project, Japan, Japan, Japan

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Author contribution statement

Conceptualization: HF and OC. Methodology: HF, OC and MS. Formal analysis: JB. Investigation and data collection: MS, JB, AD, KK, PS, IL, DC, VG, IC, FB, SM, TM, MG-M, ZD, KA, AS, AV, EA-A, RS-L, IB-G, AP, GB, NF, HF. Resources: HF and OC. Data curation: HF, MS, JB and OC. Writing-original draft preparation: MS. Writing-review and editing: KK, SY, AD, FB, ZD, AS, IL, HF and OC. Visualization: MS and KK. Supervision: MS, HF and OC. Project administration: OC. Funding acquisition: HF and OC. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Keywords

Excessive exercise, Supplement, IPEDS, COVID-19, enhancement

Abstract

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Introduction: Physical distancing under COVID-19 pandemic had a significant impact on lifestyles, including exercise routines. While adequate levels of exercise promote mental health, excessive exercise needs more consideration. In this study, we examined the relationship between mental health and addictive behaviors, such as excessive exercise and the use of Image and Performance Enhancement Drugs (IPEs) across twelve sport disciplines.

Materials and Methods: A large cross sectional sample of adult population (N=2,295) was surveyed between April-June 2020 in eight countries. IPEs use was assessed in conjunction with psychometric measures for problematic exercising (Exercise Addiction Inventory: EAI), appearance anxiety (Appearance Anxiety Index: AAI) and self-compassion (Self-Compassion Scale: SCS). History of addiction, smoking and drinking patterns during physical distancing were also considered. Results were compared across a wide range of sport disciplines, while taking into account the relationship between the psychological measures and IPEs consumption.

Results: The frequency of IPEs use was higher among the activity group (AG; 34.6%) than the non-activity group (NAG; 14.6%), although AG participants reported less history of addictions (7.1%) than NAG (11.8%). Logistic regression analysis revealed that scores equal to or above cutoff points, in both the EAI and AAI, predicted IPEs use. As for differences across the various sport disciplines, those practicing Weight Lifting and Cross Fit were found to be more at risk of excessive exercising and more inclined to use a wide range of IPEs. Almost of those who scored higher in the AAI also showed a high rate of IPEs use.

Conclusions: Although exercise could help to increase wellbeing and prevent addictions during COVID-19 pandemic, our results show that those in the AG are particularly vulnerable to excessive IPEs use. Sports disciplines associated with higher EAI and AAI scores have also shown higher tendency to excessive IPEs use. Moreover, over the cut-off scores in EAI or AAI could predict IPEs consumption regardless of the sport discipline. In light of the current findings, it is necessary to better define the “non-excessive” levels of exercise in various sports disciplines and an adequate intake of IPEs to ensure safety and wellbeing of people during a pandemic.

Contribution to the field

It is novel to investigate a relatively new concept “excessive exercise” in terms of its association with IPEs use as an enhancement in addition to other addiction-related psychological measures under physical distancing by COVID-19 pandemic, which has influenced on our daily habits dramatically. This study would contribute to mental health promotions by an attempt to find adequate levels of exercises considering both positive and negative aspects of habitual exercises in their associations with other mental health problems, particularly from the perspectives of cross-addiction of excessive exercise with excessive use of substances including IPEs. Furthermore, it could potentially lead to having knowledge for specific optimizations of adequate exercise habits for health benefits, by examining the differences among various disciplines of exercises. It could shed light on the strategies for having daily exercise habits in “New Normal” under COVID-19.

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Ethics statements

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Generated Statement: No animal studies are presented in this manuscript.

Studies involving human subjects

Generated Statement: The studies involving human participants were reviewed and approved by University of Hertfordshire Health and Human Science Ethics Committee with Delegated Authority. Written informed consent to participate in this study was provided by the participants' legal guardian/next of kin.

Inclusion of identifiable human data

Generated Statement: No potentially identifiable human images or data is presented in this study.

Data availability statement

Generated Statement: The datasets presented in this study can be found in online repositories. The names of the repository/repositories and accession number(s) can be found in the article/supplementary material.

In review

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2 Yoshimura⁵, Pierluigi Simonato⁶, Iliara De Luca⁶, Dorotea Cicconcelli⁶, Valentina Giorgetti⁶,
3 Irene P. Carvalho⁷, Fernando Barbosa³, Cristina Monteiro⁹, Toshiya Murai¹, **Maria A. Gómez-**
4 **Martínez**¹⁰, Zsolt Demetrovics^{11,12}, Krisztina Edina Ábel¹¹, Attila Szabo^{11,13}, Alejandra Rebeca
5 Melerio Ventola¹⁴, Eva Maria Arroyo-Anlló¹⁵, Ricardo M. Santos-Labrador¹⁶, Inga Griskova-
6 Bulanova¹⁷, Aiste Pranckeviciene², Giuseppe Bersani¹⁸, Hironobu Fujiwara^{1,19}, Ornella
7 Corazza^{6,18}

8 ¹Department of Neuropsychiatry, Graduate School of Medicine, University of Kyoto, Japan

9 ²Laboratory of Behavioral Medicine, Neuroscience Institute, Lithuanian University of Health
10 Sciences, Palanga-Kaunas, Lithuania

11 ³Laboratory of Neuropsychophysiology, Faculty of Psychology and Education Sciences, University
12 of Porto, Porto, Portugal

13 ⁴School of Health, Polytechnic of Porto, Porto, Portugal

14 ⁵Department of Neurodevelopmental Psychiatry, Habilitation and Rehabilitation, Graduate School of
15 Medicine, Kyoto University, Kyoto, Japan; Organization for Promotion of Neurodevelopmental
16 Disorder Research, Kyoto, Japan

17 ⁶Department of Clinical, Pharmaceutical and Biological Sciences, School of Life and Medical
18 Sciences, University of Hertfordshire, Hatfield, United Kingdom

19 ⁷Clinical Neurosciences and Mental Health Department and CINTESIS, Faculty of Medicine,
20 University of Porto, Porto, Portugal

21 ⁹ Department of Psychometrics, Institute of Psychology, Federal University of Rio de Janeiro, Rio de
22 Janeiro, Brazil

23 ¹⁰Department of Psychology, Pontifical University of Salamanca, Salamanca, Spain

24 ¹¹Institute of Psychology, ELTE Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest, Hungary

25 ¹²Centre of Excellence in Responsible Gaming, University of Gibraltar, Gibraltar

26 ¹³Institute of Health Promotion and Sport Sciences, ELTE Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest,
27 Hungary

28 ¹⁴Faculty of Psychology, Pontifical University of Salamanca, Salamanca, Spain

29 ¹⁵Department of Psychobiology, University of Salamanca, Neuroscience Institute of Castilla-León,
30 Salamanca, Spain

31 ¹⁶**Escuela Universitaria de Magisterio Fray Luis de León, Valladolid, Spain**

32 ¹⁷Department of Neurobiology and Biophysics, Institute of Biosciences, Vilnius University, Vilnius,
33 Lithuania

34 ¹⁸Department of Medico-Surgical Sciences and Biotechnologies, Sapienza University of Rome, Italy

35 ¹⁹Artificial Intelligence Ethics and Society Team, RIKEN Center for Advanced Intelligence Project,
36 Japan, Japan

37

38 * **Correspondence:**

39 Hironobu Fujiwara

40 hirofuji@kuhp.kyoto-u.ac.jp

41 Ornella Corazza

42 o.corazza@herts.ac.uk

43 **Keywords: excessive exercise, supplement, IPEDs, COVID-19, enhancement**

44 **Abstract**

45 **Introduction:** Physical distancing under COVID-19 pandemic had a significant impact on lifestyles,
46 including exercise routines. In this study, we examined the relationship between mental health and
47 addictive behaviors, such as excessive exercise and the use of Image and Performance Enhancing
48 Drugs (IPEDs) across twelve sport disciplines.

49 **Materials and Methods:** A large cross-sectional sample of adult population (N=2,295) was
50 surveyed. The mean age was 33.09 (SD= 11.40). The number of male participants was 668 (30.0%).
51 IPEDs use was assessed in conjunction with psychometric measures such as the Exercise Addiction
52 Inventory (EAI) and the Appearance Anxiety Inventory (AAI). The participants were grouped into
53 activity group (AG) and non-activity group (NAG) according to the presence or the absence of their
54 exercise habit. Results were compared between these groups, as well as across sport disciplines,
55 while taking into account the relationship between different psychological measures and IPEDs
56 consumption.

57 **Results:** The frequency of IPEDs use was higher among AG (34.6%) than NAG (14.6%), although
58 AG participants reported less history of addictions (7.1%) than NAG (11.8%). Logistic regression
59 analysis revealed that scores equal to or above cutoff points, in both the EAI and AAI, predicted
60 IPEDs use. As for differences across the various sport disciplines, those practicing Weight Lifting
61 and Cross Fit were found to be more at risk of excessive exercising and more inclined to use a wide
62 range of IPEDs.

63 **Conclusions:** Although exercise could help to increase wellbeing and prevent addictions during
64 COVID-19 pandemic, our results show that those in the AG are particularly vulnerable to excessive
65 IPEDs use. Sport disciplines associated with higher EAI and AAI scores have also shown higher
66 tendency to excessive IPEDs use. Further, the factor of having over the cutoff scores in EAI or AAI
67 in each sport could indicate larger IPEDs consumption regardless of the discipline. In light of the
68 current findings, it is necessary to better define the “non-excessive” levels of exercise in various sport
69 disciplines and an adequate intake of IPEDs to ensure safety and wellbeing of people during a
70 pandemic.

71

72

1 Introduction

73 The COVID-19 pandemic has posed a sudden and unprecedented challenge to public health, leading
74 to dramatic lifestyle changes (Basu et al., 2020; Di Renzo et al., 2020). In this context, exercise could
75 play an important part as a coping strategy to deal with stressful situations. Evidence suggests that
76 regular exercising could have a positive impact on mental health, improving depressive mood,
77 anxiety (Callow et al., 2020; Hervert et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2015; Schuch et al., 2015; Stonerock
78 et al., 2015) and related psychological issues (Hassmén et al., 2000; Schuch et al., 2016). It also helps
79 to improve cognitive and affective functions, such as memory (Parfitt et al., 2000; Suwabe et al.,
80 2018) and attention (de Sousa et al., 2019). Conversely, excessive exercise, known as “compulsive
81 exercise”, “problematic exercise” or “exercise addiction”, can have a negative influence on mental
82 and physical wellbeing (Berczik et al., 2012; Kreher and Schwartz, 2012). Although excessive
83 exercise has not been formally defined as an addiction in the 5th edition of the Diagnostic &
84 Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-5; American Psychiatric Association [APA], 2013),
85 the concept has been increasingly debated as part of a wide range of other behavioural, non-drug
86 related forms of addiction, such as gambling, internet use, gaming, eating/ food, sex, and shopping,
87 possibly leading to damaging health consequences, especially among vulnerable groups (Banz et al.,
88 2016; Fineberg et al., 2018; Lichtenstein et al., 2018; Petry et al., 2018).

89 It is known that exercise and the use of drugs, such as Image and Performance Enhancing Drugs
90 (IPEDs), or licit boosters (e.g., supplements, medicinal products), often coexist as a way to better
91 achieve the ultimate goal in a sport discipline (Peeling et al., 2018). The concept of “enhancement” is
92 defined here as an “intervention aimed to improve the human form and function more than necessary
93 for maintaining health or recovery for purposes other than treating a disease” (Caplan and Elliott,
94 2004; Juengst et al., 2004). Previous studies have shown that IPEDs are increasingly bought over the
95 Internet without any medical supervision, possibly leading to excessive or even toxic intakes
96 (Corazza et al., 2019; Mooney et al., 2017). For example, the overuse of caffeine tablets could induce
97 negative outcomes, such as insomnia or sudden death (Booth et al., 2020; Ronis et al., 2018;
98 Sweeney et al., 2020), with caffeine use disorder being one of the conditions mentioned in the DSM-
99 5 under a section on “Conditions for Future Study” (Ágoston et al., 2018). It is worth noting that in
100 some cases, licit supplements themselves can contain undisclosed prohibited substances by the World
101 Anti-Doping Agency (WADA) and thus expose users to unwanted health risks (Helle et al., 2019;
102 Mazzoni et al., 2017). Regarding the relationship between excessive physical exercise and IPEDs
103 use, Corazza et al. (2019) indicated that the risk of excessive exercising is positively correlated with
104 IPEDs use. However, both are beneficial to health at low to intermediate levels.

105 When the COVID-19 pandemic was officially recognised by the World Health Organisation (WHO)
106 in March 2020, it was assumed that the engagement with certain rewarding behaviours, as
107 represented by physical exercise during a period when there was no access to gyms, would have
108 increased considerably as a coping strategy during prolonged periods of self-isolation. Although
109 exercise might have helped to alleviate stress and difficult thoughts at such challenging time, it might
110 also have contributed to a reduced engagement in social interactions and other daily activities,
111 simultaneously facilitating the excessive intake of IPEDs and the development of other risky habits
112 that are then difficult to break. The diffuse advertising of IPEDs on social media and other online
113 platforms (Dubey et al., 2020; King et al., 2020; Kishimoto et al., 2009; Sun et al., 2020) might have
114 made their consumption even more likely when individuals spent more time on the Internet and
115 initiated the consumption among new vulnerable cohorts (Bhatti et al., 2020). Supporting evidence
116 emerged from a recent study on the use of IPEDs among the general adult population (N= 3,161)
117 during COVID-19 pandemic. It was found that 28% of the participants reported a use of such
118 products with 6.4% of them starting a new use during the pandemic (Dores et al., 2021).
119 Interestingly, the only predictor of change in IPEDs consumption was the score on or above the cut-

120 off point on the Exercise Addiction Inventory (EAI) (OR = 2.272), indicating that excessive
121 exercising could potentially induce excessive IPEDs use at worldwide level (Dores et al., 2021).

122 However, to date, the differences among sport disciplines in the occurrence of excessive exercising
123 and their association with IPEDs use during the pandemic are still unknown and this is the first study
124 investigating these issues. In this context, we hypothesized that the engagement with exercise and
125 IPEDs use as a coping strategy during the pandemic might have changed significantly across the
126 various sport disciplines. Each speciality is in fact unique in nature and endurance athletes, such as
127 ball game players, fitness centre attendees as well as those engaged in power disciplines have already
128 shown a higher risk of excessive exercising in a pre-pandemic situation (Di Lodovico et al., 2019).
129 We were also interested in assessing the relationship between excessive exercise and different types
130 of psychological functioning such as appearance anxiety (Corazza et al, 2019; Trott et al., 2020) and
131 self-compassion (Neff, 2003) and their differences among various sports. While higher scores in
132 terms of Appearance Anxiety Inventory (AAI) might have been indicative of the individuals being
133 more concerned and critical about their physical appearance during the lockdown, higher scores on
134 Self-Compassion Scale (SCS), a concept which is closely overlapping with mindfulness and Zen
135 Buddhism (Barczak and Eklund, 2020), might have been indicative of the role played by “mind-
136 body” training (Nakao and Ohara, 2014), in developing a safe and a positive attitude towards a
137 challenging situation and in acting as a mitigating factor towards excessive exercise and IPEDs use.
138 For instance, it has been previously found that those practising intensive mind-body training, aimed
139 at achieving a deeper integration between mind (psychology) and body (exercise) (Nakao and Ohara,
140 2014), such as martial arts players, report a number of cognitive health benefits as a result of their
141 training (Fujiwara et al, 2019).

142 More specifically, in this study we aimed to investigate the differences in excessive exercising,
143 appearance anxiety, and self-compassion as a related psychological measure between (a) subjects
144 engaged with habitual exercise routines (Activity Group: AG) and non-exercisers (Non-Activity:
145 NAG) and (b) across different sport disciplines. We hypothesized that scores of Appearance Anxiety
146 Inventory and Self-Compassion Scale would significantly be higher in the AG. As for comparisons
147 among different sport disciplines, we hypothesized that several disciplines which demand relatively
148 high-intensity functional training would show higher level of Exercise Addiction Inventory (EAI)
149 and Appearance Anxiety Inventory (AAI).

150 Besides, we aimed to identify the relevance of IPEDs use in association with above mentioned
151 psychological measures. On this regard, we expected to find a more diffuse use of IPED in AG than
152 in NAG. Finally, we examined the relationships between psychological measures, including
153 excessive exercising, and IPEDs use in both AG and NAG across various sport disciplines.

154 **2 Materials and Methods**

155 **2.1 Participants**

156 Overall 2,295 participants participated to the survey. They were from Brazil ($n=737$; 32.1%), Italy
157 ($n= 647$; 28.2%), Spain ($n= 264$; 11.5%), Lithuania ($n= 224$; 9.8%), Portugal ($n= 177$; 7.7%), the
158 United Kingdom ($n= 129$; 5.6 %), Japan ($n= 70$; 3.1%) and Hungary ($n = 47$; 2.0%). **The mean age of
159 the sample was 33.09 (SD=11.40) with a greater proportion of Female ($n= 1,607$; 70.0%) over Male
160 participants ($n= 688$; 30.0%).**

161 The AG was corresponded to the participants who practiced more than one sport in this
162 investigation. The AG comprised 87.5% ($n = 2,007$) of the respondents. The remaining 12.5% ($n =$

163 288) were included in the NAG. No difference was found between AG and NAG in age (AG/ NAG,
164 $33.13 \pm 11.54 / 32.80 \pm 10.39$, $t(2293) = -0.47$; $p = 0.642$).

165 As shown in Table 1, they were engaged in a variety of sports, mainly Generic Workout ($n = 769$;
166 38.3%), Walking ($n = 387$; 19.3%), Weight Lifting ($n = 355$; 17.7%), Running ($n = 301$; 15.0%), Yoga
167 ($n = 253$; 12.6%), Fighting Sports (e.g. Boxing, Kick boxing, Martial arts) ($n = 146$; 7.3%), Swimming
168 ($n = 135$; 6.7%), Dance ($n = 128$; 6.4%), Martial Arts ($n = 109$; 5.4%), Cycling ($n = 99$; 4.9%), Ball
169 Sports ($n = 73$; 3.6%), Budo ($n = 67$; 3.3%) and Cross Fit ($n = 63$; 3.1%). For clarity reasons, “Generic
170 Workout” included subjects who engaged with some general running, Weight Lifting, and other free
171 body exercises to keep fit and tone the muscles; “Martial Arts” meant oriental (non-Western cultural
172 style) fighting sports; “Budo” corresponded to Japanese-origin martial arts, such as Kendo, Aikido,
173 Judo and Karate.

174 2.2 Instruments

175 The study survey covered:

- 176 a) demographic information (age, gender, presence of habitual exercise, style of sports);
- 177 b) levels of excessive exercising, appearance anxiety, and self-compassion;
- 178 c) IPEDs use to enhance fitness performance or to make one’s appearance look good before/after
179 physical distancing. The questions were in multiple choice format, and the list of choices consisted
180 of: vitamins, green tea extract, whey protein (for details, see Supplementary Table 1.1-1.4);
- 181 d) history of addictions, and any worsening during physical distancing;
- 182 e) changes in the amount of drinking and smoking during physical distancing.

183

184 2.2.1 Exercise Addiction Inventory (EAI)

185 We used the EAI to assess the risk of excessive exercising (Terry et al., 2004). The EAI contains six
186 items rated on a five-point scale (e.g. “Exercise is the most important thing in my life”). The total
187 score range is from 6 to 30 with a score ≥ 24 being indicative of Exercise Addiction. The higher
188 scores indicate a higher risk of Exercise Addiction. The internal reliability of the EAI for the total
189 sample was acceptable (Cronbach’s alpha = .685) and the scale has been validated in various
190 nations/translations (Griffiths et al., 2015).

191

192 2.2.2 Appearance Addiction Inventory (AAI)

193 The AAI was used to assess the degree of cognitive processes and behaviors characteristics of body
194 dysmorphic disorder (BDD) (Veale et al., 2014). The AAI is a 10-item questionnaire rated on a 5-
195 point Likert scale (e.g. I check my appearance in mirrors by touching with my fingers or taking
196 photos of myself). The total score range is 0-40 with a cutoff score ≥ 21 being indicative of a risk of
197 BDD. The higher scores suggest a higher risks of appearance anxiety/BDD. The internal reliability
198 was good (Cronbach’s alpha = .87).

199

200 2.2.3 Self-Compassion Scale-Short Form (SCS-SF)

201 The higher scores of SCS indicate more compassion toward oneself, namely, kindness to self. We
202 used the SCS-Short Form in the current study (Raes et al., 2011). This scale has 12-item reflecting on

203 attitudes towards oneself (e.g. “when something painful happens, I try to take a balanced view of the
204 situation”), resulting in its total scores ranging from 12 to 60. A high internal reliability was observed
205 for the total sample (Cronbach's alpha =.82) and the questionnaire has been translated in different
206 languages (Dores et al., 2021).

207

208 **2.3 Procedures**

209 The study was approved by the University of Hertfordshire Health and Human Science Ethics
210 Committee with Delegated Authority (ECDA) (aHSK/SF/UH/00104(2)), and by the Ethics
211 Committees of all the participating organizations. This study was conducted according to the
212 Declaration Helsinki (World Medical Association, 2018). All responses were anonymous, securely
213 stored, and made accessible only to members of the research team.

214 A study questionnaire on “Fitness Lifestyle, Body Image and New Habits During the Corona Virus
215 Pandemic (COVID-19)” was disseminated at the start of the pandemic from April to June in 2020 via
216 the web-based platform Qualtrics (Qualtrics, 2020). Dissemination activities were supported by
217 established laboratories based in eight countries (the United Kingdom, Italy, Lithuania, Hungary,
218 Portugal, Spain, Japan and Brazil), and anonymised data were stored in a secure platform at the
219 University of Hertfordshire. The questionnaires were translated and back-translated from English into
220 Italian, Spanish, Japanese, Portuguese, Hungarian, Lithuanian. The study involved participants aged
221 18 years over from a broad spectrum of the general population. A ‘snowball sampling’ technique was
222 employed. It was advertised widely on social media platforms, including Facebook groups (e.g.,
223 Fitness and Wellbeing groups), LinkedIn, WhatsApp, Twitter, Instagram, and also on sport-related
224 websites/groups. There were no exclusion criteria. All participants gave written informed consent to
225 participate.

226

227 **2.4 Statistical analysis**

228 Data were analysed with SPSS Version 22.0.0.0 (IBM, USA). In the analysis of the demographic
229 information, independent samples t-tests and ANOVA were used to examine the continuous
230 variables, and chi-square tests for independence to test categorical variables.

231

232 **2.4.1 Group Comparison between AG versus NAG**

233 The differences reported by regular exercisers (AG) and non-exercisers (NAG) were assessed. T-tests
234 were applied to compare of EAI, AAI and SCS scores, and chi-square tests were used for the
235 comparisons in terms of IPEDs use, change in the amount of smoking and drinking, and the presence
236 of any addiction history before and after physical distancing. On the chi-square tests, Bonferroni-
237 Corrections were applied for multiple comparisons for data relating to changes in psycho-behavioral
238 measures before and after the COVID-19 pandemic, resulting in a statistical significance $p = .05/6$
239 = .0083 (the 6 items used were: Use of IPEDs, Initiation of IPEDs use during physical distancing,
240 Increase of smoking during physical distancing, Increase of drinking during physical distancing,
241 History of addiction, Worsening the addiction problem during physical distancing) for each sport
242 discipline.

243

244 **2.4.2 Group comparison among different kinds of sport disciplines**

245 **The** ANOVA analysis was carried out to compare the mean EAI, AAI, SCS scores among sport
 246 disciplines in which the number of the players was over 3 percent of all subjects. **The** Tamhane's T2
 247 method was used for post-hoc multiple comparisons as results indicated not equal variances (i.e.
 248 heteroscedasticity) among various sport disciplines for the EAI and AAI scores. With equal variances
 249 in **the** SCS scores **the** Tukey post hoc procedure was performed for multiple comparisons. In
 250 addition, chi-square tests were used for the comparisons regarding the presence of IPEDs use, change
 251 in the amount of smoking and drinking, **and any addiction history before** and after physical
 252 distancing. The comparisons were performed between one of the disciplines and others. **The**
 253 Bonferroni-corrections were applied for multiple comparisons for the data which related to the
 254 changes in psycho-behavioral measures before and after COVID-19 pandemic after chi-square tests
 255 (statistical significance p - values were set at $.05/5 = .01$, 5 items were: Usage of IPEDs, Increase of
 256 smoking during physical distancing and Increase of drinking during physical distancing, History of
 257 addiction, Worsening the addiction problem during physical distancing).

258

259 **2.4.3. Logistic regression between psychological indices (EAI, AAI and SCS) and IPEDs use**

260 Logistic regression analyses were performed to investigate how **the** EAI, AAI and SCS predict
 261 IPEDs use in both **the AG and the NAG** and across the investigated sport disciplines. The response
 262 variable was **the** usage of IPEDs (classified as 0, "not used" or 1, "used"), while the explanatory
 263 variables were age, gender (classified as 1, "Male participants" or 2, "Female participants"), equal to
 264 or above cutoff points in the EAI and AAI (classified as 0, "under the cutoff points" or 1, "equal or
 265 above cutoff points") and total scores of **the** SCS.

266

267 **3. Result**

268 **3.1. Psychological measures**

269 The average scores for the whole samples were: $M = 16.52$; $SD = 4.16$ (EAI), $M = 16.84$; $SD = 5.55$
 270 (AAI), and $M = 30.9$; $SD = 6.02$ (SCS), 736 (32.1%) individuals used IPEDs. **The numbers of those**
 271 **who scored over cutoff of EAI or AAI were 96 (4.2%) ($EAI \geq 24$) and 480 (20.9%) ($AAI \geq 21$).**

272

273 **3.2. Addiction and increase of smoking and drinking**

274 History of addictions was reported among 7.7% ($n = 176$) of the participants with most of the sample
 275 ($n = 2,119$; 92.3%) having no previous **addiction history** (Table 2). The habitual smokers ($n = 471$;
 276 20.5%), 37.2% ($n = 175$) felt the need **to smoke more during physical distancing, while habitual**
 277 **drinkers ($n = 1934$; 84.3%), 16.8% ($n = 325$) felt the need to increase the consumption of alcohol**
 278 **during physical distancing.**

279

280 3.3. Group comparisons between activity group (AG) versus non-activity group (NAG)

281 The group comparisons between the different sport disciplines are shown in the Supplementary Table
 282 2-4 and schematically summarized in Fig. 1. Differences within groups of different sport disciplines,
 283 including NAG, were also observed for EAI, $F(15, 3032) = 8.11, p < .001$. Tamhane's T2 method
 284 based post-hoc analysis showed the EAI in walking to be considerably lower in comparison to the
 285 other sport disciplines ($ps < .009$), while Weight Lifting ($ps < .02$) and Cross Fit ($ps < .03$) had higher
 286 EAI scores in comparison to other sport disciplines. Differences within groups of sport disciplines
 287 including NAG were also observed for AAI, $F(16, 3319) = 6.98, p < .001$. For this group's
 288 Tamhane's T2 test revealed Budo ($ps < .02$) and Cycling ($ps < .03$) AAI scores to be lower
 289 comparing to other sport disciplines. While Weight Lifting ($ps < .05$), Cross Fit ($ps < .04$) and Dance
 290 ($ps < .04$) reached higher AAI scores compared to the other sport disciplines.

291 There was a tendency for SCS scores to differ across sports disciplines including NAG $F(16, 3319)$
 292 $= 1.64, p = .052$.

293 Some sports showed significantly higher, or lower, percentages in IPEDs user than other
 294 disciplines. More specifically, IPEDs use was significantly higher in Weight Lifting ($n= 217; 61.1\%$),
 295 $\chi^2(2, n=694)= 134.37; p < .001$ and Cross Fit ($n= 38; 60.3\%$), $\chi^2(2, n=694)= 19.047 p < .001$., while it
 296 was significantly lower in Walking ($n= 95; 24.5\%$), $\chi^2(2, n=694)=21.33; p < .001$, than in other
 297 disciplines. The rate of subjects who had history of addiction and subjects who experienced
 298 worsening of it during physical distancing did not differ among all disciplines. The rate of those who
 299 have increased in smoking was higher in Fighting Sports ($n= 13; 61.9\%$), $\chi^2(2, n=123)= 7.75; p$
 300 $= .005$, but lower in Weight Lifting ($n= 9; 17.3\%$), $\chi^2(2, n=123)= 7.52; p = .006$ and those who have
 301 increased in drinking was lower in Generic Workout ($n= 92, 12.0\%$), $\chi^2(2, n=297)= 7.95; p = .005$.

302 3.4. Logistic regressions between EAI, AAI and SCS, and IPEDs use

303 The logistic regression analyses revealed that being equal to or above cutoff points in the EAI
 304 predicted IPEDs use in the AG (OR = 2.226, 95% C.I. [1.438-3.444], $p = .000$) (Supplementary
 305 Table 5). Being equal to or above of AAI's cutoff points also predicted IPEDs use in the AG (OR =
 306 2.009, 95% C.I. [1.571-2.571], $p = .000$). Female Gender also predicted IPEDs use in the AG (OR=
 307 0.614, 95% C.I. [0.502-0.750], $p < .001$).

308 Regarding the analyses of each kind of discipline, being equal to or above EAI's cutoff points
 309 predicted IPEDs use in Generic Workout (OR = 2.047, 95% C.I. [1.013-4.135], $p = .046$), Yoga (OR
 310 = 9.805, 95% C.I. [1.969-48.824], $p = .005$) and Fighting Sports (OR = 12.984, 95% C.I. [1.461-
 311 115.410], $p = .021$). Being equal to or above AAI's cutoff points also predicted IPEDs use in Generic
 312 Workout (OR= 1.604, 95% C.I.[1.066-2.413], $p = .023$), Walking (OR = 2.214, 95% C.I. [1.166-
 313 4.201], $p = .015$), Weight Lifting (OR = 2.104, 95% C.I. [1.210-3.658], $p = .008$), Running (OR=
 314 2.061, 95% C.I.[1.070-3.974], $p = .031$), Fighting Sports (OR = 3.219, 95% C.I. [1.144-9.058], p
 315 $= .027$) and Dance (OR= 2.872, 95% C.I. [1.096-7.521], $p = .032$). SCS scores did not predict IPEDs
 316 use in any discipline. Female gender also predicted IPEDs use in Generic Workout (OR= .391, 95%
 317 C.I.[0.275-0.555], $p = .000$) and Weight Lifting (OR= 0.631 95% C.I.[0.401-0.993], $p = .047$).

318

319 4. Discussion

320 Although excessive exercising has been previously correlated with excessive IPEDs use during the
321 COVID-19 physical distancing (Dores et al, 2021), this is the first study assessing the differences
322 across various sport disciplines in terms of excessive exercise (EAI), appearance anxiety (AAI), and
323 self-compassion (SCS) and their level of engagement in physical activity (AG vs NAG).

324 Overall we found that the AG group reported a higher IPEDs use, but was less affected by history
325 of addictions compared to the NAG. In addition, the group comparison between AG and NAG
326 revealed that **neither the mean scores of AAI nor SCS differ in AG** from those in NAG. These results
327 could support the findings of a previous study that appearance anxiety and self-compassion were
328 non-significant predictors of habit of physical exercise (Dores et al., 2021), while less history of
329 addictions in the AG indicates that habitual exercise may have health benefits in preventing
330 addictions in general.

331 **Results of the** EAI and the AAI varied significantly among various sport disciplines
332 (Supplementary Table 2, 3). As indicated in Figure 1, we categorized the sports into three groups
333 according to the levels of EAI: (1) high EAI group; (2) low EAI group; (3) others. Weight Lifting,
334 and Cross-Fit corresponded to the high EAI group. Only Walking corresponded to the low EAI
335 group. These results confirms previous evidence (Di Lodovico et al., 2019), according to which
336 endurance athletes, ball game players, fitness centre attendees, and those engaged in power
337 disciplines have a high risk of excessive exercising. It is worth noting that in those reporting a high
338 score in the EAI, Weight Lifting and Cross Fit **also** showed a higher IPEDs use. Conversely, a sport
339 discipline in low EAI group, that is, Walking, was significantly associated with lower rate in IPEDs
340 use. **Those who perform** Weight Lifting often pursue strength and **muscle hypertrophy**. **However**,
341 when the training becomes obsessive and compulsive, it could lead to Muscle Dysmorphia (Maida
342 and Armstrong, 2005; Mosley, 2009). Since CrossFit is recognized as a kind of high-intensity
343 functional training with high risk of excessive exercise (Claudino et al., 2018; Lichtenstein and
344 Jensen, 2016), this sports could have some traits in common with Weight Lifting. Consequently, it
345 could be suggested that “the higher the EAI, the higher the IPEDs use” indicates that excessive
346 exercising is associated with the risk of cross-addiction with other substance intake. Actually, it was
347 proposed that 15% of those at-risk for excessive exercising may have co-occurring substance
348 addictions, such as nicotine and alcohol addictions (Sussman et al., 2011), although this was not
349 confirmed by other investigations (Szabo et al., 2018). Still, **the fact that 12.2 % of our sample**
350 **purchased** IPEDs over the Internet, might be indicative of a cross-addiction in some individuals,
351 especially when exposed to excessive Internet use during the COVID-19 pandemic (Sun et al., 2020).
352 In other words, the co-occurrence of IPEDs and excessive Internet use during COVID-19 pandemic
353 has forced individuals to change their lifestyle drastically, leading in some cases to the development
354 of new risky behaviours, which might then be difficult to break.

355 Some interesting results also emerged in terms of self-compassion, which has been previously
356 associated with high coping skills and athletes' motivation towards their training in sports (Barczak
357 and Eklund, 2020). High level of self-compassion has also inversely been related to the risk of
358 substance use disorder, such as alcohol and cannabis (Phelps et al., 2018; Wisener and Houry,
359 2020). In our study, of particular relevance was the case of Cycling, **in which this sport discipline**
360 **reported higher SCS and lower AAI scores**. Although more studies across different level of training
361 are required, the current findings might suggest that high self-compassion might have contributed to
362 lower AAI and adequate engagement in Cycling. As a suggestion, more targeted “mind-body”
363 training programmes, involving the cultivation of self-compassion, could play an important role in
364 improving coping skills or reducing the risk of substance use disorder and **act as a meaningful**
365 **addiction**.

366 Regarding the finding in logistic regressions, a higher rate in IPEDs use in AG, together with a
367 significant prediction of IPEDs use by being equal to or above cutoff level of EAI and AAI in AG,
368 indicates potential risks of exercise for IPEDs use. **Furthermore, we found that the score of EAI and**
369 **AAI above the cutoff predicted IPEDs use in AG. This finding is in line with the previous** report
370 before the occurrence of COVID-19 pandemic (Corazza et al., 2019). Pathological levels of
371 excessive exercising and appearance anxiety could be risk factors for excessive IPEDs use, indicating
372 that it would be meaningful for individuals with high EAI and/or AAI to be aware of the risks of the
373 “excessive enhancement” by IPEDs use. They would have to pay attention to the strategies of
374 approaching each activity, such as checking the risk of burnout and compulsiveness with the
375 exercises from subjective, together with objective points of view (Kreher and Schwartz, 2012;
376 Weinstein and Weinstein, 2014). Also, Logistic regression analysis revealed that being equal to or
377 above cutoff of points of EAI or AAI predicted IPEDs use in seven out of 13 kinds of disciplines. A
378 possible interpretation is that, those who have apparent tendency for either excessive exercise or
379 appearance anxiety could have a high risk of excessive IPEDs use, regardless of what discipline of
380 exercise people are engaged in.

381 There are several limitations in the current study. **Firstly**, the number of subjects scoring equal or
382 above the cutoff points of EAI and AAI was small. Therefore, further research would be needed to
383 further clarify the the relationship between excessive exercising and IPEDs use in larger samples.
384 **Secondly**, the internal reliability of the EAI is low, but we adopted that measure because this study
385 was exploratory. **Thirdly**, the changes of the EAI and AAI **before, during and after the pandemic**
386 were not examined in this study. Therefore, causal relationships among these measures were still
387 unclear. A longitudinal study would be expected to be performed during the time course: before,
388 current, and after this pandemic. **Fourthly**, the interpretations of the results should be cautious
389 because of the discrepancy in gender valance. Finally, the types of sports disciplines should be
390 expanded, for example, dividing ball sports into specific disciplines such as baseball, football and
391 table tennis in order to clarify the characteristics of each disciplines more precisely, such as tendency
392 of **falling** into excessive exercise or IPEDs use.

393 While **for** mental health benefits of exercise in general, our study showed **how** excessive exercising
394 could potentially be associated with excessive IPEDs use, which may contribute to further negative
395 outcomes during COVID-19 pandemic. It is worthwhile paying attention to the risks associated to
396 IPEDs consumption particularly in individuals with traits of excessive exercising, or appearance
397 anxiety, particularly in disciplines which demands high-intensity functional training who emerged to
398 be most at risk. At the same time, those who are more vulnerable to develop excessive exercising
399 patterns, or manifest appearance anxiety, could be more prompt to use IPEDs regardless from the
400 discipline of practice. As the global COVID-19 pandemic persists, longitudinal studies would be
401 needed to examine the causal relationship between exercise habits and IPEDs use over a longer
402 period of time.

403 Overall our study shed new light on the relatively new concept **of** “Excessive exercising” and its
404 association with IPEDs use and related psychological measures among different sport disciplines at
405 the start of the COVID-19 pandemic, which has influenced our daily habits dramatically. Findings
406 emerging from our work suggest the need for more balanced mental health promotion strategies in
407 terms of both positive and negative aspects of habitual exercise and their associations with other
408 mental health conditions, particularly in regard to the overlooked cross-addiction between excessive
409 exercising and overuse of substances, including IPEDs. It has also a strong relevance in terms of
410 doping prevention as we were able to identify the diffuse intake of IPEDs among amateur athletes of
411 defined sport disciplines, thus contributing to “clean and fair play” according to the definition of anti-

412 doping provided by WADA. Finally, it contributes to a more informed discussion on what constitutes
 413 “good exercise habits” in terms of health benefits among various exercise forms during exceptional
 414 circumstances such as the current COVID-19 pandemic. **Because of the implementation of physical**
 415 **distancing measures, the lifestyles and the coping strategies adopted by people with addiction have**
 416 **drastically changed. While face-to-face services have played an important role in supporting these**
 417 **individuals before the pandemic, might now consider alternative forms of intervention, such as**
 418 **telephone and Virtual Reality-based programs which have been developed during the pandemic**
 419 **(Liese and Monley, 2021). Excessive exercising (and the related excessive IPEDs consumption) may**
 420 **be prevented by these newly established strategies for health services.**

421 **3 Conflict of Interest**

422 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
 423 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

424 **4 Author Contributions**

425 Conceptualization: HF and OC. Methodology: HF, OC and MS. Formal analysis: JB. Investigation
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 427 EA-A, RS-L, IB-G, AP, GB, HF. Resources: HF and OC. Data curation: HF, MS, JB and OC.
 428 Writing-original draft preparation: MS. Writing-review and editing: KK, SY, AD, FB, ZD, AS, IL,
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598 **Data Availability Statement**

599 The raw data supporting the conclusions of this article will be made available by the authors, without
600 undue reservation. The datasets .

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602

603 Table 1. *Type of activities(N= 2295)*

Generic Workout	38.3%
Walking	19.3%

Weight Lifting	17.7%
Runing	15.0%
Yoga	12.6%
Fighting Sports	7.3%
Swimming	6.7%
Dance	6.4%
Martial Arts	5.4%
Cycling	4.9%
Ball Sports	3.6%
Budo	3.3%
Cross Fit	3.1%
Mountain	2.9%
Tennis	1.7%
Triathlon	0%
Other	3.7%
None activity	12.5%

604 Generic Workout: some general running, Weight Lifting, and other free body exercises to keep fit and tone the muscles

605 Martial Arts: oriental (non-western cultural style) fighting sports, such as Kendo, Judo, Aikido, Karate, Taekwondo, Brazialian jiu-jitsu, Muay Thai,
606 Wushu, Tai Chi and Capoeira

607 Budo: Japanese-origin martial arts, such as Kendo, Judo, Aikido and Karate

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610 Table 2. *Rate of addiction, an increase of smoking and drinking (N= 2295)*

History of Addiction	N(%)
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Yes	176 (7.7%)
No	2119 (92.3%)
Increase during	49 (27.8%)
Increase of smoking	N(%)
No increase	296 (62.8%)
Increase	175 (37.2%)
Increase of drinking	N(%)
No increase	1609 (83.2%)
Increase	325 (16.8%)

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615 Table 3. *Differences in IPEDs use and behavioural changes between AG and NAG*

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	NAG	AG	
Usage of IPEDs	42 (14.6%)	694 (34.6%)	$\chi^2 = 46.22; p < 0.001$
Start of IPEDs during physical distancing	10 (3.9%)	102 (7.2%)	$\chi^2 = 3.78; p = 0.052$
Increase of smoking during physical distancing	52 (47.7%)	123 (34.0%)	$\chi^2 = 6.76; p = 0.009$

Increase of drinking during physical distancing	28 (9.7%)	297 (14.8%)	$\chi^2 = 5.34; p = 0.021$
History of addiction	34 (11.8%)	142 (7.1%)	$\chi^2 = 7.96; p = 0.005$
Worsening the addiction problem during physical distancing	7 (20.6%)	42 (29.6%)	$\chi^2 = 1.10; p = 0.294$

617 Abbreviations: AG= activity group, NAG=non-activity group.

618 According to Bonferroni correction, all p's which are lower than .0083 should be considered significant.

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In review

Figure 1.JPEG

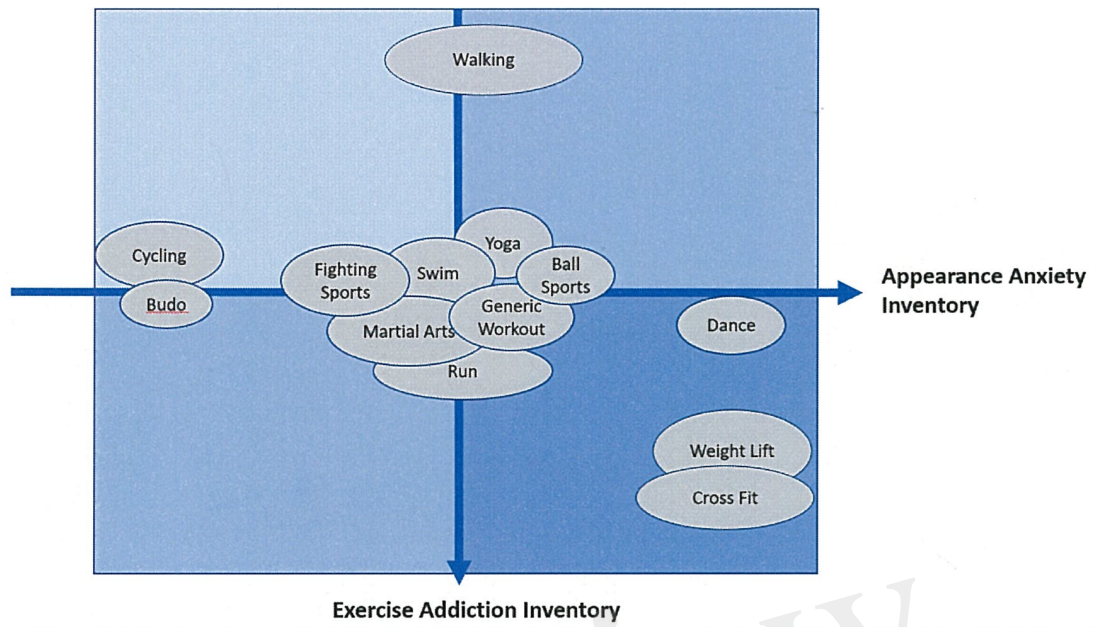


Fig.1 Schematic representation of the features of EAI and AAI on each exercise

In review