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Journal Pre-proof

Changes in Adults' Eating Behaviors During the Initial Months of the COVID-19 Pandemic: A Narrative Review

Ashlie N. Johnson, PhD, Raeven Lynn M. Clockston, MPH, BSND, Lindsey Fremling, BS, Emma Clark, MS, Pamela Lundeberg, PhD, Megan Mueller, PhD, Dan J. Graham, PhD

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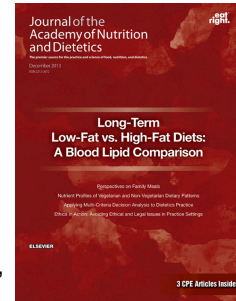
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Changes in Adults' Eating Behaviors During the Initial Months of the COVID-19 Pandemic: A
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Authors contact information & ORCIDs:

Ashlie N. Johnson, PhD

Assistant Professor, Linfield University

Department of Psychology

900 SE Baker St

McMinnville, OR United States 97128

770-331-5779

Ajohnson8@linfield.edu

ORCID: 0000-0002-1815-2390

Raeven Lynn M. Clockston, MPH, BSND

Colorado School of Public Health

303-724-0918

Raeven.Clockston@cuanschutz.edu

ORCID: 0000-0002-1922-2952

Lindsey Fremling, BS

Research assistant, Colorado State University

Department of Psychology

Fort Collins, CO United States 80523-1876

303-345-1316

lindseyafremling@gmail.com

Emma Clark, MS

Graduate Student, Colorado State University

Department of Human Development and Family Studies

1570 Campus Delivery

Fort Collins, CO 80523-1570

720-273-1131

emma.clark@colostate.edu

ORCID: 0000-0002-4922-7666

Pamela Lundeberg, PhD

Instructor, Colorado state University

Department of Psychology

1876 Campus Delivery

Fort Collins, CO United States 80523-1876

970-339-6205

pamela.lundeberg@colostate.edu

ORCID: 0000-0002-6075-482X

Megan Mueller, PhD

Assistant Professor, Colorado State University

Department of Food Science and Human Nutrition

1571 Campus Delivery

Fort Collins, CO United States 80523-1571

(970) 491-106

Megan.mueller@colostate.edu

ORCID: 0000-0002-4479-8144

Dan J. Graham, PhD

Associate Professor, Colorado State University

Department of Psychology

1876 Campus Delivery

Fort Collins, CO United States 80523-1876

970-491-6561

Dan.graham@colostate.edu

ORCID: 0000-0001-9993-2585

Authors contribution:

AJ, RC, LF, and EC collected and analyzed articles and wrote the first draft with contributions from PL, MM, and DG.

Corresponding author and reprint contact: Ashlie Johnson, ajohnson8@linfield.edu

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Journal Pre-proof

1 Changes in Adults' Eating Behaviors During the Initial Months of the COVID-19 Pandemic: A
2 Narrative Review

3 Research Snapshot

4 *Research Question:* Did adults' amount, frequency, and timing of eating, types and healthfulness
5 of foods consumed, occurrence of specified eating behaviors (e.g., binging), and reasons for
6 eating change during the early COVID-19 pandemic?

7 *Key Findings:* Many eating behaviors remained stable. When changes occurred, eating more
8 likely increased in amount/frequency. Changes in when and how healthfully individuals ate
9 showed mixed results. Consumption of some foods decreased (e.g., meat); others increased (e.g.,
10 fruits). Binging, out-of-control eating, and overeating increased, meal skipping decreased, and
11 restrictive eating had mixed results. Dietary changes were related to changes in mood and
12 environment.

13 Abstract

14 Factors such as regulations and health concerns shifted daily habits, including eating behaviors,
15 during the early months of the COVID-19 pandemic. This comprehensive narrative review
16 synthesizes research on eating behavior changes during the early months of the COVID-19
17 pandemic (February-June 2020) including changes in amount, rate and timing of food
18 consumption, types and healthfulness of foods consumed, the occurrence of other specified
19 eating behaviors (e.g., restrained eating, binging), and reasons for eating (e.g., stress, cravings),
20 among adults. A literature search using three EBSCOhost databases and Google Scholar was
21 conducted to identify relevant articles made available in 2020. A total of 71 articles representing
22 250,715 individuals from over 30 countries were reviewed. Findings show eating behaviors
23 changed little during the early pandemic for most participants. Among those whose eating

24 behaviors changed, increases in both intake and frequency of eating meals and snacks were more
25 common than decreases. Findings on timing of eating and healthfulness of food consumed
26 showed mixed results. However, when changes occurred in the type of food consumed, increases
27 were more common for snacks, homemade pastries, white bread/pasta, legumes, and
28 fruits/vegetables; decreases were more common for meats, seafood/fish, frozen foods, fast food,
29 dark breads/grains, and dark leafy green vegetables. During the pandemic, bingeing, uncontrolled
30 eating, and overeating increased, meal skipping decreased, and restrictive eating had mixed
31 findings. Changes in factors such as emotions and mood (e.g., depression), cravings, and
32 environmental factors (e.g., food insecurity) were related to changes in eating behaviors.
33 Findings can inform clinical practitioners in efforts to mitigate disruptions to normal, healthy
34 eating patterns among adults both in and outside of global health catastrophes.

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Introduction

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The COVID-19 pandemic caused an unprecedented upheaval of daily routines for individuals around the globe. Government efforts to mitigate the spread of COVID-19 have encompassed an array of responses including mass quarantines, stay-at-home restrictions, closures of schools and businesses, and shutdowns of public transportation.

Like many other health behaviors, eating is heavily dependent on habit^{1,2} and, as such, has been significantly disrupted by COVID-19 and the restrictions used to quell outbreaks.³ For example, during the COVID-19 pandemic, 51% of individuals in the United States (US) made the transition to working from home, thereby increasing their proximity to a primary food environment for longer periods throughout the day.^{3,4} Additionally, unemployment in the US rose from 3.5% to 14.7% during the early phase of the pandemic (between February and April of 2020),⁵ which for some individuals led to both a greater time spent at home and decreased purchasing power for balanced diets.^{6,7} However, for some individuals living in low-income households, the addition of unemployment benefits and federal supplements exceeded their prior wages.⁸

The closure of restaurants shifted meal sources, often leading to an increase in cooking behaviors, while the closure of schools produced issues of food access and insecurity for communities facing economic hardship and marginalization.^{9,10} Moreover, social isolation efforts and fears around virus exposure limited access to supermarkets and other food retailers.^{11,12} While some individuals utilized online ordering, curbside pickups, and food/grocery delivery services to curtail these impacts, these services are not locationally or financially accessible to many individuals around the globe.^{13,14}

59 Stockpiling behaviors and breakdowns in the food supply chain also had an impact on
60 peoples' eating behaviors during the pandemic.^{13,15} For those who could afford to stockpile food
61 during the pandemic, stockpiling increased their access to the food around them and impacted
62 the types of food they purchased; for those who could not afford to stockpile food during the
63 pandemic, others' stockpiling limited the amount of food available to them.^{13,16} Breakdowns in
64 the supply chain also contributed to limitations in the food available during the pandemic.¹⁵

65 Beyond the regulatory, geographic, and financial obstacles impacting eating behaviors
66 during the COVID-19 pandemic, many people have faced psychological and social stressors that
67 can impact their relationship with food and the food environment.¹⁷ A large body of literature
68 shows the impact of emotion, stress, and mood states – both positive and negative – on food
69 selection and eating behaviors.^{18–20} Depression, stress, and boredom, among other possible
70 reactions to pandemic-induced lifestyle changes, are related to increases in food intake and
71 frequency of eating as well as increases in consuming higher energy foods such as sweets,
72 snacks, and fast food.²¹

73 However, it is unclear how eating behaviors have changed around the globe during the
74 COVID-19 pandemic. For instance, while many factors seem to indicate a trend toward less
75 healthful eating behaviors, it is possible that food selection and healthfulness could improve with
76 increased time available for cooking.²² Moreover, evidence suggests that the best time to change
77 habits is when other habits are changing as well,^{23,24} making the abrupt changes generated by
78 stay-at-home orders fertile ground for eating behavior change among other health behavior
79 changes.

80 Comparisons across similar public health crises and national disasters such as hurricanes
81 and earthquakes show that eating behaviors are vulnerable to change during times of regional or

82 international distress.^{25,26} Widespread crises disrupt food systems and the economies that allow
83 individuals to purchase food, often leading to reduced food security and increased malnutrition.²⁷
84 Moreover, the heightened stress is related to decreased fruit and vegetable intake and, among
85 emotional eaters, overeating behaviors.²⁶ In fact, watching news related to disasters such as
86 earthquakes²⁸ or even reading narratives about devastating hurricanes²⁹ is associated with
87 changes in eating behavior. Given the ubiquitous impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic and the
88 concomitant alterations of stress and other mood states, it is plausible that eating behaviors
89 would change as a result.

90 Eating behaviors during the COVID-19 pandemic are a critical area of study given the
91 clinical relevance of over- and under-nutrition, both of which could result from dietary changes
92 brought about by the pandemic. Researchers suggest that nutrition can be a key factor in
93 COVID-19 immunity^{30,31} and predict that the pandemic will continue to cause a nutritional crisis
94 given factors like job loss and the closing of public food supports.³²

95 While several mini-reviews have communicated breaking findings throughout the early
96 COVID-19 pandemic timepoints, as of this writing no review comprehensively captured the
97 dietary impact of COVID-19 on a global scale.³³⁻³⁷ Moreover, recent reviews assessing eating
98 behaviors are narrower in scope, with specific focus areas such as weight changes³⁸ and feeding
99 children.³⁹

100 This narrative review offers a summary of key research question findings regarding
101 changes in eating behaviors during the COVID-19 pandemic. Further, challenges to empirically
102 studying eating during a pandemic, areas for future examination, and clinical implications are
103 discussed.

104 Specifically, this review aims to address how the following eating behaviors compared
105 during the early stages of the COVID-19 pandemic relative to before the pandemic began: the
106 amount, frequency, and timing of food consumption, the types and healthfulness of foods eaten,
107 the occurrence of specified eating behaviors (e.g., restrained eating, binging), and reasons for
108 eating (e.g., emotions, cravings, environmental factors).

109 The scope of this review includes international research published in English and made
110 available in the year 2020 with samples that generalize to adults who have not been diagnosed
111 with eating disorders. The aim is to characterize early-pandemic dietary changes for populations
112 of individuals without pathological eating behaviors around the globe.

113 **Methods**

114 An initial literature review assessing extant systematic, narrative, and scoping reviews of
115 changes to eating behaviors during the COVID-19 pandemic was conducted in October 2020
116 using multiple EBSCOhost databases, including Academic Search Premier, Psychology and
117 Behavioral Sciences Collection, and APA PsycInfo in addition to the Google Scholar database.
118 Search terms included “eat*,” “COVID-19,” “coronavirus,” “pandemic” and “review.” Five
119 reviews were identified.³³⁻³⁷ Some of these reviews assessed eating behaviors in addition to other
120 health behaviors such as sleep^{33,34} and physical activity.^{33,35} Given the rapidly evolving context
121 and continued influx of eating-behavior-related studies, the need for a more comprehensive
122 narrative review was apparent. The present review contributes a global perspective and covers a
123 more extensive range of eating behaviors than previous studies. To set the scope of the review,
124 all relevant articles written in English and published or made available online in the year 2020
125 were screened for inclusion.

126 Article identification and selection started in October 2020. Searches were performed
127 using the same databases as the initial literature review and the search terms "COVID,"
128 "COVID-19," "sars-cov-2," "coronavirus," "pandemic" AND eat*, nutri*, "food", diet*, grocer*.
129 Additionally, sources referenced in articles accumulated during the database search were
130 assessed and included as appropriate. Filters were applied to limit results to articles made
131 available in 2020, and the final search for this review was conducted on February 8, 2021.

132 Article abstracts were screened to ensure relevance to eating behaviors during the early
133 COVID-19 pandemic, especially during or following a period of lockdown and social distancing.
134 The circumstances related to lockdowns varied globally, including the timeframe and extent of
135 closure, so this was defined in each article relative to the geographic location and study
136 population. A total of 138 relevant articles were gathered and assessed in their entirety for
137 inclusion.

138 A final sample of 71 articles with 250,715 participants remained after 67 articles were
139 eliminated. Studies were excluded if they: (a) did not measure or explicitly evaluate change in
140 eating behaviors, (b) focused on child and adolescent populations exclusively, (c) focused on
141 elderly populations exclusively, (d) focused on individuals with eating disorders or other health
142 conditions exclusively, (e) were archival, not cross-sectional or not longitudinal, and (f) had not
143 yet published preprints of their full articles. Please see Figure 1 for a detailed visual summary of
144 the articles included and excluded from the present study.

145 **Results**

146 The 71 studies with 250,715 participants included in the final review consist of findings
147 from 32 countries with the United States (US; n=11), the United Kingdom (UK; n=8), Italy
148 (n=5), Spain (n=5), and Turkey (n=5) being the most studied. There were potentially more than

149 32 countries represented in these articles as some samples were listed as coming from locations
150 such as “Europe,” “Northern Africa,” or simply “Other.” Most studies were cross-sectional (66
151 studies; 93%), but 5 (7%) featured longitudinal designs. Nearly all studies (69; 97%; two were
152 unspecified) reported on data collected between March 2020 and June 2020. Table 1 categorizes
153 articles by study outcomes and provides a summary of study characteristics.

154 **Changes in Amount of Food Consumed**

155 A total of 24 studies addressed changes to total food intake during the COVID-19
156 pandemic.^{13,40–62}

157 Twelve studies conducted in Poland,^{44,62} Italy,^{46,55} the UK,⁴⁵ the Netherlands,⁵⁶ Spain,^{52,54}
158 Greece,⁵⁴ Chile,⁵⁸ Saudi Arabia,⁴³ Germany,⁵⁰ and the United Arab Emirates (UAE)⁵⁷ assessed
159 self-reported changes in quantity of food consumed during (vs. before) the pandemic using
160 bipolar scales and response options including decreased, no change, and increased.^{43–46,50,52,54–}
161 ^{58,62} Given the synonymous nature of the items used, an aggregated analysis was conducted to
162 capture the composite trends across studies (n= 14,401; see Table 2).

163 Across studies included in the aggregated analysis, the largest proportion of participants
164 (44.9%) reported no change in their food intake during the pandemic. The next largest group of
165 respondents (31.0%) indicated an increase in food intake, and the third largest group indicated
166 decreased intake (24.1%). Results from Chenarides et al. (2021) were excluded from the analysis
167 because the item measuring changes in the amount of food consumed included additional
168 response options related to healthy eating and allowed respondents to select multiple answers.¹³
169 The question *how much has your diet changed since COVID-19 started* included the following
170 response options: *ate less, ate about the same, ate more, ate less healthy, and ate more healthy.*
171 Though excluded, the findings roughly mirrored the general pattern with 59.0% reporting they

172 ate about the same diet, 21.4% reporting they ate more, and 13.5% reporting they ate less since
173 COVID-19 started.¹³

174 It should be noted that the Papandreou et al. (2020) study results differed considerably
175 from the other studies that examined change in consumption quantity, with most respondents
176 (69.2%) in this particular sample reporting a decrease in total intake.⁵⁴ When this study's results
177 are not included in the analysis, 49.1% of respondents report no change in intake, 33.4% report
178 an increase, and 17.5% report a decrease. See Table 3 for measures and finding for all studies not
179 included in the aggregated analysis.

180 Six studies used unipolar measures assessing only whether participants were eating more
181 during (relative to before) the pandemic.^{41,42,51,59-61} Most studies using this type of measure
182 found high proportions of individuals responding "yes" to increased consumption. The highest
183 percentage of individuals reporting more food intake came from a sample of adults in Al
184 Madinah city, Saudi Arabia, with 63% reporting increased food intake.⁴¹ A study of Portuguese
185 adults had the lowest reported increase with only 31.6% of individuals responding that they ate
186 more during the pandemic.⁴² A study based in Italy showed nuanced reporting of increased food
187 intake, with 46.1% reporting "Yes, a bit more" and only 6.8% reporting "Yes, much more."⁵⁹
188 This distinction in the reported amount of increase highlights a key limitation of self-reported
189 responses for food consumption; for most measures, it is unclear how much of an increase over
190 normal habits respondents are indicating with their "yes" responses. Different perceptions and
191 responses to forced-choice, binary appraisals of food consumption may lead to a distortion in the
192 overall trends regarding food intake behaviors.

193 One study from Kenya and Uganda measured whether people ate less.⁴⁰ Significant
194 increases in the amount of people reporting eating less food than they thought they should were

195 found in the total sample (54% during the COVID-19 period, 23% during normal periods) and
196 both subsamples (Kenya: 56% during COVID-19 period, 24% during normal periods; Uganda:
197 48% during COVID-19 period, 19% during normal periods). This question was part of a food
198 insecurity questionnaire which, taken all together, showed significantly lower rates of food
199 security during the COVID-19 period compared to normal periods before the pandemic.⁴⁰

200 While the remaining four studies used unique measure formats or populations to study
201 changes in food intake, results aligned with the findings obtained via the other measurement
202 strategies. One study of Canadian families showed that the most common eating behavior change
203 was an increase in eating, reported among 57% of mothers, 46% of fathers, and 42% of
204 children.⁴⁷ Two studies used validated measures of energy intake. One found that on average,
205 French participants reported eating significantly more (~235 kcal/day) during the first month of
206 lockdown compared to the month before.⁵³ Similarly, a longitudinal study of Australian adults
207 showed that among females there was a significant increase (19.5%) in average 24-hour energy
208 intake compared to reported levels from 2018 and 2019.⁴⁸ Lastly, Herle et al. (2021) gathered
209 longitudinal data to assess changes in eating behaviors over the first 8 weeks of lockdown.⁴⁹
210 Using latent profile analyses, they found the most common profile response (64%) to be one of
211 no change in eating behaviors, followed by 16% reporting persistently eating more. About 9%
212 reported persistently eating less, while 8% showed an initial increase followed by a steady
213 decrease and 4% reported no changes in the first week and then a steady increase in consumption
214 over time.⁴⁹

215 **Changes in Eating Frequency and Timing**

216 Eating frequency in the context of the present review relates to the number of total meals
217 and snacks consumed daily, and whether this number has changed under the circumstances of the

218 pandemic and the associated periods of home confinement that occurred globally. In total, 20
219 articles discussed the frequency of eating.^{41,42,44,48,52,54–56,60,61,63–72} Timing involves the intake of
220 meals and snacks as it relates to the respondent's typical eating schedule over a 24-hour period.
221 There were three articles that presented evidence of how meal timing has been impacted by the
222 COVID-19 pandemic and the resulting disruptions to routines, patterns, and schedules.^{54,56,73}
223 Meal skipping was determined to be a distinct, specified behavior and is thus covered in a later
224 section.

225 See Tables 4 and 5 for overviews of findings and measures used.

226 *Frequency of meals and snacks*

227 **Meals.** The predominant trend of the 13 studies reviewed^{41,42,44,52,54,64–67,69–72} was no
228 change in the number of meals individuals reported consuming during the COVID-19 pandemic
229 compared to prior.^{42,54,67,69,71,72} For example, the majority of cross-sectional study participants in
230 Turkey (71%),⁷¹ China (60%),⁷² and Italy (58%)⁶⁷ reported no change in the number of meals
231 consumed.

232 When the number of meals eaten throughout a given day did change, it largely
233 increased.^{41,44,52,64–66,70} For example, an international survey with participants predominantly
234 representing Western Asia, Northern Africa, and Europe found that the number of meals
235 consumed per day significantly increased during the home confinement period ($t = -5.83$, $p <$
236 0.001 , $d = 0.22$).⁶⁴ Specifically, there were increases in the number of participants consuming 4
237 meals, 5 meals, and more than 5 meals during confinement compared to prior to confinement.
238 Similarly, studies in the UAE and Middle East and North Africa (MENA) regions found
239 increases in the number of meals consumed per day with those consuming five or more meals per
240 day increasing significantly.^{65,66} Furthermore, a study of Spanish adults found that the “pattern”

241 of number of meals among the study population changed with more people consuming five
242 meals a day during confinement (23%) compared to before (1%).⁵²

243 A UK-based study (n= 2,002) found that 44% of respondents increased meal frequency
244 (26% reported a little more, 14% more, and 4% a lot more) followed by 34% reporting they ate
245 the same number of meals.⁷⁰ These data once again illustrate the nuances in the magnitude of
246 changes in the number of eating occasions that are not visible in measures that only consider
247 overall increase or decrease.

248 The remaining studies evaluated frequency of meals utilizing measures that are less
249 common in the literature. One study of 1,404 adults in Portugal reported that 55% of participants
250 did not eat at a higher frequency; however, the extent to which eating frequency stayed the same
251 or decreased is unclear.⁴²

252 **Snacks.** Across the 12 studies that assessed snacking frequency^{44,48,54–56,60,61,63,64,68,70,71},
253 most found that individuals either reported an increase^{44,55,60,64,70} or no change^{61,63,71} in snacking
254 frequency. For example, increased snacking was reported by 56% of a sample from the UK (27%
255 a little more, 21% more, 8% a lot more),⁷⁰ 51.8% of a sample from Poland,⁶⁰ and 32.7% of a
256 sample from Italy (28.0% indicated they don't consume snacks usually, and 28.0% reported no
257 change).⁵⁵ Similarly, international samples from Western Asia, Northern Africa, and Europe
258 reported a significant increase in the number of snacks and the proportion of participants
259 snacking between meals or late-night snacking during home confinement compared with
260 snacking behavior prior to the pandemic ($t = -6.89$, $p < 0.001$, $d = 0.30$).⁶⁴ Further, while studies
261 from Turkey,⁷¹ Denmark,⁶¹ and Qatar⁶³ found that the most common response was no change
262 (57.5%, 47.5%, and 45.5% respectively), a large proportion of the samples also reported
263 increased snacking (38%, 41.7%, and 35.3%, respectively).

264 Two studies assessed how the relationship between COVID-19 confinement and snacking
265 frequency might be modified by other factors such as gender and snack healthfulness.^{48,68} One
266 longitudinal study of university students in Australia found that levels of snacking were no
267 different between 2018, 2019, and 2020 samples of men, but snacking increased among
268 women.⁴⁸ Additionally, in a study focused on Australia, the US, the UK, and Canada, 25.8% of
269 participants reported an increase in healthy snacking, while 43.5% of participants reported an
270 increase in unhealthy snacking.⁶⁸

271 Two studies measuring snacking frequency found snacking did not increase among their
272 participants; however, the survey did not differentiate whether a 'no increase' response meant that
273 the respondents were eating the same amount as before or less than before.^{54,56} For example, one
274 study reported that only 34.1% of a Spanish sample and 40.8% of a Greek sample answered
275 “yes” to a measure of increased snacking.⁵⁴

276 *Timing of meals and snacks*

277 There is limited evidence available illustrating how timing of eating has been impacted
278 by the COVID-19 pandemic. Three studies asked participants to indicate how their eating
279 routines had changed during confinement compared to before.^{54,56,73} In a study of adults from
280 India (n=422), 50.2% of respondents reported their eating schedule did change, and 11.1%
281 reported that their schedule might have changed.⁷³ Papandreou et al. (2020) and Poelman et al.
282 (2021) both included measures of meal timing but did not explicitly ask their participants how
283 they modified their meal schedules.^{54,56} As previously mentioned, Papandreou et al. (2020)
284 measured frequency and timing in the same question. They report that 59.8% of the sample from
285 Spain and 51.7% of the sample from Greece did maintain the same hours and numbers of meals

286 during the pandemic.⁵⁴ Additionally, 16.9% of participants from the Netherlands reported that
287 they “ate at different times” during the lockdown period.⁵⁶

288 **Changes in Consumption of Specific Food Types**

289 A total of 38 articles reported on changes in the consumption of specific foods.<sup>13,40,43-
290 45,47,48,50,51,54,55,57-59,61-63,65-69,71,74-88</sup> Through a thematic analysis of major food categories
291 assessed, this review summarizes trends in consumption for the following: fruits and vegetables,
292 breads and grains, meats and seafood, legumes, frozen foods, homemade foods, fast food,
293 “snack” foods, and sweets and/or bakery products. See Table 6 and Table 7 for a summary of
294 measures and findings.

295 ***Fruits and Vegetables***

296 Thirty-one studies examined how the consumption of fruits and vegetables changed
297 during the pandemic; 12 studies examined the consumption of fruits and vegetables
298 together^{13,43,47,55,58,59,63,75,79,81,86,87} while 20 studies examined fruits separately from
299 vegetables.^{40,44,45,50,51,61,62,67-69,71,76-78,80-85} One of these studies examined fruits and vegetables
300 both together and separately.⁸¹

301 Of the 12 studies that measured fruit and vegetable consumption together using a single-
302 item measure (increased, decreased, or remained the same during the pandemic), six studies from
303 Brazil, Qatar, the US, the UK, Canada, Italy (2 studies), and Chile found that the largest group of
304 participants (48.4%-69.2%) reported that their consumption of fruits/vegetables did not change
305 during the pandemic.^{13,55,58,59,63,75} The second most common response (22.1%-32.4%) was an
306 increase in fruit/vegetable consumption.^{13,55,58,59,63} Increased consumption was the most common
307 response in studies from Saudi Arabia and Spain^{43,79} and a decrease in consumption was the
308 primary finding for studies from Brazil, Zimbabwe, and the US.^{81,86,87} In one study from Canada

309 more fathers and children reported eating more (fathers: 32%, children: 24%) rather than less
310 (fathers: 12%, children: 20%) fruits and vegetables during the pandemic; however, more mothers
311 reported eating less (mothers: 22%) rather than more (mothers: 20%).⁴⁷

312 **Fruits.** Of the 20 studies investigating fruit consumption independently, ten used a
313 single-item measure (i.e., increased, decreased, or remained the same).^{45,50,51,61,62,71,76,81,83,84}
314 Seven of these ten studies (from Poland, Denmark, Spain, Lithuania, Germany, Turkey, and the
315 US) found that the largest group of participants (49.4%-68%) reported no change in fruit
316 consumption during the pandemic.^{50,51,61,62,71,76,84} An increase in consumption was the second
317 most frequently reported response (18%-49.1%) for four of these studies^{50,51,71,84} whereas a
318 decrease was second most common (20.1%-33.4%) in three studies.^{61,62,76} One study conducted
319 in the UK primarily found an increase in consumption⁴⁵ and one study from Zimbabwe reported
320 decreases.⁸¹

321 However, results suggest possible nuances in fruit consumption rates. For example, while
322 fruit consumption in one study of Iranian adults was not significantly different before vs. during
323 the early pandemic, the researchers found a 2.8% increase in families who reported consuming
324 “vitamin A-rich fruits” during the pandemic and a 2.2% decrease in families who reported
325 consuming “fruits” during the pandemic.⁸³

326 Findings from studies using other measures of fruit consumption confer mixed results,
327 including studies from Italy, Brazil, Kenya/Uganda, and Canada showing that fruit consumption
328 decreased for more respondents than it increased,^{40,67,78,80} studies from the
329 US/UK/Australia/Canada/other, Kuwait, Nigeria, Island of Ireland/Great Britain/US/New
330 Zealand, and Spain showing the opposite pattern,^{68,69,77,82,85} and a study from Poland showing no
331 change overall.⁴⁴

332 **Vegetables.** Nine of the 20 studies investigating vegetable consumption used a single-
333 item measure (i.e., consumption increased, decreased, or remained the same).^{45,50,51,61,62,71,76,81,84}
334 Of these nine, six studies out of Lithuania, Germany, Denmark, Poland, Spain, and Turkey found
335 that the majority of participants (53.5%-71%) reported no change in their overall vegetable
336 consumption during the pandemic^{50,51,61,62,71,84} with the second most frequently reported option
337 being increased consumption (17%-40.5%) in four studies^{50,51,71,84} and decreased consumption
338 (19.4%-19.5%) in two studies.^{61,62} The primary findings of studies from the UK and Canada
339 were increases in consumption.^{45,78} Three studies from Iran, the US, and Zimbabwe assessed
340 specific vegetables with most reporting no change in consumption (i.e., for vitamin A-rich
341 vegetables, tubers, starchy and non-starchy vegetables, dark green leafy vegetables and “other”
342 vegetables) or decreased consumption (i.e., for dark green leafy vegetables, vegetables in
343 general).^{76,81,83}

344 Research using other measures of vegetable consumption is similarly mixed, with two
345 studies from Poland and US/UK/Australia/Canada/other reporting no change,^{44,68} three studies
346 from Kuwait, Kenya/Uganda, and Brazil reporting decreases,^{40,69,80} and four studies from Italy,
347 Nigeria, Island of Ireland/Great Britain/US/New Zealand, and Spain showing increases.^{67,77,82,85}

348 ***Bread and Grains***

349 Eleven studies examined how the consumption of bread, grains, and/or cereals changed
350 during the pandemic.^{13,44,50,55,62,67,69,76,78,81,83}

351 Five studies from Poland, the US, Italy, Germany, Kuwait looked at how the
352 consumption of bread changed during the pandemic and results varied by bread type.^{44,50,67,69,76}
353 When just asked about bread consumption in general, most participants reported either no change
354 or increased consumption.^{50,67} White bread consumption tended to either remain stable or

355 increase.^{69,76} One study based in Poland found no change in the frequency of consumption of
356 white bread, but a significant decrease in the portion size of white bread.⁴⁴ Dark and
357 brown/brown seed bread tended to either remain stable or decrease.^{69,76}

358 Considering grains, consumption tended to remain the same.^{13,44,62,78} Studies based in
359 Poland and the US found that the highest portion (59.35%-72.3%) of participants reported no
360 change in their consumption of grains and whole grains.^{13,62} Similarly, one Polish study found no
361 significant change in the consumption of buckwheat oats.⁴⁴ Conversely, a study based in Canada
362 found that there was a significant decrease in the consumption of refined grains and a significant
363 increase in consumption of whole grains.⁷⁸

364 Four studies asked participants about their consumption of cereals (i.e., pasta,
365 rice).^{55,67,81,83} Two studies from Iran and Italy found that consumption of cereals did not
366 change.^{55,83} When consumption did change, results were mixed, with one study from Italy
367 finding that more people reported increased intake (24.7%) than reduced intake (5.3%)⁶⁷ and one
368 study from Zimbabwe reporting that the highest portion of participants (41.7%) had a decreased
369 consumption of cereals, breads, and tubers.⁸¹ One study from the US found that white rice or
370 pasta was either unchanged (62.5%) or increased (26.8%) and brown rice or whole-grain pasta
371 was either unchanged (76.8%) or decreased (15.1%).⁷⁶ Similarly, a study from Poland found no
372 significant change in the consumption of white rice and white pasta.⁴⁴

373 ***Meats***

374 A total of 20 studies examined how the consumption of various types of meat changed
375 during the pandemic.^{13,40,43,44,50,51,55,61-63,67,69,71,76-78,81,83-85} Overall, meat consumption remained
376 the same as pre-pandemic levels or decreased.

377 Nine of the 20 studies asked participants about how their consumption of meat in general
378 changed during the pandemic.^{13,40,43,50,55,63,77,78,81} Studies from Qatar, Germany, Zimbabwe, the
379 US, Saudi Arabia, and Italy found that for the majority of participants (45.9%-72.6%)
380 consumption did not change.^{13,43,50,55,63,81} The second most common response for studies from
381 the US, Germany, Qatar, Zimbabwe was decreases in meat consumption.^{13,50,63,81} The second
382 most common response for studies in Saudi Arabia⁴³ and Italy⁵⁵ was increases in protein
383 consumption, though the study from Italy included non-meat proteins. One study from Canada
384 also found increases in protein consumption, including non-meat sources.⁷⁸ On the other hand,
385 studies from Kenya, Uganda, Nigeria found that fewer respondents reported frequent
386 consumption of meat during the pandemic (16%-22.4%) than before the pandemic (41.6%-
387 51.2%)⁴⁰ and fewer participants reported having a preference for meat during (22.9%) compared
388 to before the pandemic (29.2%).⁷⁷

389 Six studies based in Poland, the US, Kuwait, and Italy assessed changes in the
390 consumption of processed meat during the pandemic and found that the majority of participants
391 reported no change.^{44,61,62,67,69,76} When consumption did change, there were both increases^{44,69,76}
392 and decreases^{62,67} reported.

393 Six studies conducted in Poland, Italy, Denmark, Lithuania, Kuwait, and Spain
394 investigated how the consumption of red meat changed during the pandemic.^{44,51,61,67,69,84} The
395 most common result was no change in red meat consumption; however, when red meat
396 consumption did change, it tended to decrease.^{44,51,61,67,69,84}

397 Three studies from Kuwait, the US, and Kenya/Uganda^{40,69,76} examined how the
398 consumption of poultry products changed during the pandemic, with results indicating no
399 change⁷⁶ or decreases in consumption.^{40,69}

400 Of the more specified measures of meat consumption, no change in intake was the most
401 common response for low-fat meats (Poland),⁶² flesh meats (Iran),⁸³ “red meat, chicken, and
402 fish” (Turkey),⁷¹ and “beef, pork, or lamb” (US)⁷⁶. One study in Italy found that more participants
403 reported an increased consumption of both white meat and preserved meat than a reduced
404 consumption⁶⁷ and one study in Spain found that there was an increase in the percentage of
405 participants who reported consuming two or more portions of “red meat, hamburgers, sausages,
406 or cold meats” per day during the pandemic (17.3%) compared to 12.9% who did so before the
407 pandemic.⁸⁵ Conversely, one study in Iran found a significant decrease in the consumption of
408 organ meats.⁸³

409 ***Fish and/or Seafood***

410 A total of 13 studies measured changes in consumption of fish and/or seafood during the
411 pandemic.^{40,44,51,61,62,67,69,76,78,83–85,88} Studies from Poland, Denmark, Spain, Lithuania, Iran, and
412 the US found that the majority of participants (68.4%-78.3%) reported that their consumption of
413 fish and/or seafood remained the same during the pandemic.^{44,51,61,62,76,83,84} When consumption
414 did change, it tended to decrease (14.3%-21%).^{51,62,76,84} In fact, studies from Kuwait, China
415 (longitudinal), Kenya, and Uganda found that a decrease in consumption was most
416 common.^{40,69,88} However, increases in consumption were also reported in Canada and Spain.^{78,85}
417 One study from Italy found that consumption changed by type of fish with an increase in
418 preserved and frozen fish intake and a decrease in fresh fish intake.⁶⁷

419 ***Legumes***

420 Eleven studies examined changes in the consumption of legumes during the
421 pandemic.^{44,51,55,61,62,67,80,81,83–85} Overall, findings from Poland, Denmark, Spain, Lithuania,
422 Turkey, and Zimbabwe suggest that intake of legumes remained at similar levels during

423 compared with before the pandemic,^{44,51,61,62,71,81,84} although several studies (in Spain, Italy, and
424 Iran) did report increased consumption,^{67,83,85} and one study (in Brazil) reported a decrease.⁸⁰
425 One study from Italy looked at proteins and included in this list was meat, fish eggs, cheese, and
426 legumes.⁵⁵ They found that for most participants (54%) protein consumption was unchanged,
427 with the second most common response being increased consumption (27.3%).⁵⁵

428 ***Frozen Foods***

429 One longitudinal study⁸⁸ from China and five cross-sectional studies^{13,63,65,66,80} from the
430 US, Qatar, UAE, MENA, and Brazil measured changes in frozen food consumption with mixed
431 results suggesting an overall decrease^{66,88} or no change in intake.^{13,63,65} Conversely, in one study
432 out of Brazil there was an increase in participants who reported consuming ready-to-eat frozen
433 food (e.g., frozen pizza, frozen lasagna) more than two days a week during (14.6%) compared to
434 before (10.0%) the pandemic.⁸⁰

435 ***Fast Food***

436 Ten studies examined how the consumption of fast food changed during the
437 pandemic.^{13,44,47,51,61,62,65,66,68,84} Overall, consumption tended to remain the same^{51,61,62,84} or
438 decrease^{13,44,65,66,68} in countries including the US, UK, Australia, UAE, MENA, Poland,
439 Denmark, Spain, and Lithuania. In one study from Canada more people reported eating less
440 (mothers:42%, fathers: 44%, children: 26%) rather than more (mothers:10%, fathers: 13%,
441 children: 8%) fast food during the pandemic.⁴⁷

442 ***Homemade Foods***

443 Eight studies examined changes in consumption of homemade foods during the
444 pandemic.^{51,58,61,62,65-67,74} In contrast to all other food categories, the overall consumption of
445 homemade foods tended to increase during the pandemic; two studies found increases in the

446 percentage of participants that reported homemade meals as one of their most consumed meals
447 (MENA and UAE).^{65,66} One study found a significant increase in the frequency of eating home-
448 cooked meals (Saudi Arabia) and one study found that the majority of participants (59.6%)
449 reported cooking at home more than before the pandemic (Chile).^{58,74} Furthermore, a study in
450 Poland found the largest group of participants (48.8%) reported that their consumption of
451 homemade meals remained the same; the second most endorsed option was nearly as common
452 and was increased intake (48.0%).⁶²

453 Considering specific homemade foods, three studies from Poland, Denmark, and
454 Lithuania found most participants (50.8%-53.8%) reported no change in their consumption of
455 homemade pastries; however, a considerable percentage of participants (37.7%-39.9%) reported
456 an increase.^{51,61,62} Further, in a study out of Italy, more participants reported increased than
457 decreased consumption of both homemade sweets and homemade pizza.⁶⁷

458 ***Snack Food***

459 Eighteen studies assessed how the consumption of snack foods changed during the
460 pandemic.^{43,45,47,48,51,54,55,57,59,61-63,67,71,76,80,84,88}

461 One longitudinal⁴⁸ and eight cross-sectional^{43,47,51,54,55,61,71,84} studies showed that when
462 measured as an overall category, snack food intake tended to increase or remain stable in
463 Australia, Saudi Arabia, Canada, Lithuania, Spain, Greece, Italy, Denmark, and Turkey.

464 Considering specific snack foods, two studies conducted in Poland and the US examined
465 consumption of salty snacks (i.e., potato chips, crackers, popcorn)^{62,76} and one study from Italy
466 assessed salty and sweet snacks together.⁵⁹ In the three studies, most participants (49.6%-62.2%)
467 reported that their consumption of salty snacks was unchanged.^{59,62,76} The second most common
468 response was increased consumption (23.5%-37.4%) in the studies from Italy⁵⁹ and US⁷⁶ and

469 decreased consumption (19.7%) in the study from Poland.⁶² One study asked only about
470 increased consumption with 21% of respondents from the UAE reporting increased salty snack
471 intake.⁵⁷ However, results from a study conducted in Italy show more participants reported a
472 reduced intake (12.7%) compared to an increased intake (9.3%).⁶⁷

473 Considering savory snacks (i.e., peanuts or other nuts, cream crackers, cheese biscuits
474 and cheese, chips, salty biscuits), consumption tended to remain the same or increase.^{45,80} Two
475 studies found the highest proportion of participants (40-49%) reported no change in
476 consumption^{43,45} with the second highest portion of participants reporting increased consumption
477 (28%) in the UK⁴⁵ and equal portions reporting decreased consumption (30%) and increased
478 consumption (30%) in Saudi Arabia.⁴³ (Additionally, a Brazilian study found more participants
479 reported consuming savory snacks more than two days a week during the pandemic (13.2%)
480 compared to before the pandemic (9.5%).⁸⁰

481 Two studies measured changes in consumption of sweet snacks (i.e., chocolate, biscuits,
482 cakes, ice cream, cupcakes, cookies).^{45,57} One study from the UK found the highest portion of
483 participants (46%) reported that their consumption was unchanged, and the second most
484 common response (28%) was that consumption of sweet snacks increased.⁴⁵ Another study from
485 UAE found that only 7.1% of participants reported consuming more sweet snacks during vs.
486 before the pandemic.⁵⁷

487 One study from Qatar assessed snack consumption as the change in intake for both
488 healthier snack foods and unhealthful snacks and found the largest portion of participants
489 (41.1%-57.7%) reported no change in consumption regardless of healthfulness.⁶³ When
490 consumption did change, it tended to increase for healthy snacks (20.9%) and decrease for
491 unhealthy snacks (32.4%).

492 Finally, a longitudinal study from China examined the consumption of snacks and
493 beverages together and found most participants reported either stable (38%) or decreased
494 consumption (38%).⁸⁸

495 The results of all 18 studies that measured changes in snack food consumption indicate
496 that, in general, the consumption of snack foods either remained the same or increased during the
497 pandemic. The magnitude of the increased consumption was dependent on the type of snack
498 food.

499 *Sweets and/or Bakery Products*

500 A total of 19 studies examined how the consumption of various types of sweets and/or
501 bakery products changed during the pandemic.^{43,44,50,51,54,55,59,61-63,67,68,76-78,80,83-85} Overall,
502 consumption of sweets and/or bakery products tended to either remain the same or increase.

503 Ten of the 19 studies asked participants about pandemic-related changes in their
504 consumption of sweets in general or as a combined list of sweet foods (i.e., a single item with
505 multiple sweets listed).^{43,44,55,59,63,67,68,76,80,83} Studies from Saudi Arabia,⁴³ Poland,⁴⁴ Brazil,⁸⁰
506 Italy,⁵⁵ and a large international sample (US/UK/Australia/Canada/Other)⁶⁸ found the most
507 common response was an increase in sweet consumption (44%-50%). One study from the US,
508 found nearly equal proportions of participants reporting increased (43.9%) or no change (43.5%)
509 in consumption.⁷⁶ Studies from Qatar⁶³ and Italy⁵⁹ found the most common response was no
510 change in consumption (43.3%- 44%). Of these studies, the second most common response was
511 decreased consumption (28.7%) for one study⁶³ and increased (42.5%) for the other.⁵⁹ Finally,
512 one study from Iran found that there was a significant decrease in sweet consumption⁸³ and one
513 study from Italy found more participants reported a reduced intake (16.7%) compared to an
514 increased intake (11.3%) of sweets during the pandemic.⁶⁷

515 Five studies based in Denmark,⁶¹ Poland,⁶² Spain/Greece,⁵⁴ Spain,⁸⁴ and Lithuania⁵¹
516 assessed changes in the consumption of pastries during the pandemic. For most participants
517 (55.2%-60.6%) consumption was unchanged.^{51,61,62,84} Similarly, when asked if they consumed
518 more pastries during the pandemic, 69.4% of participants from Spain and 62.2% of the
519 participants from Greece responded they had not.⁵⁴ When consumption did change there were
520 both reported increases^{61,84} and decreases.^{51,62}

521 Two studies from an international sample (Nigeria/Turkey/US/Europe)⁷⁷ and Spain⁸⁵
522 examined how the consumption of bakery products in general changed during the pandemic. One
523 found fewer participants reported preferring bakery foods during the pandemic (10%) compared
524 to before (20%).⁷⁷ The other study found a significant increase in the consumption of bakery
525 foods during the pandemic.⁸⁵

526 Two studies from Poland⁶² and Germany⁵⁰ examined how the consumption of
527 confectionaries changed during the pandemic. The largest group of participants from Germany
528 (44.5%) reported increased consumption⁵⁰ while the largest group of participants from Poland
529 (48.7%) reported no change in consumption.⁶²

530 Two studies assessed more specified measures of sweets and/or bakery products.^{62,78} In
531 Poland, the most common response was no change in the consumption of sweetened spreads
532 (91.6%), ice cream and pudding (74.9%), and sweetened cereal and/or cereal bars (88.3%).⁶²
533 Additionally, one study from Canada found a significant decrease in the consumption of added
534 sugars.⁷⁸

535 **Healthy Eating**

536 A total of 21 studies addressed changes in the healthiness of food eaten during the
537 pandemic.^{40,46,53,55,56,62-64,67,68,70,72,74,85,89-95} See Table 8 for a summary of measures and findings.

538 Seventeen studies used self-report measures to gauge perceived changes in healthy eating
539 (e.g., before and during the pandemic “How would you rate your overall habits of eating healthy
540 foods?”).^{40,46,55,56,63,64,67,68,70,72,74,89–93,95} The most common finding was no change in the
541 healthiness of foods eaten.^{46,55,56,63,67,90,92,95} When the second most common responses are
542 considered for studies that had predominately no-change responses, results are almost equally
543 mixed between increases and decreases in healthy eating. One study out of Qatar found large
544 numbers of participants reported improved healthiness of their diets with 44.5% of respondents
545 perceiving a decrease in unhealthy food consumption and 32.3% perceiving an increase in
546 healthy consumption.⁶³ Concordantly, studies from Italy⁴⁶ and France⁹⁵ found the second most
547 common response behind no change (47% and 54% respectively) was improved diet quality
548 (34%)⁴⁶ and a more balanced diet (29%).⁹⁵ However, the second most common response in a
549 study from Italy was a worsening in eating habits (37.2%)⁶⁷ and one large international study
550 found more participants reported eating less healthfully (35.6%) than more healthfully (20.7%).⁶⁸

551 When the most common response was a change in self-reported perceptions of healthy
552 eating (meaning more respondents indicated there was a change in the healthiness of their meals
553 than not) changes were divided between increases and decreases in healthy eating. For example,
554 one study from Saudi Arabia found that there was a significant increase in participants rating
555 their food as good/excellent in healthiness (22.3% before to 29.5% during the pandemic).⁷⁴
556 Similarly, a study from Vietnam found that 42.8% of respondents reported eating healthier in
557 2020 than before the pandemic.⁹¹ Conversely, three studies tended towards decreases in
558 healthiness during the pandemic relative to before; one international study with respondents from
559 North Africa, Western Asia, Europe, and 3% “other” countries (not specified by the authors)
560 found that there was a significant increase in participants reporting unhealthy eating from before

561 to during the pandemic.⁶⁴ A study from Scotland showed 40.9% of respondents reported their
562 diet was less healthy in 2020 than it was pre-pandemic⁹² and 61.2% of participants from a US
563 study reported greater challenge in adhering to healthy diet plans during the pandemic relative to
564 before.⁸⁹ Finally, 55% of a sample from Kenya and Uganda reported they were unable to eat
565 healthy/nutritious foods during the pandemic, compared to 21% before.⁴⁰ Findings from the
566 study suggests this limitation was related to participants experiencing higher levels food
567 insecurity during the pandemic.

568 Emblematic of these mixed results, studies from the UK⁷⁰ and US⁹³ found close to equal
569 proportions of self-reported diet change. In the US, 37% reported no change in overall diet, 32%
570 reported a healthier diet, and 31% reported a worse diet compared to before the pandemic.⁹³ In
571 the UK, 31% of participants stated there was no change in how often they ate healthy and
572 balanced meals while 35% reported eating healthier meals more frequently and 35% reported
573 less.⁷⁰

574 Six studies used self-report plus researcher categorization of healthiness to assess
575 changes during the COVID-19 pandemic (e.g., participants would report their consumption of
576 various categories of foods - fish, vegetables, etc. - and the researchers would use these self-
577 report data to code the extent to which the participant followed the Mediterranean diet) with
578 findings showing mixed results.^{53,62,67,68,85,94} For example, one study in Italy found that 37.4%
579 reported eating more foods deemed to be healthy defined here by their adherence to the
580 Mediterranean diet (e.g., fruits, nuts, etc.) and 35.8% ate healthy foods less.⁶⁷ Moreover, one
581 study in Poland generated three eating patterns based on consumption of healthy foods (e.g.,
582 vegetables) and non-recommended foods (e.g., sweets). The “constant” pattern of relatively
583 stable eating from before to during the pandemic included the largest portion of participants

584 (53%), followed by the “pro-healthy” pattern of eating (27.6%) characterized by increased intake
585 of healthy foods and decreased intake of non-recommended foods.⁶² Three studies used validated
586 measures of healthiness and found opposing results; a study from the US, UK, Australia, Canada
587 and a small portion of other countries found a significant increase in overall healthy eating
588 ($p < .001$),⁶⁸ whereas studies from France and Vietnam showed a significant decrease in healthy
589 eating compared to before lockdown ($p < .001$).^{53,94} Lastly, one Spanish study measured healthy
590 eating as high adherence to the Mediterranean diet, finding that there was an increase from 4.7%
591 to 8% adherence from before to during the pandemic.⁸⁵

592 **Eating Behaviors Not Otherwise Specified**

593 This section reviews 19 articles addressing changes in four categories of key eating
594 behaviors during COVID-19 compared to before: 1) binge eating,⁹⁶⁻⁹⁹ 2) uncontrolled/out of
595 control eating,^{64,100-102} 3) overeating,^{70,93} and 4) restrictive eating behaviors including meal
596 skipping and fasting.^{40,65-67,69,70,89,93,97,98,100,102-105} See Table 9 for a summary of measures and
597 findings.

598 ***Binge Eating, Uncontrolled Eating, and Overeating***

599 Taken together, binge eating, uncontrolled/out-of-control eating, and overeating represent
600 a similar set of disordered eating behaviors. Studying these behaviors in isolation can be hard for
601 researchers as measures are not always consistent across studies. For example, in this review
602 some studies measuring binge eating used full validated measures,^{97,98} a selected portion of a
603 questionnaire on eating patterns.⁹⁹ and researcher-derived items such as “compared with before
604 the COVID-19 virus crisis, I have binged on food.”⁹⁶ These differences not only provide a
605 challenge to generalize across studies but also make it hard to differentiate between these related
606 constructs. For instance, one study used the following two items to measure binge eating: “In the

607 past month, have you ever eaten so much food in a short period of time that you would be
608 embarrassed if others saw you (binge-eating)?" and "During the times when you ate this way, did
609 you feel you couldn't stop eating or control what or how much you were eating?"⁹⁹ These items
610 have strong conceptual overlap with out-of-control eating and overeating which are themselves
611 components of binge eating.

612 In the current review, we will be discussing the three constructs of binge eating, out-of-
613 control eating, and overeating as described in the original studies. Details about each measure
614 and their corresponding results can be found on Table 9.

615 **Binge Eating.** Binge eating is defined as eating a large amount of food in a short period
616 of time while feeling an inability to stop eating.¹⁰⁶ Four articles specifically discussed binge
617 eating and found that it generally increased or remained the same during the pandemic.⁹⁶⁻⁹⁹ For
618 example, in a study from the UK, 49% of participants reported increases in binge eating
619 compared to before the COVID-19 crisis (19% reported less and 33% reported no change).⁹⁶ A
620 large proportion of participants (34.6%) in a study from Australia also reported increased binge
621 eating behaviors during relative to before COVID-19 (60% reported no change).⁹⁸

622 Changes in binge eating were related to several factors. For instance, a longitudinal study
623 from the US found that binge eating was 2.88 times higher during the pandemic among
624 individuals who experienced pre-pandemic weight stigma.⁹⁹ Additionally, in one study from
625 France, increases in binge eating at the start of the pandemic were higher among those who had
626 higher BMI, perceived stress, stress related to lockdown, depression, and anxiety, as well as
627 those who were women and had probable eating disorders.⁹⁷ Moreover, anticipated bingeing in
628 the next two weeks during lockdown was associated with higher age, depression, stress related to

629 lockdown, COVID-19 media exposure, and risk of eating disorders and lower BMI, impulse
630 regulation, and body satisfaction.⁹⁷

631 **Uncontrolled/Out of Control Eating.** Uncontrolled eating can be described as the
632 inability to control the amount or type of eating once started, regardless of how much was
633 eaten.¹⁰⁶ A total of four articles included uncontrolled eating as a reported measure of eating
634 behavior change during the pandemic.^{64,100-102} Overall, there were increases in uncontrolled
635 eating. For example, in one study from North Africa, Western Asia, and Europe, there were more
636 participants reporting eating out of control most of the time (20.4%) and always (9.6%)
637 compared to before the pandemic (9.7% and 2.3% respectively).⁶⁴ Similarly, two studies from
638 Turkey found increases in uncontrolled eating behavior compared to before COVID-19,^{100,102}
639 one reported that increased uncontrolled eating was related to lower income (compared to higher
640 income) and younger age (18-20 years old compared to above 35).¹⁰⁰ Lastly, the majority of
641 participants in a study from the UK reported either agreeing (29.4%) or strongly agreeing
642 (23.7%) that it was more difficult to control or regulate their eating during the pandemic than it
643 had been before the pandemic.¹⁰¹

644 **Overeating.** Two articles discussed overeating.^{70,93} One study from the UK found
645 increases in overeating during lockdown compared to before, with increases related to being
646 female, being younger, and a lower education, as well as a higher BMI, having had COVID-19,
647 and having negative mental health since lockdown or a previous psychiatric diagnosis.⁷⁰
648 Additionally, a study from the US found equal proportions of respondents reporting more (39%)
649 and no change (39%) in overeating during the pandemic compared to before the pandemic.⁹³

650

651

652 ***Restrictive Eating***

653 Six studies assessed changes in restrictive eating (outside of meal skipping) during the
654 COVID-19 pandemic with mixed results.^{93,97,98,100,102,104} Two studies from Australia and the US
655 found that the majority of participants (59% and 52% respectively) reported no changes in food
656 restriction and restricted eating; however, the next largest portion of participants reported an
657 increase (27.6%) of food restriction in the study from Australia⁹⁸ and a decrease (28%) of
658 restricted eating in the study from the US.⁹³ In one study from Turkey, cognitive restraint
659 decreased during the pandemic,¹⁰⁰ and in another study, 9.1% of adults from Turkey reported
660 increased restrained eating during the pandemic.¹⁰²

661 Varying results in restrictive eating could be related to individual differences. One study
662 from France looked at factors related to changes dietary restriction and found anticipated dietary
663 restriction was higher among women, those whose BMIs were classified as “underweight” or
664 “obese,” as well as those who had higher stress related to lockdown, were at risk of eating
665 disorders, had higher levels of body dissatisfaction, lower impulse regulation and higher
666 endorsements of appearance ideals.⁹⁷ Similarly, a study of Lebanese adults showed that higher
667 restraint scores were predicted by greater fears related to COVID-19, higher BMI, and more
668 physical activity.¹⁰⁴

669 **Meal Skipping and Fasting.** Ten studies assessed meal skipping and fasting during the
670 pandemic generally finding either no change or a decrease during the pandemic compared to
671 before.^{40,65–67,69,70,89,93,103,105} For example, studies from the US and UK showed predominantly no
672 change (both 45%) or a decrease (30-31%) in meal skipping.^{70,93} In the same US based study, the
673 majority of individuals (54%) reported no changes in fasting, with 30% of participants reporting
674 less fasting.⁹³ Still, two studies from the UAE and MENA showed a significant decrease in meal

675 skipping comparing levels before the pandemic (64.4%-65.5%) and during the pandemic
676 (45.1%-46.2%).^{65,66} One study out of Kenya and Uganda did find that significantly more
677 individuals skipped meals during the COVID-19 period compared to before.⁴⁰ However, there
678 was a significant increase in food insecurity in this sample; skipping meals likely came out of
679 necessity which might be one possible explanation for the disparate findings.⁴⁰

680 There were differences in skipping depending on the meal. For example, one study from
681 Kuwait found there was a decrease in the amount of people skipping the snack between breakfast
682 and lunch and an increase in skipping lunch.⁶⁹ Similarly, during the pandemic, participants from
683 Turkey reported skipping breakfast and snacks less and skipping lunch more compared to before
684 the pandemic.¹⁰⁵ Finally, while 17.5% of people in a study from Italy reported skipping meals
685 they normally ate, 23.5% reported they introduced a snack/meal.⁶⁷

686 People cited different reasons for meal skipping. In a US study, parents with financial
687 concerns also reported cutting or skipping meals on more days per month during the pandemic
688 (11.0 ± 7.5 days/month) compared to before the pandemic (2.9 ± 2.2 days/month).¹⁰³ Another US
689 study also found that reports of meal skipping were related to financial strain (12.1% of
690 participants), but overall, the majority (78.3%) of the sample was not food insecure.⁸⁹ Finally,
691 studies from the UAE and MENA found that reasons for skipping meals changed with fewer
692 people reporting skipping meals due to lack of time and more in people citing: aims to lose
693 weight (18.5% up to 23.6%), fasting (10.3% up to 25.7%), lack of appetite (27.7% up to 36.0%),
694 and to reduce food intake (21.7% up to 29.1%).^{65,66}

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697

698 **Reasons for Eating**

699 This section reviews changes in reasons for eating reported during the COVID-19
700 pandemic relative to before the pandemic from a total of 27
701 articles.^{40,45,47,53,55,56,59,65,66,69,70,83,89,93,95,97,99–105,107–110}

702 One's reasons for changes in eating behaviors can be related to psychological, social, and
703 emotional states,^{111,112} all of which have been altered during the COVID-19 pandemic.¹⁷ In the
704 studies reviewed here, three general themes encompass participants' reasons for changes in
705 eating behavior: 1) emotions and mood, 2) cravings, weight control or body image, and 3)
706 increased/decreased environmental opportunity. See Table 10 for a summary of measures and
707 findings.

708 ***Emotions and Mood***

709 In general, cross-sectional^{45,70,100,107} and longitudinal¹⁰² studies showed increases in
710 emotional eating which were usually related to increased eating. For example, a study from the
711 UK found greater emotional overeating and lower emotional undereating behaviors were
712 associated with increased eating overall.⁴⁵ However, emotional eating did not look the same for
713 all respondents; for example, in one study from the UK, 42% of individuals ate more and 26%
714 ate less due to their feelings.⁷⁰

715 Considering general mood, 48% of participants from a study in France reported mood
716 was of increased importance to their eating behaviors and this increased importance was
717 associated with negative diet quality.⁵³

718 The following subsections discuss specific mood and emotion-related reasons for changes
719 in eating.

720 **Depression and anxiety.** Ten studies conducted out of France (3),^{95,97,109} Turkey (1),¹⁰⁵
721 Lebanon (1),¹⁰⁴ the US (1),⁹⁹ the UK (1),¹⁰¹ and Italy (3)^{55,59,107} found that depression and anxiety
722 (and related factors) were related to changes in eating behaviors during the early COVID-19
723 pandemic. For example, 34.7% of participants from a study based out of Italy reported that
724 anxiety and depression were the main reasons for changes in their eating habits.⁵⁵

725 Depression was investigated less than anxiety, however findings suggest that increased
726 depression and similar forms of negative mental health were related to specific changes in eating
727 behaviors. A study conducted in France reported that negative changes in depression were
728 associated with negative changes in nutrition.⁹⁵ Further, a longitudinal study from the US found
729 that experiences of weight stigma and weight-related teasing before the pandemic were related to
730 greater depression scores and eating as a coping mechanism during the pandemic.⁹⁹ Two studies
731 reported on factors related to depression. One study out of France found that those who reported
732 increased consumption of higher caloric and salty foods had a higher likelihood of lower mental
733 well-being.¹⁰⁹ Additionally, one study from the UK found that psychological distress was
734 associated with difficulties in eating regulation and control.¹⁰¹

735 Anxiety was highly related to several different changes in eating behaviors. For example,
736 one study from France found that higher anxiety was related to higher rates of both restriction
737 and binge eating.⁹⁷ In a study from Lebanon greater anxiety was associated with higher
738 participant eating concerns.¹⁰⁴ Additionally, one study from Turkey found that higher anxiety
739 was associated with increased consumption of certain types of food (e.g., milk, cheese, meat,
740 bread).¹⁰⁵

741 In some cases, eating was the source of anxiety, and in others, food was used to quell
742 anxiety. For example, one study conducted in Italy found 57.8% of their participants reported

743 feeling anxious about their eating habits.¹⁰⁷ In the same study participants reported eating as a
744 response to anxious feelings (48.7%), eating more to feel better (55.1%), and excluding certain
745 foods that specifically led to anxiety (20.3%).¹⁰⁷ In a similar study from Italy, 42.7% of
746 participants reported that of stress, anxiety, and boredom during quarantine were main reasons
747 for their diet and that they ate more “comfort food” as a response to the anxiety.⁵⁹

748 **Stress.** Eleven studies representing the US (4),^{89,93,99,110} France (3),^{95,97,109} Kuwait (1),⁶⁹
749 Poland (1),¹⁰⁸ and the Netherlands (1)⁵⁶ investigated stress and found increases in stress
750 eating^{89,110} feelings of stress managed by eating,^{56,99} the percentage of participants reporting
751 eating in response to stress,⁶⁹ and specific eating behaviors (e.g., bingeing, restricted eating)
752 related to stress.^{93,97} For example, 42.7% of participants in a study from Italy reported that
753 increased stress, anxiety, and boredom, was a main reason for their changes in diet over
754 quarantine.⁵⁹

755 Two studies from the US found increases in the frequency of stress eating and ⁸⁹ the
756 amount of food eaten in response to stress.¹¹⁰ In fact, there were many dietary changes in
757 response to stress. Two studies from France found that stress was related to increased
758 consumption of high calorie and salty food¹⁰⁹ and negative changes in diet nutrition.⁹⁵ Moreover,
759 19.2% of participants from a study from the Netherlands reported more stress was an important
760 reason for eating healthier during the lockdown.⁵⁶

761 Stress is also related to maladaptive eating behaviors. For example, in the US higher
762 stress was related to changes in fasting, restricted eating, skipping meals, and overeating ⁹³
763 Moreover, a study from France found that participants with higher perceived stress and higher
764 stress related to the COVID-19 lockdown had higher instances of binge eating.⁹⁷ Higher stress
765 was related to the lockdown was also related to food restriction.⁹⁷

766 **Fear and anger.** Studies from Lebanon,¹⁰⁴ Turkey,¹⁰⁵ Poland,¹⁰⁸ and Kuwait⁶⁹ found that
767 fear of COVID-19 and anger were reasons for eating changes during the pandemic.^{69,104,105,108}
768 Specifically, in a study out of Lebanon, fear of COVID-19 was related to higher scores in
769 restrained eating, and anger and fear of COVID-19 were associated with higher eating concern
770 scores.¹⁰⁴ In a study from Turkey, fear of COVID-19 was associated with increased eating of
771 specific foods such as cakes, cookies, cheese, and dried fruit.¹⁰⁵ One study out of Poland
772 explained that fear of limited access to food (reported by 39% of participants) was most strongly
773 predicted by perceived changes in food availability.¹⁰⁸ Finally, in a study out of Kuwait, a greater
774 number of people who reported eating when they felt angry, stressed, unhappy, or bored was
775 larger during the pandemic compared to before.⁶⁹

776 **Boredom.** Five studies found boredom to be a strong influence on eating behaviors
777 during the COVID-19 pandemic.^{55,56,69,104,110} For example, one study from Italy found that
778 boredom was a main reason for changes in eating behaviors⁵⁵ and in another study from the US,
779 73% of adults reported eating more when bored.¹¹⁰ Studies from the Netherlands⁵⁶ and
780 Lebanon¹⁰⁴ found that boredom was linked to increased eating concern¹⁰⁴ and was a reason for
781 increased eating during lockdown compared to before.⁵⁶

782 *Cravings*

783 Three studies found that cravings increased or remained the same during the
784 pandemic.^{45,101,110} A study based in the UK found 46% of participants reported an increase in
785 cravings during (vs. before) the pandemic with only 23% reporting a decrease.⁴⁵ Craving
786 intensity was examined in the same study although 41% reported no changes in craving intensity,
787 the next largest group (36%) reported increased intensity of cravings. Moreover, a higher number
788 of people reported lower craving control during COVID-19 compared to before.⁴⁵ These results

789 parallel findings from the US in which 73% of participants reported an increase in “eating
790 because [they] crave certain foods” during the pandemic relative to before.¹¹⁰ Relatedly, in one
791 study from the UK, most participants reported that they were more preoccupied with food and/or
792 eating (37.8% agree, 21.8% strongly agree) during the pandemic compared to before.¹⁰¹

793 ***Weight Control and Body Image***

794 Four studies found that weight loss intentions, weight control, and body dissatisfaction
795 contributed to changes in eating behaviors.^{53,65,66,97} For example, one study conducted in France
796 assessing food choice motives found that higher perceived importance of weight control was
797 related to decreased nutritional quality during the pandemic.⁵³ Similarly, studies from the UAE
798 and MENA found increases in the amount of people citing weight loss intentions as a main
799 reason for skipping meals (18.5%-20.2% before and 23.6%-23.8% during, respectively).^{65,66}
800 Relatedly, a study out of France showed that greater feelings of body dissatisfaction and higher
801 endorsement of ideal body stereotypes were related to both increased dietary restriction and
802 binge eating during the pandemic.⁹⁷

803 ***Environmental Factors***

804 Thirteen articles reported on environmental factors as reasons for
805 eating.^{40,47,55,56,65,66,70,83,89,103,108–110} The specific social and physical environmental factors
806 assessed are presented below.

807 **Eating with Family & Friends.** Four studies found that the presence or absence of
808 family and friends influenced individuals’ eating during the pandemic.^{55,56,109,110} In a study from
809 Italy, 21.3% of participants reported family presence as impacting their eating behaviors.⁵⁵ These
810 findings were consistent with a study out of the US in which 59% of participants reported eating
811 more often with friends and family during quarantine compared to before quarantine.¹¹⁰

812 Similarly, on study conducted in France found that increased consumption of high calorie and/or
813 salty food was related to being alone during lockdown and having a partner.¹⁰⁹ Moreover, 17.8%
814 of participants from a study out of the Netherlands reported that fewer social contacts and feeling
815 lonely were important reasons for their eating less healthfully during the lockdown.⁵⁶

816 **Time.** Changes in available time showed mixed impacts on eating behaviors. Increased
817 time for cooking was reported among 32.7% of individuals from Italy, and increased cooking
818 time was cited as one of the main reasons for changes in eating behaviors during the pandemic.⁵⁵
819 One study from the UK found that 88% of participants had time to eat healthy.⁷⁰ This parallels
820 find from one study from the Netherlands where participants reported that more time and head
821 space to prepare healthy meals (30.3%) and more time and head space to be conscious about
822 healthy meals (26.3%) were some of the top reasons for eating healthier during lockdown.⁵⁶
823 However, in the same study, more leisure time (31.5%) and more time, head space and
824 opportunity to bake (19.2%) were some of the top factors for eating unhealthier during
825 lockdown.⁵⁶ Lastly, those reporting a lack of time as a main reason for meal skipping decreased
826 during the pandemic.^{65,66}

827 **Increased Exposure to Food.** Food availability and exposure to food cues were also
828 related to changes in eating behaviors during COVID-19. For example, in an Italian sample,
829 19.3% of participants reported the continuous availability of food as a main reason for eating
830 changes.⁵⁵ In a study from the Netherlands, 35.6% of participants endorsed an increase in
831 unhealthy temptations at home as a main reason for less healthful eating during the lockdown;
832 however, this same study also suggested decreased exposures to unhealthy food temptations at
833 work, social events, and dinners were important reasons for eating healthier during the

834 pandemic.⁵⁶ Finally, 65% of participants in a study from the US reported increased eating in
835 response to the sight and smell of food during COVID-19 compared to before.¹¹⁰

836 **Lack of Resources: Food Insecurity.** Food insecurity and low food availability were
837 further reasons for eating changes during the early months of the COVID-19 pandemic. In Kenya
838 and Uganda, there was a 39% increase in food insecurity (16% increase in severe insecurity), and
839 this was related to increases in worrying about not having enough food, being unable to eat
840 healthy/nutritious foods, eating only a few kinds of foods, skipping meals, eating less food,
841 running out of food, feeling hungry and not eating, and going without eating for a whole day.⁴⁰
842 Finding of food insecurity in the US were mixed; one study reported that food security lowered
843 by 17% and families with low food security increased by 20% during the pandemic.¹⁰³
844 Moreover, this same study explained that increases in skipped meals during the pandemic was
845 related to decreases in available money.¹⁰³ However, another study from the US found that
846 78.3% of the sample was not food insecure.⁸⁹ Moreover, one study conducted in Canada showed
847 low reports of food insecurity in the past month (at the time of the study) and low expectations of
848 food insecurity in the six months to come⁴⁷ and a study from Iran showed that food insecurity
849 significantly reduced during the pandemic.⁸³ Lastly, a study from Poland found 87.4% of
850 participants noticed changes in food availability, which was the strongest predictor of fear for
851 limited food access (reported by 39%).¹⁰⁸

852 **Discussion**

853 The COVID-19 pandemic has caused an unprecedented upheaval in the everyday
854 experiences of individuals around the world. The virus and the widely-mandated lockdowns used
855 to prevent its spread left people with limited access to care and support, caused a host of
856 economic and social stressors, and impacted mental health around the world.^{17,113} These

857 combined outcomes as well as the disruptions to daily routines can impact eating behaviors in
858 unexpected ways. It is important to understand how eating behaviors have changed during the
859 pandemic not only because of the well-established links between nutrition and a wide-variety of
860 chronic diseases, but also because of newly-emerging evidence linking diet with COVID-19
861 susceptibility.^{30,31}

862 This narrative review sheds light on how key eating behaviors changed globally during
863 the early stages of the COVID-19 pandemic for adults without eating disorders. In general, most
864 studies showed that dietary behaviors were more likely to remain the same during the pandemic
865 than they were to change. However, where behaviors like food intake did change, they tended
866 toward increased consumption. For example, aggregated analysis of total intake showed that
867 44.9% of individuals reported no change in the amount of food consumed during the COVID-19
868 pandemic, and the next most common response (31%) was an increase in consumption.
869 Similarly, frequency of consuming meals and snacks generally remained the same, with the next
870 highest response being an increase in the number of meals and snacks consumed. These results
871 are complicated by the use, in many studies, of simplified measures that assessed only increase,
872 decrease, or no change.

873 Regarding changes to types of foods consumed during the pandemic, intake largely
874 remained the same for most food groups, but trends did vary by food category. For fruits and
875 vegetables, legumes, white breads/pastas, homemade pastries, and snacks (general as well as
876 sweet, savory, and salty), participants reported stable or increased consumption. Decreased
877 consumption was reported for specific vegetables such as dark green leafy vegetables. For dark
878 breads/grains, meats (including red meats and processed meats), seafood/fish, frozen foods, and
879 fast food, participants tended to either report no change or decreased consumption. Many of

880 these increases and decreases could be at least partly explained by reduced access to restaurants
881 during COVID-related lockdowns.¹¹⁴ Indeed, increased consumption was found for homemade
882 foods in general (and for specific types of homemade foods measured separately, such as pizza
883 and sweets). However, purchasing and consumption behaviors might have shifted more minutely
884 in certain categories due to perceptions of COVID-19 and transmission. For example, people
885 fearing COVID-19 infection may be less likely to buy fruits and vegetables with porous and/or
886 edible skins but may also be keener to purchase and consume peelable vitamin A-rich fruits.⁸³ In
887 fact, it should be noted that, as detailed above, many other social, psychological, and
888 environmental factors also impacted dietary behaviors during the
889 pandemic.^{40,45,47,53,55,56,59,65,66,69,70,83,89,93,95,97,99–105,107–110} As discussed, location and food security,
890 among other factors, influence the types of foods one is able to obtain. These factors are
891 particularly important to consider in the case of fruits and vegetables and fish/seafood as access
892 can differ considerably by region.

893 Results concerning changes in healthy eating were decidedly mixed. Most self-reported
894 perceptions of changes showed stable levels of healthy eating; however, when eating behaviors
895 did change or were assessed with researcher-generated measures, a similar number of studies
896 reported increases and decreases in eating healthy during the pandemic compared to before.
897 Differing definitions and perceptions of healthfulness as well as the use of measurements derived
898 from various recommendation standards, often communicated on a country-by-country basis,
899 may explain some of these inconsistencies. Moreover, self-reported responses may be more
900 prone to biases due to social desirability and the desire to showcase a healthy lifestyle.^{115–117}

901 Findings show that binge eating, uncontrolled/out of control eating, and overeating
902 tended to increase during the COVID-19 pandemic compared to before. Mixed findings were

903 found for restrictive eating. In general, meal skipping and fasting decreased, however this varied
904 by region; some findings indicate increases in meal skipping, often due to financial concerns and
905 food insecurity. Of note, there have been several reviews of disordered eating behaviors
906 published prior to this review that lend more detailed findings and additional context to these
907 types of behaviors.¹¹⁸⁻¹²¹

908 Considering reasons for eating, emotions, and moods such as depression, stress, fear,
909 anger, and boredom were all related to changes in eating behaviors, often being an increase in
910 consumption. Cravings, weight control, and body image were also associated with eating
911 behavior changes. Eating more frequently with family and friends and increased exposure to
912 food cues were both related to an increase in food consumption, whereas food insecurity was
913 typically related to a decrease in food consumption. Increases in available time showed mixed
914 results, as some individuals reported cooking healthier meals more often and skipping meals less
915 often, while others used their leisure time to bake which was one of the top reported factors for
916 eating less healthfully during the pandemic.

917 The overwhelming majority of the research studies reviewed here show, for most people,
918 eating behaviors did not seem to change a great deal in the early periods of the COVID-19
919 pandemic. This dietary consistency even in the face of a pandemic could be because eating
920 behaviors are largely based in routines and other automatized behaviors.¹²² Although daily life
921 changed for many, evidence shows that these habitual behaviors have remained intact.⁵⁶

922 For those whose eating behaviors did change, they tended to increase in amount and
923 frequency of eating. Similarly, increases were noted for consumption of fruits and vegetables,
924 legumes, white breads/pastas, homemade pastries, and snacks, and for behaviors such as binge
925 eating, uncontrolled eating, overeating and dietary restraint. Notable decreases were found in

926 amount of food for those who were more food insecure and more generally in the consumption
927 of dark green leafy vegetables, dark breads/grains, meats, seafood/fish, frozen foods, and fast
928 food.

929 **Strengths and Limitations**

930 As of this writing, this is the first comprehensive international narrative review of
931 changes in eating behaviors during the COVID-19 pandemic. This review synthesizes results
932 from 71 articles from over 30 countries worldwide.

933 The inclusion of data from many countries is a strength of this research but also means
934 that readers must be aware that some data may not represent the patterns of dietary change that
935 may be prevalent in their home regions. For instance, all of the studies that reported on the
936 overall consumption of homemade foods were from countries in the Middle East; this leaves a
937 substantial gap in the current understanding of consumption of homemade foods in other areas of
938 the world. It could be erroneous to assume similar pandemic experiences across different regions
939 and countries; thus, it is important to consider the context of the studies reporting on the various
940 dietary behaviors included in this review when attempting to make inferences about any specific
941 geographic region.

942 Including only studies published or online-published in 2020 lends some benefits in
943 comparability among the studies published during this timeframe; in general, most studies
944 describe the time period between April and June, 2020. However, this scope provides limited
945 understanding of how eating behaviors progress as pandemic life becomes the “new normal.”
946 Future reviews and research studies should seek to longitudinally assess changes in eating
947 behaviors over the course of the pandemic to clarify whether the changes in eating behaviors
948 reported relatively early in the pandemic and reviewed here persist, cease, or otherwise change.

949 Moreover, the limited scope of this review necessitated the omission of numerous
950 biopsychosocial correlates of eating behaviors that were undoubtedly influential during the
951 pandemic. Previously existing inequities in health and wellbeing were exacerbated by the
952 COVID-19 crisis particularly in areas of food insecurity.¹²³ For instance, food insecurity during
953 the COVID-19 pandemic may have influenced people to redistribute their food budgets to
954 maximize their purchase in ways they might not have previously done (e.g., calories/cost,
955 storage-ability, etc.) ultimately resulting in an increased or decreased consumption of certain
956 foods.^{40,103,124} It is critical to study the intersecting disadvantages faced by individuals who have
957 been socially marginalized, as they are often overlooked in mainstream research despite their
958 relevance to public health policy.¹²⁵

959 **Challenges to Studying Eating During the COVID-19 Pandemic**

960 Disruptions along multiple facets of the research process have generated substantial
961 obstacles for researchers worldwide.¹²⁶ Social distancing measures reduced researchers' ability
962 to collect data from participants in person; thus, data collected during the pandemic were largely
963 self-reported. Although some self-report measures are the best options available for assessing
964 specific constructs (such as emotions), other self-report measures can be problematic in terms of
965 accuracy, especially regarding nutrition.¹²⁷ Qualitative research during the pandemic faced
966 challenges with interview processes while quantitative researchers, without standardized
967 pandemic-relevant measures, turned to self-generated items leading to a reduced ability to
968 compare findings across studies.¹²⁶ Many researchers encountered low response rates to studies
969 even when utilizing more accessible platforms such as online surveys which creates further
970 concerns about sampling bias.¹²⁶ Further, there has been a reduction in the timely and expedited
971 approvals from ethics review boards.¹²⁸ In addition to logistical obstacles, researchers studying

972 diet during the pandemic faced hurdles in acquiring the finances and technology needed to run
973 more-involved studies in a timely manner. Lastly, illness or caretaking responsibilities for those
974 who have become ill create extra constraints on researcher time and availability.

975 The barriers described above are prevalent in the research on eating behaviors, as a
976 paucity of researchers used objective measures in assessing dietary patterns and behaviors.
977 Moreover, truly capturing changes in eating behaviors in an objective way necessitates extant
978 longitudinal designs with comparative data both before and during the pandemic. Only five
979 studies included in this review utilized longitudinal designs.^{48,49,88,99,102} Further, conducting
980 controlled experiments assessing the impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on dietary behaviors
981 was implausible; thus, results from this time period are based in descriptive statistics and cross-
982 sectional associations, and causality should not be inferred.

983 **Implications and Recommendations for Future Research**

984 Scientists have speculated that while it has been over 100 years since the last major
985 pandemic (i.e., the 1918 influenza pandemic), the COVID-19 pandemic will likely not be the
986 only pandemic of the 21st century.¹²⁹ Research from the COVID-19 pandemic not only benefits
987 current understanding of the pandemic as it continues to wreak havoc around the globe, but also
988 informs public health professionals about key changes in health behaviors that may be impacting
989 the spread of the virus and the effectiveness of mitigation techniques. Similarly, many lessons
990 can be learned to inform the empirical study of eating behaviors in future public health
991 emergencies.

992 One of the pressing questions surrounding the COVID-19 pandemic is about the lasting
993 changes it will make to day-to-day life around the globe. Strategically-designed longitudinal
994 studies benefit understanding of dietary changes over time. Given that many of the studies

995 conducted in 2020 and reviewed here examined earlier timepoints in disease spread and
996 lockdown orders, there exists a dearth of research addressing the long-term effects of the
997 COVID-19 pandemic on eating behaviors around the globe. While this review found that
998 changes in eating behaviors during the pandemic were less prevalent than stable eating patterns,
999 determining how eating changes over the course of the pandemic lends valuable insights
1000 regarding altered patterns of behavior during times of crisis, isolation, and daily routine change.

1001 An important area for future research is developing resilience in healthy eating patterns
1002 during pandemic conditions. In addition to generalized health benefits, consumption of nutritious
1003 foods has been highlighted as an effective tool for personal risk management through bolstered
1004 immune system functioning.^{30,130} Moreover, further studies should focus on clinical and sub-
1005 clinical instances of disordered eating to increase access to care and counseling services as
1006 research shows that these populations might be particularly vulnerable to eating behavior
1007 disturbances.¹³¹ Lastly, researchers should continue to address how weakness in the economic
1008 systems due to public health crises impact food insecurity and corresponding changes in eating
1009 behaviors.

1010 Summary

1011 Although the COVID-19 pandemic has been associated with some changes in what and
1012 how people eat, by and large, eating behaviors remained quite stable during the COVID-19
1013 pandemic. When changes did occur, there tended to be increases in the amount and frequency of
1014 food intake, consumption of food such as snacks and specified behaviors such as binge eating,
1015 uncontrolled eating, and overeating. Decreases were found for foods such as fast food and for
1016 meal skipping behaviors. Changes in eating behaviors were typically related to changes in mood,
1017 emotion, cravings, and/or the environment. Despite the comprehensive nature of this review,

1018 many related biopsychosocial variables are not fully explored. Further work is needed to address
1019 the impact of critical factors such as food insecurity. By understanding how health behaviors
1020 such as eating change under pandemic conditions, public health officials can develop more
1021 targeted campaigns to improve health on a local, national, or international scale.

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Table 1. Study Characteristics and Outcome Variables for 71 Studies Reporting Changes in Eating Behaviors During the Initial Months of the COVID-19 Pandemic

Study characteristics			Change outcome variables						
Citation	Location, dates, & design	Sample characteristics ^a	Amount of Food	Frequency of eating	Timing of eating	Types of food eaten	Healthy Eating	Specified Eating Behaviors	Reasons for Eating
Adams et al., 2020 ¹⁰³	US April 30– May 23, 2020 Cross-sectional survey	N=584 parents Sex Parents: 94.5% female, 5.5% male Sex Children: 52.1% female, 47.9% male Mean Age Parents: 40.4±7.2 years Mean Age Children: 9.6±3.8 years Race and Ethnicity Parents: 82.7% Caucasian/white, 6% African American, 4.3% Asian, 2.9% American/Indian, 6.5% other, 14.7% Hispanic/Latino Race and Ethnicity Children: 82.4% Caucasian/white, 10.1% African American, 5.0% Asian, 3.3% American/Indian, 9.1% other, 19.0% Hispanic/Latino						X	X
Alhuseini & Alqahtani, 2020 ⁷⁴	Riyadh Saudi Arabia May 5– May 15, 2020 Cross-sectional survey	N=2706 Sex: 54.2% female, 45.8% male Age: 70.2% aged 18-35 years Race and Ethnicity: 92.2% Saudi, 7.8% Non-Saudi			X	X			
Aljohani, 2020 ⁴¹	Saudi Arabia, Al Madinah city April– June 2020 Cross-sectional survey	N= 782 Gender: 52.2% females, 47.8% males Age: 41.9% aged 31-40 years	X	X					
Almandoz et al., 2020 ⁸⁹	US, Texas April 15– May 31, 2020	N=123 patients with obesity Sex: 87% female, 13% male Mean Age: 51.2 ± 13 years Race and Ethnicity: 49.2% Non-Hispanic white, 28.7% Non-Hispanic Black, 16.4% Hispanic, 5.7% “other” (multiracial, Asian etc)					X	X	X

	Retrospective cross-sectional survey					
	40% North Africa, 36% Western Asia, 21% Europe, 3% Other	N=1047		X		X X
	April 1– 6, 2020					
Ammar et al., 2020 ⁶⁴	Cross-sectional survey					
	Portugal	N=1404	X	X		
	April 1– 15, 2020	Sex: 69.6% female, 30.3% male, 0.1% preferred not to specify Mean Age: 36.4 ± 11.7 years				
Antunes et al., 2020 ⁴²	Cross-sectional survey					
	Saudi Arabia	N=2255	X		X	
	Two weeks between June and early July 2020	Sex: 64% female, 36% male Age: 24% aged 30-39 years Race and Ethnicity: 91% Saudi, 9% Non-Saudi				
Bakhsh et al., 2021 ^{43b}	Cross-sectional survey					
	UK	N=13,283			X	
	May 2020	Sex: 49.8% male, 50.2% female Age: 19-74 years				
Bann et al., 2020 ⁷⁵	Cross-sectional survey					
	Qatar	N=577		X	X	X
	May 24– June 14, 2020	Gender: 61.39% female, 38.61% male Mean Age: 35.7 years				
Ben Hassen et al., 2020 ⁶³	Cross-sectional survey					

Bin Zarah et al., 2020 ⁷⁶	US N=3133 Sex: 79.4% female, 19.8% male, 0.8% other April–June 2020 Age: 30.5% aged 30-49 years Race and Ethnicity: 5.1% African American, 2.9% Asian, 84.5% white, 2.8% Hispanic, 0.4% Native American, 4.3% other			X		
Błaszczyk-Bębenek et al., 2020 ⁴⁴	Poland N=312 Gender: 64.1% female, 35.9% male April 29–May 19, 2020 Retrospective cross-sectional survey Mean Age: 41.1 ± 13.1 years	X	X	X		
Buckland et al., 2021 ⁴⁵	Predominantly from UK N=588 Sex: 69% females, 30% male, 1% non-conforming (82.5%) Mean Age: 33.4 ± 12.6 years May 15–June 27, 2020 Race and Ethnicity: 86% White, 7% Asian or Asian British, 3% mixed or multiple ethnic groups, 1% Black, African, Caribbean, or Black British, 1% prefer not to say, and 2% other	X		X		X
Cancello et al., 2020 ⁴⁶	Cross-sectional survey Northern Italy N=490 Sex: 83.67% female, 16.33% male Age: 65.1% aged 31-60 years April 15–May 4, 2020	X			X	
Carroll et al., 2020 ⁴⁷	Cross-sectional survey Canada N=310 Mothers: N=235 Mean Age: 37.5 years Race and Ethnicity: 86.8% Caucasian, 0.9% African American, 3.0% Latin American, 4.7% Asian, 3.0% South/West Asian, 1.3% Other Fathers: N=126 Mean Age: 39.4 years Race and Ethnicity: 88.1% Caucasian, 0.0% African American, 2.4% Latin American, 4.0% Asian, 3.2% South/West Asian, 0.8% Other Children: Mean Age: 5.7 years	X		X		X

	Nigeria, Turkey, US, Europe	N=411 Gender: 16.3% women, 73.7% men Age: 20-65 years		X		
	April 25– May 5, 2020					
Celik & Dane, 2020 ⁷⁷	Cross- sectional survey					
	United Arab Emirates (UAE)	N=1012 Gender: 75.9% female, 24.1% male Age: 29.1% aged 26-35 years	X	X	X	X
	April – May 2020					
Cheikh Ismail et al., 2020 ⁶⁶	Cross- sectional survey					
	Greater Middle East region (and Northern Africa),	N= 2970 Sex: 71.6% female, 28.4% male Age: 29.6% aged 18-25 years	X	X	X	X
	April 15– April 29, 2020					
Cheikh Ismail et al., 2021 ⁶⁵	Cross- sectional survey					
	US; Detroit, MI and Phoenix, AZ	N=861 Gender: 53% female, 46% male, 1% nonbinary Mean Age: 53 years Race and Ethnicity: 80.3% White, 11.3% Black	X	X		
	May 13– 30, 2020					
Chenarides et al., 2021 ¹³	Cross- sectional survey					
	Italy	N=602 Gender: 79.7% female Mean Age: 38.2 years				X
Di Renzo, Gualtieri, Cinelli, et al., 2020 ¹⁰⁷	April 24– May 18, 2020					

	Cross-sectional survey					
	Italy	N = 3533 Gender: 76.1% female, 23.9% male Mean Age: 40.0 ± 13.5 years	X	X	X	X
Di Renzo, Gualtieri, Pivari, et al., 2020 ⁶⁷	Cross-sectional survey					
	Vietnam	N= 5209 health care workers Gender: 67.1% women, 32.9% men Age: 82.6% aged 21-40 years			X	
Do et al., 2020 ⁹⁰	Cross-sectional survey					
	Vietnam	N=7616 nursing and medical students Gender: 62.5% women, 37.5% men Mean Age: 21.4 ± 1.8 years			X	
Duong et al., 2020 ⁹¹	Cross-sectional survey					
	Turkey	N=1036 Gender: 79.8% female, 20.2% male Mean Age: 33.1 years			X	X
Elmacloğlu et al., 2021 ¹⁰²	Longitudinal					
	US (n=4,890), United Kingdom (n=1,839), Australia (n=497), Canada (n=154), Other (n=373)	N=7753 Sex: 80% female, 20% male Mean Age: 51.2 ± 0.2 years Race and Ethnicity: 89.6% white	X	X	X	
Flanagan et al., 2021 ⁶⁸	Cross-sectional survey					

France	N=5,738 students Sex: 74.6% female, 25.4% male March 26– 27, 2020				X	X
Flaudias et al., 2020 ⁹⁷	Cross-sectional survey					
	<u>2020 Females:</u> ^c N=84 Age Range: 19-26 years Race and Ethnicity: 32.1% Asian, 9.5% Asian sub-continental, 52.4% Caucasian, 2.4% Multi, 3.6% other/not disclosed	X	X	X		
	<u>2020 Males:</u> N=66 Age Range: 19-27 years Race and Ethnicity: 37.9% Asian, 9.1% Asian sub-continental, 43.9% Caucasian, 6.1% Multi, 3.0% other/not disclosed					
	<u>2019 Females:</u> N=108 Age Range: 19-23 years Race and Ethnicity: 25.9% Asian, 9.3% Asian sub-continental, 55.6% Caucasian, 5.6% Multi, 3.7% other/not disclosed					
	<u>2019 Males:</u> N=77 Age Range: 19-25 years Race and Ethnicity: 23.4% Asian, 9.1% Asian sub-continental, 54.5% Caucasian, 1.3% Multi, 11.7% other/not disclosed					
	<u>2018 Females:</u> N=103 Age Range: 19-26 years Race and Ethnicity: 28.2% Asian, 2.9% Asian sub-continental, 63.1% Caucasian, 2.9% Multi, 2.9% other/not disclosed					
Brisbane, Australia	<u>2018 Males:</u> N=71 Age range: 19-25 years Race and Ethnicity: 32.4% Asian, 5.6% Asian sub-continental, 54.9% Caucasian, 2.8% Multi, 4.2% other/not disclosed					
May 12– 26, 2020						
Gallo et al., 2020 ⁴⁸	Longitudinal					
Denmark	N=2462 Gender: 71.1% women, 28.7% men, 0.2% other April 24– May 5, 2020	X	X	X		
Age: 37.2% aged 36-50 years						
Giocalone et al., 2020 ⁶¹	Cross-sectional survey					

in Scotland						
Cross-sectional survey ^d						
Poland	N=1033 Gender: 50.2% female, 49.8% male March 19– 24, 2020					X
Jeżewska- Zychowicz et al., 2020 ¹⁰⁸	Cross-sectional survey					
Kenya and Uganda	N=313 Gender: 61% female April 18– 27, 2020 Age: 63% youth (18-35 years), 37% “adult” Uganda: N=129 Gender: 63% female Age: 38% youth (18-35 years), 62% “adult”	X		X	X	X
Kansiime et al., 2021 ⁴⁰	Cross-sectional survey					
Turkey	N=1012 Gender: 81.7% female, 18.3% male April 15– 30, 2020 Mean Age: 28.3 ± 8.7 years				X	X
Kaya et al., 2021 ¹⁰⁵	Cross-sectional survey					
US	N= 838 Sex: 52% female, 48% male Last week of April 2020 Age: 34.4 ± 0.4 years Race: 63% White, 23% Asian, 7% Black, 5% Multiracial, 3% other Ethnicity: 22% Hispanic, 78% Non-Hispanic				X	X
Khubchand ani et al., 2020 ⁹³	Cross-sectional survey					
Lithuania	N= 2447 Sex: 87.8% female, 12.2% male April 14– 28, 2020 Age: 40.1% aged 18-35 years	X		X		
Kriaucionie ne et al., 2020 ⁵¹	Cross-sectional survey					
Canada, Quebec	N= 853 Sex: 87.2% female, 12.8% male Age: 52.5% aged 50-69 years			X		
Lamarche et al., 2021 ⁷⁸	April 15– May 12, 2020					

	Cross-sectional survey						
	Spain	N=2,741 Gender: 51.8% women, 48.2% men March 22–April 5, 2020 Mean Age: 34.2 ± 13.0 years			X		
López-Bueno et al., 2020 ⁷⁹	Cross-sectional survey						
	Spain	N=675 Gender: 69.9% women, 30.1% men May 28–June 21, 2020 Mean Age: 39.1 ± 12.9 years	X	X			
López-Moreno et al., 2020 ⁵²	Cross-sectional survey						
	Brazil	N= 45,161 Sex: 53.6% female, 46.4% male April 24–May 24, 2020 Age: 24.7% aged 18-29 years			X		
Malta et al., 2020 ⁸⁰	Cross-sectional survey						
	France	N=938 Gender: 78.5% female, 21.5% male April 30–May 1, 2020 Mean Age: 38.7 ± 11.6 years	X			X	X
Marty et al., 2021 ⁵³	Cross-sectional survey						
	Zimbabwe	N=507 Gender: 63.0% female, 37.0% male May 11–25, 2020 Age: 48.1% aged 31-40 years			X		
Matsungu & Chopera, 2020 ⁸¹	Cross-sectional survey						
	Island of Ireland, Great Britain, United States, and Great Britain:	Island of Ireland: N=538 Gender: 87.5% female, 12.5% male Mean Age: 35.9 ± 12.5 years			X		
Murphy et al., 2021 ⁸²	New Zealand	N=961 Gender: 51.0% female, 48.7% male, 0.3% other					

		Mean Age: 50.7 ± 15.3 years					
	May– June 2020	United States: N=381					
	Cross-sectional survey	Gender: 53.4% female, 46.1% male, 0.5% other Mean Age: 53.7 ± 18.4 years					
		New Zealand: N=480 Gender: 51.9% female, 47.7% male, 0.4% other Mean Age: 45.7 ± 17.2 years					
	Iran, Tehran province	N= 292 families Mean Age: 47.5 ± 13.5 years			X		X
	March 2020						
Pakravan- Charvadeh et al., 2021 ⁸³	Cross-sectional survey using both retrospective and current reporting						
		N= 1841	X	X	X	X	
	Spain and Greece	Spain: N=1,002 April 23– May 3, 2020					
		Sex: 70.3% women Mean Age = 46.1 ± 13.3 years					
Papandreou et al., 2020 ⁵⁴	Cross-sectional survey	Greece: N=839 Sex: 66.7% women Mean Age = 42.4 ± 11.7 years					
	Italy	N=150 Gender: 77.3% female, 22.7% male Mean Age: 47.9 years	X	X		X	X
	April 14– 21, 2020						
Pellegrini et al., 2020 ⁵⁵	Retrospective cross-sectional survey						
	Vietnam	N= 8,291 Gender: 53% women, 41% men				X	
	February 14– May 31, 2020	Age: 43.6 ± 16.9 years					
Pham et al., 2020 ⁹⁴	Cross-sectional survey						

UK	N= 2002 Gender: 61.7% female, 37.8% male, .5% prefer not to say or non-binary gender April 28– May 22, 2020 Age: 34.7 (SD 12.3) years Race and Ethnicity: 89.7% white	X		X	X	X
Robinson et al., 2021 ⁷⁰	Cross-sectional survey					
UK	N= 723 Gender: 67% female April 19– 22, 2020 Mean Age: 30.7 (SD 9.6) years Race and Ethnicity: 80% white, 20% non-white				X	
Robinson et al., 2020 ⁹⁶	Cross-sectional survey					
Spain	N= 7514 Gender: 71% female, 29.3% male, .07% other gender March 20– April 10, 2020 ^e Age: 92% aged 31–65 years		X			
Rodríguez-Pérez et al., 2020 ⁸⁴	Cross-sectional survey					
France	N= 11,391 Gender: 52.1% female, 47.5% male, 0.4% other March 25– 30, 2020 Mean Age: 47.5 (SD 17.3) years					X
Rolland et al., 2020 ¹⁰⁹	Cross-sectional survey					
France	N= 1454 Gender: 63.5% female, 36.0% male, 0.5% other April 23– May 7, 2020 Age: 27.0% aged 25-34 years, 29.4% aged 35-44 years, 28.2% aged 45-54 years, 15.5% aged 55-64 years			X		X
Rossinot et al., 2020 ⁹⁵	Cross-sectional survey					
Spain	N= 385 Gender: 72.8% female, 27.2% male May 2020 Age: 38.7 (SD = 12.4) years			X	X	
Sánchez-Sánchez et al., 2020 ⁸⁵	Cross-sectional survey					
Italy	N= 1,929 Sex: 67% female, 32.9% male, 0.1% not answered April 3– 15, 2020 Age: 63.1% aged 21-35 years, 9.6% aged 36-50 years, 11.4% aged 51-65 years, 14.4% < 20 years, 1.5% > 65 years	X		X		X
Scarmozzino & Visioli, 2020 ⁵⁹						

	Cross-sectional survey				
	US; N=1,048 Houston, Sex: 97.0% female, 3% male Dallas, Mean Age: 36.7 ± 7.3 years Washington, DC, and Mexican American, Latino, or Hispanic, 3.7% Non-Hispanic Southwest White, 3.4% other Florida			X	
	April 2020				
S. V Sharma et al., 2020 ⁸⁶	Cross-sectional survey				
	Poland N=1097 Gender: 95.1% female, 4.9% male April 17– May 1, 2020 Mean Age: 27.7 ± 9.0 years	X	X		
Sidor & Rzymiski, 2020 ⁶⁰	Cross-sectional survey				
	Turkey N= 397 Gender: 39.8% female, 60.2% male May 18– 31, 2020 Age: 40.3% aged 36-50 years			X	X
Şimsek & Şen, 2020 ¹⁰⁰	Cross-sectional survey				
	India N=422 Sex: 56.4% female, 43.6% males April– July 2020 Age: 83.9% aged 20-50 years		X		
Sutaria et al., 2020 ⁷³	Cross-sectional survey				
	China N=2,289 Sex: 48.6% female, 51.4% male March 23– April 26, 2020 Mean Age: 27.5 ± 12.0 years	X		X	
Wang et al., 2020 ⁷²	Cross-sectional survey				
	Without Depression: N=35,042			X	
Werneck et al., 2020 ⁸⁷	Brazil Sex: 50.8% women, 49.2% men Age: 48.2% aged 18-39				

	<p>April 24– May 24, 2020</p> <p>With Depression: N=6,881 Sex: 68.2% women, 31.8% men Age: 51.8% aged 18-39 years</p> <p>Retrospective Cross-sectional survey</p>				
	<p>Turkey</p> <p>N=866 students Sex: 78.2% female, 21.8% male Mean Age: 21.2 ± 1.4 years</p> <p>April 5–6, 2020</p> <p>Cross-sectional survey</p>	X	X		
Yılmaz et al., 2020 ⁷¹	<p>US</p> <p>N=173 Sex: 55.5% female, 44.5% male Mean Age: 28.1 ± 12.5 years Race and Ethnicity: 66% White or Caucasian, 23% Hispanic, 4% African American, 4% Asian, 2% Hawaiian</p> <p>Not specified</p> <p>Cross-sectional survey</p>				X
Zeigler et al., 2020 ^{10g}	<p>China</p> <p>N= 1994 Gender: 62.8% female, 37.2% male Age: 89% aged 18-45 years, 10.8% aged >45 years</p> <p>March and August 2020</p> <p>Cross-sectional survey</p>		X		
Zhang et al., 2020 ⁸⁸	<p>Longitudinal</p>				

^a Some studies used terminology regarding sex (female, male) to describe gender. Similarly, some studies used terminology related to gender (women, men) to describe sex. This terminology was not edited in this review; gender and sex statistics are presented as they are described in the original article

^b References with publication dates of 2021 were made available in the year 2020.

^c Gallo et al., 2020⁴⁸ included three cohorts of Australian university undergraduate students recruited over three different years (2018, 2019, 2020) and compares eating behaviors across men and women separately.

^d Ingram et al., 2020⁹² collected data at three time points described as weeks 1, 3, and 5. However language related to healthy eating refers to levels before and during lockdown. It is assumed the data used is from week 1 and thus this data is being treated as cross-sectional in nature.

^e Rodríguez-Pérez et al., 2020⁸⁴ lists a beginning date, however an end date is not precisely stated. The original reference states “The questionnaire was open from March 20, concretely one week after the Spanish COVID-19 outbreak confinement started. Data from the 3 first weeks of confinement were collected.” The current authors have interpreted this as a 3-week long study ending on April 10, 2020.

^f The original reporting by Scarmozzino & Visioli, 2020⁵⁹ did not include an age category that contained age 20.

^g Study dates for Zeigler et al., 2020¹⁰ are not listed. The manuscript was received on May 12, 2020, and results discuss before and after lockdown, suggesting the study was conducted in the early months of the pandemic.

Table 2. Measures and Findings for the Aggregated Analysis of Amount of Food Eaten from 12 studies During the Initial Months of the COVID-19 Pandemic

Citation	Measure/Items (M/I) & Response Options (RO)	Study n	Findings: n (%)
Bakhsh et al., 2021 ⁴³	M/I: “Quantity of Consumed Food” RO: Decrease/ no change / increased	2,255	NC ^a : 878 (38.9%) I ^b : 894 (39.6%) D ^c :483 (21.4%)
Błaszczuk-Bębenek et al., 2020 ⁴⁴	M/I: “In Your Opinion, Has Your Diet Changed Due to the Social Isolation” RO: No, I was eating the same kind and quantity of food/ Yes, I was eating the same products, but in greater quantities/ Yes, I was eating the same products, but in smaller quantities/ Yes, I have changed my product range without changing the quantities/ Yes, I have changed my product range and I eat more/ Yes, I have changed my product range and I eat less	312	NC: 149 (47.8%) I: 102 (32.7%) D: 61 (19.5%)
Buckland et al., 2021 ⁴⁵	M/I: “Has the AMOUNT of food you have eaten changed since the lockdown?” RO: Decrease/ no change / increased	559 ^d	NC: 141 (25.2%) I: 268 (48.0%) D:150 (26.8%)
Cancello et al., 2020 ⁴⁶	M/I: “Can you quantify how much you are eating during lockdown?” RO: More than usual/ less than usual/like before /I don’t know	481 ^e	NC: 211 (43.9%) I: 206 (42.8%) D: 64 (13.3%)
Górnick et al., 2020 ⁶²	M/I: “Has your total food consumption changed since the beginning of the pandemic (compared to the period before the pandemic)?” RO: I eat more/I eat the same/I eat less	2,381	NC: 1229 (51.6%) I: 816 (34.3%) D: 336 (14.1%)
Huber et al., 2021 ⁵⁰	M/I: “How has your diet changed since implementation of lockdown?—Overall food amount” RO: Less/unchanged/more	1,957	NC: 1019 (52.1%) I: 610 (31.2%) D:328 (16.8%)
López-Moreno et al., 2020 ⁵²	M/I: “Do you think you are eating more or less than before?” RO: More/less/same”	675	NC: 318 (47.1%) I: 132 (19.6%) D: 225 (33.3%)
Papandreou et al., 2020 ⁵⁴	M/I: “Has the amount of food increased during [lockdown]” RO: Decrease/ same/ increased	Spain: 1,002 Greece:839 Total:1,841	Spain: NC: 143 (14.3%) I: 114 (11.4%) D: 745 (74.3%) Greece: NC: 158 (18.8%) I: 152 (18.1%) D: 529 (63.1%) Total: NC: 301 (16.4%) I: 266 (14.4%) D: 1274 (69.2%)
Pellegrini et al., 2020 ⁵⁵	M/I: “Have you changed eating habits during the lockdown period?” RO: No, I have maintained my eating habits/ Not too much, with a few exceptions/ I eat more than before quarantine/ I eat less than before quarantine	150	NC: 71 (47.3%) I: 60 (40%) D: 19 (12.7%)
Poelman et al., 2021 ⁵⁶	M/I: “Did you eat more or less than usual [during lockdown]” RO: More/ no difference/ less	1,030	NC: 854 (82.9%) I: 92 (8.9%) D:84 (8.2%)

Radwan et al., 2020 ⁵⁷	M/I: “Amount of food consumed during lockdown” RO: Decrease/ same/ increase	2,060	NC: 1061 (51.5%) I: 655 (31.8%) D:344 (16.7%)
Reyes-Olavarría et al., 2020 ⁵⁸	M/I: Perceived amount of food consumed ^f RO: Less than before/ same than before/ more than before	700	NC: 237 (51.3%) I: 359 (33.8%) D:104 (14.9%)
Total weighted sample size and results		14,401	NC: 6,469 (44.9%) I: 4,460 (31.0%) D: 3,472 (24.1%)
Total weighted sample size and results without Papandreou et al., 2020 ⁵⁴		12,560	NC: 6,168 (49.1%) I: 4,194 (33.4%) D: 2,198 (17.5%)

^a NC represents no change in amount of food consumed

^b I represents an increase in amount of food consumed

^c D represents a decrease in amount of food consumed

^d The *n* reported for Buckland et al., 2021⁴⁵ corresponds to the number of participants who answered the item of interest. The total sample size for the overall study was 588 individuals.

^e In Canello et al., 2020⁴⁶, 2% of the total study sample (490 adults) reported having “no idea” about changes in their food intake. The findings reported for this portion of the review reflect the responses of the participants reporting NC, I, or D. In rounding to establish whole numbers of participants given the percentages available in the original reference, sample sizes for all response options necessitated upward rounding. Thus, the total sample size is inflated to 491 participants with 481 represented in the current findings related to changes in food intake.

^f Reyes-Olavarría et al., 2020⁵⁸ reports the measure variable as “Among of consumption food, perception.”

Table 3. Measures and Findings for Changes in the Total Amount of Food (Non-Aggregated Studies) During the Initial Months of the COVID-19 Pandemic

Citation	Measure/Items (M/I) & Response Options (RO)	Findings
Aljohani, 2020 ⁴¹	M/I: “Has there been an increase in your food intake during the pandemic lockdown?” RO: Yes/ No/ Maybe/ Sometimes/ Prefer not to answer	63% Yes 22.1% No 5.75% Maybe 2.56% Sometimes 6.52% Prefer not to answer
Antunes et al., 2020 ⁴²	M/I: “Do you feel you eat more than usual?” RO: Yes/No	68.4% No 31.6% Yes
Carroll et al., 2020 ⁴⁷	M/I: If responded “yes” to changes in diet, asked in what ways has their diet (or their children’s diet) changed. RO: Eating more/less food	Most common behavior changes were eating more food (mothers, 57%; fathers, 46%; children, 42%),
Chenarides et al., 2021 ^{13a}	M/I: “How much has your diet changed since COVID-19 started?” RO: Eat more, eat less, eat about the same, ate less healthy, ate more healthy Could select multiple answers	62.9% same 22.8% more 14.4% less
Gallo et al., 2020 ⁴⁸	M/I: 24 hr recall task (Automated Self-Administered Dietary Assessment Tool (ASA24-Australia-2016) Compared to previous years.	For females, total 24-h energy intake was 19.5% higher in 2020 compared with 2018/2019 (p<0.01). No difference in males.
Giacalone et al., 2020 ⁶¹	M/I: “Do you think that you are eating more than usual during the confinement?” RO: Yes/No	57.2% reported Yes 42.8% reported No
Herle et al., 2021 ⁴⁹	M/I: “Over the past week have you eaten ^b more than usual?” (At the very start of lockdown, longitudinally for 8 weeks) RO: Less than usual/ about the same/ more than usual	LPA profiles 64%, had no change in eating throughout the observed period 9% reported persistently eating less 16% reported persistently eating more 8% showed an initial increase in reported eating then a steady decrease 4% reported no changes in 1 st week and increased consumption over time.
Kansiime et al., 2021 ⁴⁰	M/I: The Food Insecurity Experience Scale (FIES) ¹³² In FIES: “You ate less than you thought you should?” In study: “Ate less amount of food” RO: Yes/No	Percent of people reporting eating less food during a “normal period” (not COVID-19 period) and during the COVID-19 period. All are significant (p<.01) In total sample: 23% normal period, 54% COVID-19 period Kenya sample: 24% normal period, 56% COVID-19 Uganda sample: 19% normal period, 48% COVID-19 period
Kriaucioniene et al., 2020 ⁵¹	M/I: “Perception of eating more during the quarantine” RO: Yes/No	50.6% No 49.4% Yes
Marty et al., 2021 ⁵³	M/I: Validated food frequency measure to estimate energy intake.	Average of 1935 kcal/day (SD 656) in 1 st month in lockdown compared to 1700 kcal/day (SD 596) in the month before (p <0.001).
Scarmozzino & Visioli, 2020 ⁵⁹	M/I: “Would you say that you are eating more during this lockdown?”	47.1% No 46.1% Yes, a bit more

RO: Yes, much more/ Yes, a bit more/No 6.8% Yes, much more

Sidor & Rzymiski, 2020⁶⁰ **MI:** “Did you consume more food than usual during quarantine?” 43.5% reported eating more

RO: Decidedly yes/ yes / hard to decide / no / decidedly no

^aChenarides et al., 2021¹³ used an item that allowed participants to select multiple answers, two of which were irrelevant to the current findings (those regarding healthiness). The findings reported here reflect only the responses to the items related to food intake amount which were reported by 808 participants (the total sample was 861). Percentages are equal to 100.1% due to rounding.

^bThe original item reflected in Herle et al., 2021⁴⁹ was “Over the past week have you eating more than usual?”

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Table 4. Measures and Findings for Changes in the Frequency of Eating During the Initial Months of the COVID-19 Pandemic

Citation	Measure/Items (M/I) & Response Options (RO)	Findings
Aljohani, 2020 ⁴¹	<p>M/I: “In the occurrence of having an increase in your food intake, how many meals do you consume a day?”</p> <p>RO: 4-5 meals/6-7 meals/More than 7 meals</p> <p>M/I: “Have you started eating light meals after dinner (during the lockdown period)?”</p> <p>RO: Yes/No/Sometimes</p>	<p>63% reported an increase in their food consumption, and of those who increased their food consumption, 75% ate 6 to 7 meals a day, 14.4% ate more than 7 meals a day, and 9.9% ate 4 to 5 meals a day, respectively.</p> <p>Percent reporting light meals after dinner</p> <p>47.9% started eating during lockdown</p> <p>41.3% did not start eating during lockdown</p> <p>10.7% started eating sometimes during lockdown</p>
Ammar et al., 2020 ⁶⁴	<p>Both measured as before and after lockdown</p> <p>M/I: “How likely are you to have a snack between meals or a late-night snack?”</p> <p>RO: Never/Sometimes/Most of the time /Always</p> <p>M/I: “How many main meals do you eat a day?”</p> <p>RO: 1-2/3/4/5/more than 5</p>	<p>Percentage of people reporting having a snack between meals or a late-night snack:</p> <p>Never: 19.77% before; 14.71% during</p> <p>Sometimes: 59.41% before; 45.56% during</p> <p>Most of the time: 13.85% before; 24.36% during</p> <p>Always: 6.97% before; 15.38% during</p> <p>Overall, there was a significant increase in snacking between meals or late-night (p<.001).</p> <p>Percentage of respondents reporting eating certain numbers of main meals:</p> <p>1-2 meals: 35.15% before; 29.99% during</p> <p>3 meals: 55.11% before; 46.42% during</p> <p>4 meals: 6.59% before; 14.52% during</p> <p>5 meals: 2.39% before; 6.30% during</p> <p>More than 5 meals: 0.76% before; 2.77% during</p> <p>There was a significant increase in the number of meals eaten.</p>
Antunes et al., 2020 ⁴²	<p>M/I: “Do you feel you eat more often than usual?”</p> <p>RO: Yes/No</p>	<p>45.2% reported a higher food frequency</p> <p>54.8% reported their food frequency was not higher</p>
Ben Hassen et al., 2020 ⁶³	<p>M/I: Change of food-related activities during the COVID-19 pandemic. Eating between meals (e.g., snacks).</p> <p>RO: Never /First Time /Much Less /Slightly Less /About the Same /Moderately More /Much More</p>	<p>Percent of respondent reporting on snacking between meals:</p> <p>4.7% reported never snacking</p> <p>0.50% reported their first time snacking</p> <p>6.8% reported snacking much less</p> <p>7.3% reported snacking slightly less</p> <p>45.5% reported snacking about the same</p> <p>23.3% reported snacking moderately more</p> <p>12% reported snacking much more.</p>
Błaszczuk-Bębenek et al., 2020 ⁴⁴	<p>Survey questions were adapted from the Dietary Habits and Nutrition Beliefs Questionnaire for people aged 15-65 years¹³³</p>	<p>Percentage of people reporting eating certain numbers of main meals before and after lockdown:</p>

	<p>M/I: “How many meals do you usually consume daily?”</p> <p>RO: 1 meal/day/ 2 meals/day/ 3 meals/day/ 4 meals/day/ 5+ meals/day</p> <p>M/I: How often do you snack between the meals?</p> <p>RO: Not listed Never/ 1-3 times/month/ Once/week/ Few times/week/ Once/day/ Few times/day</p>	<p>1 meal/day 0.6% before; 0.3% after (0.3% decrease)</p> <p>2 meals/day 7.1% before; 4.8% after (2.3% decrease)</p> <p>3 meals/day 32.1% before; 23.1% after (9% decrease)</p> <p>4 meals/day 40.4% before; 40.7% after (0.3% increase)</p> <p>5 meals+/day 19.9% before; 31.1% after (11.2% increase)</p> <p>The increase in 5+ meals/day was significant (p<.001)</p> <p>72.8% before and 77.9% during reported they regularly snacked (few times per week and more), This was a significant increase (p = 0.0001).</p>
Cheikh Ismail et al., 2020 ⁶⁶	<p>M/I: How many meals did you eat per day before coronavirus pandemic?</p> <p>RO: 1-2/ 3-4/More than 5</p> <p>M/I: How many meals do you eat per day during coronavirus pandemic?</p> <p>RO: 1-2/ 3-4/More than 5</p>	<p>Percentage of respondents reporting eating certain numbers of main meals:</p> <p>1-2 meals: 46.4% before; 36.5% during</p> <p>3-4 meals: 51.5% before; 56.5% during</p> <p>5+ meals: 2.1% before; 7.0% during</p> <p>The increase in 5+ meals/day was significant (p<.001)</p>
Cheikh Ismail et al., 2021 ⁶⁵	<p>M/I: How many meals did you eat per day before coronavirus pandemic?</p> <p>RO: 1-2/ 3-4/More than 5</p> <p>M/I: How many meals do you eat per day during coronavirus pandemic?</p> <p>RO: 1-2/ 3-4/More than 5</p>	<p>Percentage of respondents reporting eating certain numbers of main meals:</p> <p>1-2 meals: 45.6% before; 37.5% during</p> <p>3-4 meals: 52.2% before; 56.2% during</p> <p>5+ meals 2.2% before; 6.2% during</p> <p>The increase in 5+ meals/day was significant (p<.001)</p>
Di Renzo, Gualtieri, Pivari, et al., 2020 ⁶⁷	<p>M/I: “Did you change the number of daily meals, during this period “</p> <p>RO: No, it didn't/Yes, I skip 1 or more of the main meals (breakfast, lunch, dinner)/Yes, I skip 1 or more of snacks between meals/Yes, I added 1 or more of the main meals/Yes, I added 1 or more of the snacks between meals/Yes, I eat out of the meals^a.</p>	<p>57.8% did not change their number of daily meals</p> <p>17.5% skipped a meal or snack</p> <p>23.5% introduced a meal or snack</p>
Flanagan et al., 2021 ⁶⁸	<p>M/I: Changes in dietary behaviors were assessed. The form included questions about cooking and eating out habits and snacking prior to and during the pandemic. Perception of overall healthy eating habits and weight change was asked.</p> <p>The optional long form was a modification of the Rapid Eating Assessment (REAP-s).¹³⁴</p>	<p>25.8% reported an increase in healthy snacking</p> <p>43.5% reported an increase in unhealthy snacking</p>
Gallo et al., 2020 ⁴⁸	<p>M/I: 24 hr recall task (Automated Self-Administered Dietary Assessment Tool (ASA24-Australia-2016)</p> <p>Compared to previous years.</p>	<p>Among males, there was no difference in the number of snack occasions between 2020 and 2018/2019</p>

		In females, there was an increase to two snack occasions in 2020 compared with one in 2018/2019 ($p < 0.05$)
Giacalone et al., 2020 ⁶¹	<p>M/I: “Have you increased the frequency of snacking during the confinement compared to your usual intake?”</p> <p>RO: Yes. My snacking frequency is higher/ No. My snacking frequency is lower /My snacking frequency remains as usual”</p>	<p>41.7% snacked more frequently</p> <p>47.5% snacked as frequently as usual</p> <p>10.8% snacked less frequently</p>
Husain & Ashkanani, 2020 ⁶⁹	<p>M/I: How many times a day do you eat?</p> <p>RO: One time/Two times/Three times/Four times/ Five times /Six or more</p>	<p>No significant changes in meal frequency.</p> <p>Percentage of respondents reporting eating a certain number of times per day:</p> <p>1 time/day: 1.2% before; 1.0% during</p> <p>2 times/day: 13.5% before; 10.4% during</p> <p>3 times/day: 29.9% before; 27.0% during</p> <p>4 times/day: 31.6% before; 25.1% during</p> <p>5 times/day: 19.3% before; 21.4% during</p> <p>6+ times/day: 4.6% before; 15.2% during</p>
López-Moreno et al., 2020 ⁵²	<p>Asked for before and after lockdown</p> <p>M/I: How many intakes do you make per day of these top five? Check the ones you usually do.</p> <p>RO: Before/During confinement: Breakfast/Mid-morning/Lunch/Snack/Dinner/Bedtime snack</p>	<p>Before 1% reported eating 5 meals/ day</p> <p>During 23% reported eating 5 meals/ day</p>
Papandreou et al., 2020 ⁵⁴	<p>M/I: The Dutch Eating Behaviour Questionnaire (DEBQ)¹³⁵ was utilized to assess eating behaviors.</p>	<p>59.8% of the Spain sample and 51.7% of the Greece sample reported that they follow same hours/number of meals during the pandemic</p> <p>34.1% of the Spain sample and 40.8% of the Greece sample reported that they did increase the number of snacks between meals during the pandemic</p>
Pellegrini et al., 2020 ⁵⁵	<p>M/I: “During the lockdown period, the number of snacks that you consume in a day”:</p> <p>RO: I don’t consume snacks usually/ Is less than before quarantine/Is the same as before quarantine/ Is more than before quarantine</p>	<p>28% “I don’t consume snacks usually”</p> <p>11.3% “is less than before quarantine”</p> <p>28% “is the same as before quarantine”</p> <p>32.7% “is more than before quarantine.”</p>
Poelman et al., 2021 ⁵⁶	<p>M/I: Participants asked to identify if they ate differently than usual (with more awareness, taking more time, during different occasions, more often and snacking more frequently).</p> <p>RO: Fully disagree (1) to fully agree (5). Calculated the number of participants that (fully) agreed on each of the items (score 4 or 5).</p>	<p>14.2% ate more frequently</p> <p>22.1% reported eating more sweets and snacks</p>
Robinson et al., 2021 ⁷⁰	<p>M/I: “Compared to before the COVID-19 lockdown in the UK, I have: Eaten large meals or snacks”</p> <p>RO: A lot less/Less/A little less/The same amount/A little more/More/A lot more</p> <p>M/I: “Compared to before the COVID-19 lockdown in the UK, I have: Snacked”</p>	<p>Compared to before lockdown:</p> <p>3% ate a lot less large meals or snacks</p> <p>8% ate less large meals or snacks</p> <p>10% ate a little less large meals or snacks</p> <p>34% ate the same amount of large meals or snacks</p> <p>26% ate a little more large meals or snacks</p> <p>14% ate more large meals or snacks</p>

	RO: A lot less/Less/A little less/The same amount/A little more/More/A lot more	4% ate a lot more large meals or snacks. 5% snacked a lot less 8% snacked less 10% snacked a little less 22% snacked the same amount 27% snacked a little more 21% snacked more 8% snacked a lot more
Sidor & Rzymiski, 2020 ⁶⁰	M/I: “Indicate the number of meals eaten per day during quarantine: RO: One/two/three/four/five/ six or more M/I: “Did you snack more frequently than usual during quarantine? “ RO: decidedly yes /yes/ hard to decide/ no/ decidedly no” M/I: “Indicate the number of snacks eaten per day during quarantine” RO: None/one/ two/ three/four or more	51.8% snacked between meals more frequently Most frequent number of meals per day during quarantine: three (30.3%) four (39.3%), Most frequent number of snacks per day during the quarantine: one (28.3%) two (36.1%)
Wang et al., 2020 ⁷²	M/I: Food consumption questionnaire adapted from the online nutritional survey of Guangdong Nutrition Society and Sun Yat-sen University [measure is not in English, but can be found here: https://www.wjx.cn/m/59273857.aspx] Translated: M/I: "your staple food intake during the pandemic compared to before the pandemic" RO: increase/ reduce/ no significant changes	23.1% reduced their daily eating frequency 17.3% increased their daily eating frequency, and 60% reported no changes in eating frequency
Yilmaz et al., 2020 ⁷¹	M/I: Main meal in COVID-19 pandemic RO: Increased/Not changed/Decreased M/I: Snacks in COVID-19 pandemic RO: Increased/Not changed/Decreased M/I: Mean meal [daily number of meals consumed before the COVID-19 pandemic] RO: 1/2/3 M/I: Snacks [daily number of snacks consumed before the COVID-19 pandemic] RO: 1/2/3	71% no change in the number of main meals 23% increased number of main meals 6% decreased in the number of main meals 57.5% no change in the number of snacks 38% increased the number of snacks 4.5% decreased the number of snacks 58.3% consumed two main meals per day and 43.9% consumed one snack before COVID-19. During COVID-19, 23.0% reported an increase in the number of meals and 38.0% an increase of snacks.

^a The response options stated here are quoted directly from Di Renzo, Gualtieri, Pivari, et al., 2020.⁶⁷ There was no reporting on the “Yes, I eat out of the meals” response option.

Table 5. Measures and Findings for Changes in the Timing of Eating During the Initial Months of the COVID-19 Pandemic

Citation	Measure/Items (M/I) & Response Options (RO)	Findings
Papandreou et al., 2020 ⁵⁴	M/I: The Dutch Eating Behavior Questionnaire (DEBQ) ¹³⁵ was utilized to assess eating behaviors.	59.8% of the Spain sample and 51.7% of the Greece sample reported that they do follow same hours/number of meals during the pandemic
Poelman et al., 2021 ⁵⁶	M/I: Participants asked to indicate if they ate in a different way than usual during lockdown (with more awareness, taking more time, during different occasions, more often and snacking more frequently) RO: Fully disagree (1) to fully agree (5). Calculated the number of participants that (fully) agreed on each of the items (score 4 or 5).	16.9% ate at different times 19% took more time eating
Sutaria et al., 2020 ⁷³	M/I: “Has your eating schedule changed?” RO: Yes/No/ Maybe	During the pandemic 50.2% reported eating schedule changed during 38.6% reported no change in eating schedule 11.1% reported eating schedule “maybe” changed

Table 6. Measures and Findings for Changes in the Consumption of Fruits and Vegetables, Snacks, Sweets, Seafood and Fast Food During the Initial Months of the COVID-19 Pandemic

Citation	Measure/ Items (M/I) & Response Options (RO)	Fruits/ Vegetables	Fruits	Vegetables	Snacks	Sweets and/or bakery products	Fish and/or seafood	Fast Food
Bakhsh et al., 2021 ⁴³	M/I: How has your consumption of the following foods changed during the pandemic: fruits and vegetables,...sweets (cake, chocolate, and ice cream), savory snacks (chips and salty biscuits)? RO: “Increased Intake, Decreased Intake, or No Change in the Intake.”	I ^a =48% U ^b =43% D ^c =9%	N/A	N/A	Frequency of snacking: I=45% U=36% D=19% Savory Snacks: I=30% U=40% D=30%	Sweets: I=44% U=31% D=25%	N/A	N/A
Bann et al., 2020 ⁷⁵	M/I: How many portions of fruit and vegetables do you eat a day? RO: “From 0 to ≥6; portion guidance was provided”	Portions of fruits and vegetables consumed pre-pandemic similar to during lockdown	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Ben Hassen et al., 2020 ^{63d}	M/I: How has your consumption of the following foods changed during the pandemic: Fruits/Vegetables,... Candy/Cakes/ Cookies/Pastries, Healthy Snacks, Unhealthy Snacks...? RO: “Much More, Moderately More, About the Same, Slightly Less, Much Less, First Time [meaning that their first time consuming the food was during the pandemic], or Never”	I=32.4% U=60% D=5.8%	N/A	N/A	Healthy Snacks: I=20.9% U=57.7% D=12.7% Unhealthy Snacks: I=12.2% U=41.4% D=32.4%	Candy, cookies, cakes, and pastries: I=24.6% U=43.3% D=28.7%	N/A	N/A
Bin Zarah et al., 2020 ⁷⁶	M/I: How has your consumption of the following foods changed during the pandemic:...Sweets, Potato Chips or other salty snacks,...Starchy Vegetables,... Eggs/Chicken/Turkey,... Non-Starchy Vegetables/Salad, Fruit...Fish or shellfish? RO: Increased, Decreased, or No Change.	N/A	I=16.4% U=50.2% D=33.4%	Starchy Vegetables I=8.5% U=70% D=21.5% Non-starchy vegetables: I=14.3% U=57.5%	Salty Snacks: I=37.4% U=49.6% D=13%	Sweets such as candy, cookies, pies: I=43.9% U=43.5% D=12.6%	Fish or shellfish: I=14.9% U=68.4% D=16.7%	N/A

				D=28.2%				
Błaszczyk-Bębenek et al., 2020 ⁴⁴	<p>M/I: How frequently have you consumed the following foods before the pandemic and during the pandemic:... fishes,...fruits, vegetables, fast foods,... sweets...?</p> <p>RO: “(1) never, (2) 1–3 times a month, (3) once a week, (4) few times a week, (5) once a day, (6) few times a day”</p> <p>M/I: How many portions of each food did you consume both before and during the pandemic?</p> <p>RO: “(1) zero, (2) half a portion, (3) one, (4) two, (5) three, (6) four or more”</p>	N/A	<p>Frequency: No significant change</p> <p>Portion Size: No significant change</p>	<p>Frequency: No significant change</p> <p>Portion Size: No significant change</p>	N/A	<p>Sweets Frequency: Significant increase, p=0.0241</p> <p>Sweets portion Size: Significant increase, p=0.0029</p>	<p>Fishes frequency: No significant change</p> <p>Fishes Portion size: No significant change</p>	<p>Frequency: Significant decrease, p=0.0001</p> <p>Portion Size: Significant decrease, p<0.0001</p>
Buckland et al., 2021 ⁴⁵	<p>M/I: How has your consumption of the following foods changed during the pandemic: sweet snacks, savory snacks,... fruit intake, vegetable intake?</p> <p>RO: “I eat a lot less, I eat a lot more, or I eat the same amount”</p>	N/A	<p>I=48%</p> <p>U=36%</p> <p>D=16%</p>	<p>I=49%</p> <p>U=40%</p> <p>D=11%</p>	<p>Sweet Snacks: I=28% U=46% D=26%</p> <p>Savory Snacks: I=28% U=49% D=22%</p>	N/A	N/A	N/A
Carroll et al., 2020 ^{47e}	<p>M/I: How has your and your child’s diets changed during the pandemic?</p> <p>RO: “...eating more/fewer fruit and vegetables, eating more/less snack foods, such as chips or cookies, eating more/fewer foods from fast food/take out restaurants.”</p>	<p>Mothers: Eating Fewer=22% Eating More=20%</p> <p>Fathers: Eating Fewer=12% Eating More=32%</p> <p>Children: Eating Fewer=20% Eating More=24%</p>	N/A	N/A	<p>Mothers: Eating Fewer=4% Eating more=66%</p> <p>Fathers: Eating fewer=4% Eating more=58%</p> <p>Children: Eating fewer=6% Eating more=54%</p>	N/A	N/A	<p>Mothers: Eating fewer=42% Eating more=10%</p> <p>Fathers: Eating fewer=44% Eating more=13%</p> <p>Children: Eating fewer=26% Eating more=8%</p>
Celik & Dane, 2020 ⁷⁷	<p>M/I: Which foods did you have a preference to consume both before and during the pandemic?</p> <p>RO:...vegetables, fruits,... bakery foods</p>	N/A	<p>Before=18.5%</p> <p>During=26.5%</p>	<p>Before=14.4%</p> <p>During=24.6%</p>	N/A	<p>Bakery Foods: Before=20% During=10%</p>	N/A	N/A

Cheikh Ismail et al., 2020 ⁶⁶	M/I: What meal types were your most consumed meals both before the pandemic and during the pandemic? RO: "...fast food..."	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Significant decreased consumption, p<0.001
Cheikh Ismail et al., 2021 ⁶⁵	M/I: What meal types were your most consumed meals both before the pandemic and during the pandemic? RO: "..., fast food..."	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Significant decreased consumption, p<0.001
Chenarides et al., 2021 ^{13d}	M/I: "How much more or less have you consumed these foods since COVID-19 started?" for 10 major food groups: fresh produce,...fast food..." RO: "A lot more (5), A bit more (4), About the same (3), A little less (2), A lot less (1) and Do not consume"	I=27.53% U=54.59% D=16.84%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	I=16.84% U=21.37% D=47.97%
Di Renzo, Gualtieri, Pivari, et al., 2020 ^{67e}	M/I: "During this [quarantine] period, which of these foods are you consuming MORE than before?" RO: "...fruits, fresh vegetables, frozen vegetables,...industrial bakery products/sweets, fish, frozen fish, canned fish...snacks..." M/I: "During this [quarantine] period, which of these foods are you consuming LESS than before?" RO: "...fruits, fresh vegetables, frozen vegetables,...industrial bakery products/sweets, fish, frozen fish, canned fish...snacks..."	N/A	Fresh Fruit Reduced Intake=18% Increased Intake=15.3%	Packaging Vegetables Reduced Intake=6.0% Increased Intake=8.0%	Snacks: Reduced Intake=12.7% Increased Intake=9.3%	Packaging Sweets: Reduced Intake=16.7% Increased Intake=11.3%	Preserved Fish: Reduced Intake=4.7% Increased Intake=6.7%	N/A
Flanagan et al., 2021 ⁶⁸	M/I: In an average week, how frequently did you engage in each of the following behaviors both before and during the pandemic:... consuming less than two fruits and vegetables per day,... eating fast food two or more times,...eating sweets and desserts,...? RO: "usually/often, sometimes, or rarely/never"	N/A	Significant decrease in frequency of eating less than 2 serving per day, p<0.001	No significant change in the frequency of eating less than 2 servings per day	N/A	Significant increase in the frequency of eating sweets or desserts, p<0.001	N/A	Significant decrease in the frequency of eating two or more meals from fast food, p<0.001
Gallo et al., 2020 ⁴⁸	M/I: Which foods did you consume in the last 24 hours?	N/A	N/A	N/A	Significant increase in two snack occasions	N/A	N/A	N/A

	RO: “Foods and beverages were entered by typing in specific search terms and selecting items from a returned list”				compared to one and energy density attributed to snacks for females			
	Results compared to 2018 and 2019 studies							
Giacalone et al., 2020 ⁶¹	M/I: How has your frequency of snacking changed during the pandemic? How has your consumption of the following foods changed during the pandemic:... Vegetables, Fruit,... Fish, Pastries (commercial),... Fast Food? RO: Higher, Lower, or As Before.	N/A	I=11.1% U=64.0% D=24.9%	I=11.3% U=69.2% D=19.5%	I=41.7% U=47.5% D=10.8%	Pastries commercial: I=21.1% U=60.6% D=18.4%	I=15.8% U=75.8% D=8.4%	I=15.1% U=59.5% D=25.4%
Górnick et al., 2020 ⁶²	M/I: Has your consumption of the following foods changed during the pandemic: vegetables, fruits,...fish and seafood,... fast foods, salty snacks, confectionary, sweetened spreads, commercial pastry, ice-cream and puddings, sweetened cereals and/or cereal bars,...? RO: “I eat more/I eat the same/I eat less/I didn’t eat before and during the pandemic”	N/A	I=15.2% U=64.7% D=20.1%	I=18.5% U=62.1% D=19.4%	Salty Snacks: I=18.1% U=62.2% D=19.7%	Confectionary: I=32.5% U=48.7% D=18.8%	I=6.8% U=76.2% D=17.0%	I=8.1% U=55.3% D=36.6%
						Sweetened Spreads: I=3.7% U=91.6% D=4.7%		
						Commercial Pastry: I=10.9% U=59.6% D=29.4%		
						Ice Cream and Pudding: I=10.0% U=74.9% D=15.0%		
						Sweetened Cereal and/or Cereal Bars: I=5.4% U=88.3% D=6.3%		
Huber et al., 2021 ⁵⁰	M/I: How has your consumption of the following foods changed during the pandemic: Confectionaries,...Fruits, Vegetables?	N/A	I=33% U=52% D=14.5%	I=31.5% U=53.5% D=15%	N/A	Confectionaries: I=44.5% U=27.5%	N/A	N/A

	RO: Increased, Decreased, or Unchanged.					D=27.5%		
Husain & Ashkanani, 2020 ⁶⁹	M/I: How frequently do you eat each of the following foods: fruit...vegetables...fish and seafood? RO: “Never, less than 1/w, 1-2/w, 3-4/w, 5-6/w, 7 or more, I do not know, or none. The answer alternatives for fruits and vegetables were less than 1/d, 1/d, 2/d, 3/d, 4 or more, none, or I do not know”	N/A	Before: None=8% Less than 1/d=31.1% 1/d=37.8% 2/d=14.9% 3/d=4.1% 4 or more=2.2% I do not know=1.9% During: None=9.2% Less than 1/d=29.2% 1/d=35.4% 2/d=18.3% 3/d=4.3% 4 or more=1.7% I do not know=1.9%	Before: None=7% Less than 1/d=22.4% 1/d=36.4% 2/d=20.5% 3/d=7.7% 4 or more=4.1% I do not know=1.9% During: None=8.2% Less than 1/d=23.1% 1/d=33.7% 2/d=21.4% 3/d=9.2% 4 or more=2.2% I do not know=2.2%	N/A	N/A	Before: Never=10.6% Less than 1/w=31.6% 1-2/w=47.0% 3-4/w=8.7% 5-6/w=0.2% 7 or more=0.5% I don't know=1.4% During: Never=26.5% Less than 1/w=33.0% 1-2/w=34.5% 3-4/w=4.3% 5-6/w=0.2% 7 or more=0.2% I don't know=1.2%	N/A
Kansiime et al., 2021 ^{40e}	M/I: How often did you consume the following foods both before the pandemic and during the pandemic: fruits, vegetables, fish and seafood...? RO: “rarely (once or twice a month), sometimes (3–10 times a month), and often (>10 times a month)” “frequent consumption variables that are equal to one if a respondent selected ‘often (>10 times a month)’ and zero otherwise, were computed.”	N/A	Percent of participants who reported a frequent consumption (>10 times per month) Kenya: Before=57.6% During=22.4% Uganda: Before=60.8% During=28.8%	Percent of participants who reported a frequent consumption (>10 times per month) Kenya: Before=76.8% During=67.2% Uganda: Before=64% During=35.2%	N/A	N/A	Percent of participants who reported a frequent consumption (>10 times per month) Kenya: Before=22.4% During=6.4% Uganda: Before=28.8% During=12.8%	N/A
Kriaucioni ene et al., 2020 ⁵¹	M/I: How has your consumption of the following foods changed during the pandemic: Vegetables, Fruits,...Fish-Seafood,...Commercial Pastries, Fast Food...Snacking? RO: Higher, Lower or As usual	N/A	I=22.1% U=63.2% D=14.7%	I=18.8% U=66.2% D=15.0%	I=45.1% U=45.1% D=9.8%	Commercial pastries such as cookies, custards, sweets: I=18.9% U=55.2%	I=7.5% U=78.3% D=14.3%	I=6.7% U=51.9% D=41.3%

						D=26.0%		
Lamarche et al., 2021 ⁷⁸	M/I: Which of the following foods did you eat in the last 24 hours? RO: ... total vegetables,...seafoods and plant proteins, added sugars,... whole fruits,...total fruits	N/A	Whole fruits: Significant reduced consumption Total fruits: Significant reduced consumption	Total vegetables: Significant increased consumption Greens and beans: Significant increased consumption	N/A	Added Sugars: Significant reduced consumption	Seafood and plant proteins: Significant increased consumption	N/A
López-Bueno et al., 2020 ⁷⁹	M/I: “How many fresh fruit and vegetables do you usually eat daily?” RO: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, or more than 5 Reporting a consumption of less than three fresh fruit or vegetables a day was considered a health risk behavior.	Significant decrease in consuming fewer than three fresh fruits or vegetables a day, p=0.011	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Malta et al., 2020 ⁸⁰	M/I: “Before the pandemic how many days a week did you usually eat any of the following foods: greens and vegetables, fruit,...savory snacks, chocolate/sweet biscuits/pieces of tart?” “During the pandemic, how frequently do you eat these foods now?” RO: 5 days or more (considered to be regular consumption); 2 to 4 days; one day or less	N/A	Regular consumption of fruit: Before=32.8% During=31.9%	Regular consumption of greens and vegetables: Before=37.3% During=33.0%	Savory snacks more than 2 days: Before=9.5% During=13.2%	Chocolate/sweet biscuits/pieces of tart more than 2 days: Before=41.3% After=47.1%	N/A	N/A
Matsungu & Chopera, 2020 ^{81,d,e}	M/I: How has your consumption of the following foods changed during the pandemic: Dark Green Leafy Vegetables, Other Vegetables, Other Vitamin-A Rich Fruits, Other Fruits...? RO: "1=less/decreased, 2=same/did not change, 3=more/increased, or 4=not applicable “	Other vitamin A rich fruits and vegetables: I=12.5% U=25% D=58.4%	Other Fruits: I=12.5% U=20.9% D=62.6%	Dark green leafy vegetables I=29.2% U=33.4% D=29.2% Other vegetables I=12.5% U=37.5% D=45.9%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

Murphy et al., 2021 ⁸²	M/I: How many portions of fruit and vegetables did you consume per day both before and during the pandemic?	N/A	Significant increase in the portions of fruit consumed per day	Significant increase in the portions of vegetables consumed per day	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Pakravan-Charvadeh et al., 2020 ⁸³	M/I: Which of the following foods did you consume before the pandemic? Which of the following foods did you consume during the pandemic? Cereals, Vitamin A-Rich Vegetables and Tubers,...Dark Green Leafy Vegetables, Other Vegetables, Vitamin A-rich fruits, Other fruits (i.e., wild fruits and 100% fruit juices made from fruits), Fruits,...Fish,..Sweets RO: Yes or No	N/A	Vitamin-A rich fruits/"other" fruits: No significant change	Vegetables: Significant decreased consumption, p=0.05 Dark Green Leafy Vegetables: Significant decreased consumption, p=0.001 Vitamin-A rich vegetables and tubers/"other" vegetables: No significant change	N/A	Sweets: Significant decreased consumption, p=0.001	Fish: No significant change	N/A
Papandreu et al., 2020 ⁵⁴	M/I: Did you consume more pastries during the pandemic? RO: "No, less than 3 pieces per week, or more than 3 pieces per week" M/I: Did the number of snacks you consumed between meals increase during the pandemic? RO: "Yes or no"	N/A	N/A	N/A	Spain: Yes=34.1% No=65.9% Greece: Yes=40.8% No=59.2%	Pastries: Spain: No=69.4% Less than 3/w=19.7% More than 3/w=10.9% Greece: No=62.2% Less than 3/w=12.6% More than 3/w=25.2%	N/A	N/A

Pellegrini et al., 2020 ⁵⁵	M/I: Has your consumption changed: the number of snacks you consume a day,... fruits and vegetables, sweets? RO: "I don't consume those foods usually, is less than before quarantine, is the same as before quarantine, is more than before quarantine"	I=27.3% U=54% D=18%	N/A	N/A	Don't Consume=28% I=32.7% U=28% D=11.3%	Sweets: Don't Consume=16% I=50% U=22% D=12%	N/A	N/A
Radwan et al., 2020 ⁵⁷	M/I: Which of the following foods did you consume more of during the pandemic? RO: "...salty snacks, sweet snacks..."	N/A	N/A	N/A	Salty Snacks: 21% reported consuming more during COVID Sweet snacks: 7.1% reported consuming more during COVID	N/A	N/A	N/A
Reyes-Olavarría et al., 2020 ⁵⁸	M/I: How has your consumption of vegetables and fruits changed during the pandemic? RO: "Less than before/same than before/more than before"	I=30.9% U=48.4% D=20.7%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Rodríguez-Pérez et al., 2020 ⁸⁴	M/I: How has your fast-food frequency changed during the pandemic? How has your snacking frequency changed during the pandemic? How has your consumption of the following foods changed during the pandemic:... Vegetables, Fruits,...Fish, Non-Homemade Pastries...? RO: Higher, Lower, As Before	N/A	I=18.3% U=67.6% D=13.6%	I=16.7% U=71% D=11.8%	I=37.6% U=46.7% D=15.7%	Non-homemade pastries I=21% U=59% D=20%	I=8% U=72% D=21%	I=5.1% U=60.0% D=34.9%
Sánchez-Sánchez et al., 2020 ⁸⁵	M/I: "How many portions of vegetables do you consume every day? (Garnishes and accompaniments would be ½ portion, 1 portion is equal to 200g)" RO: "1 or less, 2 or more, none of them in salad or raw, or 2 or more, some of them in salad or raw." M/I: "How many pieces of fruit, including fruit juice, do you consume a day?" RO: "2 or less per day, 3 or more per day"	N/A	Significant increased consumption, p<0.001	Significant increased consumption, p=0.032	N/A	Industrial Bakery Foods: Significant increased consumption, p<0.001	Significant increased consumption, p<0.001	N/A

M/I: “How many portions of fish/seafood do you consume per week? (1 dish, piece, or portion = 100–150 g of fish or 4–5 pieces or 200 g of seafood)”

RO: “2 or less portions per week, 3 or more portions per week”

M/I: “How many times per week do you consume industrial bakery (non-home made) foods, like biscuits, puddings, sweets, or cakes?”

RO: “1 or less portions per week, 2 or more portions per week”

Scarmozzi no & Visioli, 2020 ⁵⁹	<p>M/I: “Have you changed your fresh fruit and vegetables consumption during the lockdown?”</p> <p>RO: “Yes, it increased, I increased only the consumption of canned fruits and vegetables, No, I have been eating more or less the usual amount, or Yes, I decreased it”</p>	I=21.2% I (canned)=0.9% U=69.2% D=8.7%	N/A	N/A	Salty or sweet snacks: I=23.5% U=57.6% D=18.9%	Sweet food (chocolate, spreads, cakes, ice creams) I=42.5% U=44.0% D=13.5%	N/A	N/A
	<p>M/I: “Have you changed your consumption of other kinds of sweet food (chocolate, spreads, cakes, ice creams) during the lockdown?”</p> <p>RO: “Yes, it increased, I have been consuming more or less the usual amount, or Yes, I decreased it”</p>							
	<p>M/I: “Have you changed your consumption of sweet or salty snacks during the lockdown?”</p> <p>RO: “Yes, it increased, I have been consuming more or less the usual amount, or Yes, I decreased it”</p>							
S. V Sharma et al., 2020 ⁸⁶	<p>M/I: How has your consumption of fruits and vegetables changed because of COVID-19?</p> <p>RO: Increased, Decreased, Stayed the Same</p>	I=30.2% U=28.4% D=41.4%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Werneck et al., 2020 ⁸⁷	<p>M/I: How frequently did you consume fruit or vegetables both before the pandemic and during the pandemic quarantine?</p> <p>Reporting eating fruits or vegetables less than five days a week was classified as low frequency</p>	Participants without depression: Low frequency of fruit or vegetable Before=77.5%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

During=78.1%

Participants
with
depression:
Low frequency
of fruit or
vegetable
Before=81.6%
During=81.6%

Yilmaz et al., 2020 ⁷¹	M/I: How has your consumption of the following foods changed during the pandemic: Vegetables, Fruits, Snacks... RO: Increased, Decreased, or Unchanged.	N/A	I=49.1% U=49.4% D=1.5%	I=40.5% U=58.4% D=1.0%	I=38% U=57.5% D=4.5%	N/A	N/A	N/A
Zhang et al., 2020 ⁸⁸	M/I: How has your consumption of the following food types changed during the pandemic: seafood... snacks and beverages? RO: Increase, Unchanged, or Decreased	N/A	N/A	N/A	Consuming Snacks and beverages: I=25% U=38% D=38%	N/A	Seafood: I=9.5% U=37.5% D=53%	N/A

^a I represents an increase in consumption

^b U represents consumption was unchanged

^c D represents a decrease in consumption

^d Findings are presented only for response options related to an increase, decrease, or no change, thus percentages reported will not add to equal 100%. Remaining percentages align with the alternative response options noted in the measures section including “never” and “first time” for Ben Hassen et al., 2020, “do not consume” for Chenarides et al., 2021, and “not applicable” for Matsungo & Chopera, 2020.

^e Studies where values were estimated from a figure

Table 7. Measures and Findings for Changes in the Consumption of Frozen Foods, Dairy Products, Homemade Foods, Legumes, Breads, Grains, and Meats During the Initial Months of the COVID-19 Pandemic

Citation	Measure/ Items (M/I) & Response Options (RO)	Frozen Food	Dairy Products	Homemade Foods	Legumes	Breads/Grains	Meats
Alhusseini & Alqahtani, 2020 ⁷⁴	M/I: “[Before the pandemic] How often do you eat home-cooked meals per week?” “[During the pandemic] How often do you eat home-cooked meals per week?” RO: “0, 1-2 times/week, 3-6 times/week, or daily”	N/A	N/A	Significant increase, p<0.001	N/A	N/A	N/A
Bakhsh et al., 2021 ⁴³	M/I: How has your consumption of the following foods changed during the pandemic:...dairy products, meat, fish, poultry,...? RO: “Increased Intake, Decreased Intake, or No Change in the Intake.”	N/A	I ^a =26% U ^b =12% D ^c =62%	N/A	N/A	N/A	Meat/Fish/ Poultry: I=34% U=57% D=9%
Ben Hassen et al., 2020 ^{63d}	M/I: How has your consumption of the following foods changed during the pandemic:...Meat,...Packaged Frozen Foods? RO: “Much More, Moderately More, About the Same, Slightly Less, Much Less, First Time [meaning that their first time consuming the food was during the pandemic], or Never”	I=14.8% U=47.8% D=21.8%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Meat General: I=11.2% U=72.6% D=12.5%
Bin Zarah et al., 2020 ⁷⁶	M/I: How has your consumption of the following foods changed during the pandemic: ...Sweets,...Brown Rice or Whole Grain Pasta, White Rice or Pasta,... Dark Bread, White Bread, Cold Breakfast Cereals,... Processed Meats, Beef/Pork/Lamb, Eggs/Chicken/Turkey,... Dairy and Dairy Alternatives? RO: Increased, Decreased, or No Change.	N/A	Dairy and dairy alternatives: I=8.3% U=70.1% D=21.6%	N/A	N/A	Brown rice or whole-grain pasta: I=8.1% U=76.8% D=15.1% White rice or pasta: I=26.8% U=62.5% D=10.7% Dark Bread: I=8.7% U=77.2% D=14.1% White Bread: I=19%	Processed Meat: I=19.9% U=63.7% D=16.4% Beef, Pork, or Lamb: I=20.4% U=64.3% D=15.3% Eggs, Chicken, or Turkey: I=11.1% U=57.9% D=31%

						U=70.4% D=10.6%	
						Cold Breakfast cereals : I=22.3% U=67.4% D=10.3%	
Błaszczuk -Bębenek et al., 2020 ⁴⁴	M/I: How frequently have you consumed the following foods before the pandemic and during the pandemic: white bread, whole meal bread, white rice/white pasta, buckwheat/oats,...milk, fermented milk, fresh cheeses, cheeses, cold meats, red meats, white meats,... pulses,...tinned meats...? RO: “(1) never, (2) 1–3 times a month, (3) once a week, (4) few times a week, (5) once a day, (6) few times a day” M/I: How many portions of each food did you consume both before and during the pandemic? RO: “(1) zero, (2) half a portion, (3) one, (4) two, (5) three, (6) four or more”	N/A	Frequency milk/fermented milk/ cheese/fresh cheese/butter: No significant change Portion size milk/fermented milk/cheese/fresh cheese/butter: No significant change	N/A	Pulses frequency: No significant change Pulses Portion size: No significant change	White bread Portion Size: Significant decrease, p=0.040 White bread/Whole meal bread/white rice, white pasta/Buckwheat oats Frequency: No significant change Whole meal bread/white rice, white pasta/Buckwheat oats: Portion size: No significant change	Tinned meats Frequency: Significant increase, p=0.0004 Tinned Meats Portion size: Significant increase, p=0.0390 Red Meats/White Meats/Cold Meats frequency: No significant change Red Meats Portion size: Significant decrease, p=0.0199 White Meats/Cold Meats Portion size: No Significant Change
Celik & Dane, 2020 ⁷⁷	M/I: Which foods did you have a preference to consume both before and during the pandemic? RO: Meat	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Meat General: Before=29.2% During=22.9%
Cheikh Ismail et al., 2020 ⁶⁶	M/I: What meal types were your most consumed meals both before the pandemic and during the pandemic?	Significant decreased consumption, p=0.032	N/A	Significant increased consumption, p<0.001	N/A	N/A	N/A

	RO: “Homemade, frozen ready-to-eat meals...”						
Cheikh Ismail et al., 2021 ⁶⁵	M/I: What meal types were your most consumed meals both before the pandemic and during the pandemic? RO: “Homemade, frozen ready-to-eat meals,...”	No significant change	N/A	Significant increased consumption, p<0.001	N/A	N/A	N/A
Chenarides et al., 2021 ^{13d}	M/I: “How much more or less have you consumed these foods since COVID-19 started?” for 10 major food groups:...dairy, meat, grains,...frozen food,...” RO: “A lot more (5), A bit more (4), About the same (3), A little less (2), A lot less (1) and Do not consume”	I=25.43% U=53.19% D=16.49%	I=19.16% U=65.27% D=12.66%	N/A	N/A	Grains: I=28.69% U=59.35% D=10.22%	Meat General: I=19.86% U=54.36% D=22.18%
Di Renzo, Gualtieri, Pivari, et al., 2020 ^{67e}	M/I: “During this [quarantine] period, which of these foods are you consuming MORE than before?” RO: “None...pasta and cereals, bread, homemade pizza, homemade pastries,...ham and processed meat, dairy products, cheese, cow’s milk and yogurt...Legumes, white meat, red meat...” M/I: “During this [quarantine] period, which of these foods are you consuming LESS than before?” RO: “None...pasta and cereals/ bread/homemade pizza/homemade pastries...processed meat/dairy products/ cheese/cow’s milk and yogurt,...legumes/white meat/red meat...”	N/A	Dairy Products: Reduced Intake=4% Increased Intake=13.3% Milk and yogurt: Reduced Intake=4.0% Increased Intake=9.3%	Homemade Sweets: Reduced Intake=4% Increased Intake=45.4% Homemade Pizza: Reduced Intake=4.7% Increased Intake=35.4%	Reduced Intake=4.7% Increased Intake=15.3%	Fresh Bread: Reduced Intake=9.3% Increased Intake=17.3% Cereals: Reduced Intake=5.3% Increased Intake=24.7%	Preserved Meat: Reduced intake=12.7% Increased intake=13.3% Processed Meat: Reduced intake=6.7% Increased intake=3.3% Red Meat: Reduced intake=8.0% Increased intake=8.7% White Meat: Reduced Intake=4.7% Increased Intake=12.0%
Giocalone et al., 2020 ⁶¹	M/I: How has your consumption of the following foods changed during the pandemic...Red Meat, Legumes,... Pastries (homemade)...? RO: Higher, Lower, or As Before.	N/A	N/A	Homemade Pastries: I=38.1% U=53.8% D=8.1%	I=7.1% U=84.4% D=8.6%	N/A	Red Meat: I=11.5% U=76.2% D=12.3%
Górnick et al., 2020 ⁶²	M/I: Has your consumption of the following foods changed during the pandemic:...whole grain cereal products, low fat meat and/or	N/A	I=20.8% U=71.0% D=8.2%	Homemade Pastry: I=39.9% U=51.1%	I=13.9% U=77.7% D=8.5%	Whole Grain Products: I=16.3% U=72.3%	Low Fat Meat and/or Eggs: I=15.7% U=74.7%

	eggs,... milk and milk products, processed meats,... homemade meals,...? RO: "I eat more/I eat the same/I eat less/I didn't eat before and during the pandemic"		D=9.0%			D=11.4%	D=9.7%
			Homemade Meals: I=48.0% U=48.8% D=3.1%				Processed Meat: I=10.9% U=71.4% D=17.7%
Huber et al., 2021 ⁵⁰	M/I: How has your consumption of the following foods changed during the pandemic:... Bread, Meat, Dairy...? RO: Increased, Decreased, or Unchanged.	N/A	I=25% U=58.5% D=16.5%	N/A	N/A	Bread: I=32.5% U=40% D=27.5%	Meat General: I=16% U=56.5% D=27.5%
Husain & Ashkanani, 2020 ⁶⁹	M/I: How frequently do you eat each of the following foods: red meat, chicken,... processed meat...? RO: "Never, less than 1/w, 1-2/w, 3-4/w, 5-6/w, 7 or more, I do not know, or none." M/I: What type of milk do you consume most frequently? RO: "None/whole milk/semi-skimmed/skimmed/soy milk/almond milk/other (rice/goat milk)/do not know" M/I: What type of bread do you consume most frequently? RO: "Other/white/brown or brown seeds/whole wheat/[non-brown] seeds/None"	N/A	Before: None=23.4% Whole milk=29.9% Semi-skimmed=23.9% Skimmed=13.5% Soy milk=1.0% Almond milk=5.1% Other (rice/goat)=2.7% During: None=23.9% Whole milk=30.8% Semi-skimmed=24.8% Skimmed=11.3% Soy milk=1.2% Almond milk=3.6% Other (rice/goat)=3.1%	N/A	N/A	Before: Other=2.4% White=42.9% Brown/brown seeds=44.1% Whole wheat=9.4% Seeds=0.0% None=1.2% During: Other=1.7% White=48.0% Brown/brown seeds=39.5% Whole wheat=9.6% Seeds=0.0% None=1.2%	Processed Meat: Before: Never=68.4% Less than 1/w=17.8% 1-2/w=9.2% 3-4/w=3.1% 5-6/w=0.5% 7 or more=0.0% I don't know=1.0% During: Never=69.4% Less than 1/w=16.1% 1-2/w=7.0% 3-4/w=5.1% 5-6/w=1.0% 7 or more=0.2% I don't know=1.2% Red Meat: Before: Never=7.7% Less than 1/w=17.3% 1-2/w=49.4% 3-4/w=22.7% 5-6/w=1.2% 7 or more=0.7% I don't know=1% During: Never=10.1%

								Less than 1/w=20.7% 1-2/w=47.5% 3-4/w=18.1% 5-6/w=2.2% 7 or more=0.5% I don't know=1%
								Chicken: Before: Never=3.6% Less than 1/w=4.3% 1-2/w=35.9% 3-4/w=41.4% 5-6/w=10.6% 7 or more=3.1% I don't know=1% During: Never=4.8% Less than 1/w=6.5% 1-2/w=34.5% 3-4/w=39.5% 5-6/w=11.3% 7 or more=2.7% I don't know=0.7%
Kansiime et al., 2021 ^{40e}	M/I: How often did you consume the following foods both before the pandemic and during the pandemic:..., meat (goat, beef, mutton, etc.), and poultry products? RO: “rarely (once or twice a month), sometimes (3–10 times a month), and often (>10 times a month)”	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Meat General: Percent of participants who reported a frequent consumption (>10 times per month) Kenya: Before=41.6% During=16% Uganda: Before=51.2% During=22.4%	

							<p>Poultry: Percent of participants who reported a frequent consumption (>10 times per month)</p> <p>Kenya: Before=38.4% During=19.2%</p> <p>Uganda: Before=41.6% During=28.8%</p>
Kriaucioni et al., 2020 ⁵¹	<p>M/I: How has your consumption of the following foods changed during the pandemic:...Pulses,...Red Meats/Hamburgers/Sausages...Homemade pastries such as cookies, custards, sweets, or cakes?</p> <p>RO: Higher, Lower or As usual</p>	N/A	N/A	Homemade pastries such as cookies, custards, sweets, or cakes: I=37.7% U=50.8% D=11.5%	Pulses: I=9.1% U=82.4% D=8.5%	N/A	Red meats, hamburgers, sausages: I=12.2% U=69.9% D=17.9%
Lamarche et al., 2021 ⁷⁸	<p>M/I: Which of the following foods did you eat in the last 24 hours?</p> <p>RO: Whole grains,.. refined grains,...total dairy,...total proteins?</p>	N/A	Total dairy: Significant increased consumption	N/A	N/A	Refined Grains: Significant reduced consumption	Total proteins: Significant increased consumption
Malta et al., 2020 ⁸⁰	<p>M/I: “Before the pandemic how many days a week did you usually eat any of the following foods: ...beans, frozen food...?” “During the pandemic, how frequently do you eat these foods now?”</p> <p>RO: “5 days or more; 2 to 4 days; one day or less”</p>	Frozen Food more than 2 days: Before=10.0% During=14.6%	N/A	N/A	Regular consumption of beans: Before=43.3% During=40.9%	N/A	N/A
Matsungu & Chopera, 2020 ^{81d,e}	<p>M/I: How has your consumption of the following foods changed during the pandemic:...Meat and Meat Groups,... Cereal Breads and Tubers, Dairy Products...Pulses/legumes...?</p>	N/A	I=8.3% U=41.7% D=45.9%	N/A	I=16.7% U=37.5% D=33.4%	Cereal, breads, and tubers: I=16.7% U=37.5% D=41.7%	Meat General: I=8.3% U=45.9% D=41.7%

	RO: "1=less/decreased, 2=same/did not change, 3=more/increased, or 4=not applicable"						
Pakravan-Charvadeh et al., 2021 ⁸³	M/I: Which of the following foods did you consume before the pandemic? Which of the following foods did you consume during the pandemic? Cereals...Organ Meat, Flesh Meats, Meats,..Legumes/Nuts/Seeds, Milk and Milk Products... RO: Yes or No	N/A	Milk and Milk Products: No significant change	N/A	Legumes, Nuts, and Seeds: Significant increased consumption, p=0.001	Cereals: No significant change	Organ Meat: Significant decreased consumption, p=0.001 Flesh Meat: No significant change
Pellegrini et al., 2020 ⁵⁵	M/I: Has your consumption changed: the number of snacks you consume a day, cereals (pasta, rice, other), sources of protein (meat, fish, eggs, cheese, legumes),...? RO: "I don't consume those foods usually, is less than before quarantine, is the same as before quarantine, is more than before quarantine"		N/A	N/A	protein (meat, fish, eggs, cheese, legumes): Don't Consume=0.7% I=27.3% U=54% D=18%	cereals (pasta, rice, other): Don't Consume=2.7% I=28% U=53.3% D=16%	protein (meat, fish, eggs, cheese, legumes): Don't Consume=0.7% I=27.3% U=54% D=18%
Reyes-Olavarría et al., 2020 ⁵⁸	M/I: Was cooking performed more than before, less than before, or maintained? RO: "More than before/same [as] before/less than before"	N/A	N/A	I=59.6% U=34.7 D=5.7%	N/A	N/A	N/A
Rodríguez-Pérez et al., 2020 ⁸⁴	M/I: How has your fast-food frequency changed during the pandemic? How has your consumption of the following foods changed during the pandemic:...Red Meat,... Legumes...? RO: Higher, Lower, As Before	N/A	N/A	N/A	I=15% U=78% D=8%	N/A	Red Meat: I=8% U=68% D=24%
Sánchez-Sánchez et al., 2020 ⁸⁵	M/I: "How many portions of butter, margarine, or cream do you consume every day? Individual portion=2g" RO: "1 or less per day, 2 or more per day." M/I: "How many portions of legumes do you consume per week? (1 dish or portion is 150 g): RO: "2 or less portions per week, 3 or more portions per week" M/I: "How many portions of red meat, hamburgers, sausages, or cold meat do you consume every day? (Portion 100–150 g)"	N/A	Butter, Margarine, or Cream: Significant increased consumption, p<0.001	N/A	Significant increased consumption, p<0.001	N/A	Red meat, Hamburger, Sausages, or Cold Meat: Significant increased consumption, p<0.001

RO: “1 or less per day, 2 or more per day”							
Yılmaz et al., 2020 ⁷¹	M/I: How has your consumption of the following foods changed during the pandemic: ...Red Meat/Chicken/Fish, Dairy Products...?	N/A	I=41.0% U=58.5% D=0.5%	N/A	N/A	N/A	Red meat, chicken, and fish: I=32.1% U=65.8% D=2.1%
RO: Increased, Decreased, or Unchanged.							
Zhang et al., 2020 ⁸⁸	M/I: How has your consumption of the following food types changed during the pandemic: frozen food, imported frozen food...? RO: Increase, Unchanged, or Decreased	Frozen Food: I=19% U=40% D=41%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
		Imported Frozen Food: I=3.3% U=40% D=57%					

^a I represents an increase in consumption

^b U represents consumption was unchanged

^c D represents a decrease in consumption

^d Findings are presented only for response options related to an increase, decrease, or no change, thus percentages reported will not add to equal 100%. Remaining percentages align with the alternative response options noted in the measures section including “never” and “first time” for Ben Hassen et al., 2020, “do not consume” for Chenarides et al., 2021, and “not applicable” for Matsungo & Chopera, 2020.

^e Studies where values were estimated from a figure

Table 8. Measures and Findings for Changes in Healthy Eating During the Initial Months of the COVID-19 Pandemic

Citation	Measure/Items (M/I) & Response Options (RO)	Findings
Alhusseini & Alqahtani, 2020 ⁷⁴	M/I: “How would you rate your overall habits of eating healthy foods?” (Before and during COVID-19). RO: poor/ fair/ good/ very good/ excellent	Statistically significant increase in respondents rating of their eating healthy food as very good/excellent (22.3% to 29.5%; $p < 0.001$).
Almandoz et al., 2020 ⁸⁹	M/I: “As a result of COVID-19, do you find it is easier or more difficult to stick to healthy diet menus and plans?”	61.2% reported greater challenge in following healthy diet plans. 25% reported no change.
Ammar et al., 2020 ⁶⁴	M/I: “How likely are you to have an unhealthy diet/food?” Referenced for before and after confinement. Never/sometimes/most of the times/ always	Significantly higher reports of unhealthy eating during confinement ($t = -3.46$, $p < 0.001$, $d = 0.14$). Consuming unhealthy food increased for responses to most of the time (23.3% vs. 18.4%) and always (10.9% vs. 6.2%).
Ben Hassen et al., 2020 ^{63a}	M/I: Change of eating or drinking habits during the COVID-19 pandemic for the healthy foods, unhealthy foods (e.g., fast food), healthy snacks, unhealthy snacks RO: Never/first time/much less/slightly less/ about the same/ moderately more/ much more	54.1% about the same healthy foods 16.6% much more healthy foods 15.7% moderately more healthy foods 6.3% slightly less healthy foods 2.8% much less healthy foods 4.4% never 0.2% first time 22.5% about the same unhealthy foods 3.5% much more unhealthy foods 6.3% moderately more unhealthy foods 11% slightly less unhealthy foods 33.5% much less unhealthy foods 22.2% never 1.0% first time 57.7% about the same healthy snacks 6.8% much more healthy snacks 14.1% moderately more healthy snacks 8% slightly less healthy snacks 4.7% much less healthy snacks 8.5% never 0.2% first time 41.4% about the same unhealthy snacks 2.8% much more unhealthy snacks 9.4% moderately more unhealthy snacks 12.6% slightly less unhealthy snacks 19.8% much less unhealthy snacks

		13.6% never 0.3% first time
Cancello et al., 2020 ⁴⁶	M/I: “How do you evaluate the quality of your nutrition compared to before isolation for covid19?”	47% reported diet quality was like before 34% reported improved diet quality 19% reported worsened diet quality
Di Renzo, Gualtieri, Pivari, et al., 2020 ⁶⁷	M/I: “Did your lifestyle and eating habits change ^b during the COVID-19 pandemic period?” M/I: “During this period, which of these foods are you consuming MORE than before?” M/I: “During this period, which of these foods are you consuming LESS than before?”	46.1% no change in lifestyle/eating habits 37.2% COVID-19 made habits worse 16.7% COVID-19 made habits improve 37.4% reported eating more healthy food; 35.8% ate less. (Defined as adherence to the Mediterranean diet)
	Healthy food defined as fruit, vegetables, nuts and legumes Junk food is defined as packaged sweets and baked products, sweet beverages, savory snacks and dressing sauces	29.8% reported a decrease in “junk food” consumption. Percent increase not reported
Do et al., 2020 ⁹⁰	M/I & RO: “Reported their current... eating (less healthy versus unchanged or healthier) behaviors as compared with that before the pandemic”	5042 (96.8%) ate at an “unchanged or healthier” level [no distinction made]
Duong et al., 2020 ⁹¹	M/I & RO: Participants rated their eating behavior as less healthy, unchanged, and healthier	42.8% reported healthier eating behavior compared to before the pandemic. (Less healthy and unchanged eating behaviors were assessed together)
Flanagan et al., 2021 ⁶⁸	M/I: Perception of overall healthy eating habits and weight change M/I: Optional long form was a modification of the Rapid Eating Assessment (REAP-s) ¹³⁴	20.7% perceived they were eating healthier and 35.6% reported eating less healthy The REAP-s increased (0.81±0.04, p<0.001), indicating overall healthier eating
Górnick et al., 2020 ⁶²	M/I: Three patterns created: (1) Prohealthy-increased healthy foods & decreased non-recommended foods (2) Constant-relatively stable dietary patterns (3) Unhealthy-increased consumption of non-recommended foods & Decreased consumption of healthy ones	53.0%- Constant eating pattern 27.6- Prohealthy eating pattern 19.4%- Unhealthy eating pattern
	Healthy foods- based on plant food (vegetables, legumes, fruits), healthy fats, and rich protein-low fat food.	
Ingram et al., 2020 ⁹²	M/I & RO: “diet: 1 = ‘a lot more unhealthy’, 3 = ‘about the same’, 5 = ‘a lot more healthy’”	34.1% diet remained the same. 28.1% diet was a little more unhealthy 12.8% diet was a lot healthier 18.8% diet was a little more healthy 6.3% diet was a lot healthier
Kansiime et al., 2021 ⁴⁰	M/I: The Food Insecurity Experience Scale (FIES) ¹³²	Percent of people reporting unable to eat health/nutritious food before and during the pandemic. All are significant (p<.01)

		In total sample: 21% before, 55% during Kenya sample: 23% before, 56% during Uganda sample: 16% before, 51% during
Khubchanda ni et al., 2020 ⁹³	M/I & RO: “overall perception of diet quality change” healthier than before the pandemic/ same as before the pandemic/worse than before the pandemic.	32% their diet is healthier than before 31% report their diet was worse than before 37% reporting no change in overall diet.
Marty et al., 2021 ⁵³	M/I: Simplified PNNS-GS2 (sPNNS-GS2; an index to reflect the 2017 French main dietary recommendations) ¹³⁶ “Less healthy food groups which consumption should be limited, i.e., red meat, processed meat, sugary foods, sweet-tasting beverages, alcoholic beverages, salt” ‘healthier food groups carrying a positive score, i.e., fruits and vegetables, nuts, legumes, whole-grain food, milk and dairy products, fish and seafood	Scores on the sPNNS-GS2 significantly decreased during lockdown compared to before (0.8 vs 1.2 respectively; p<.001)
Pellegrini et al., 2020 ⁵⁵	M/I: “During the lockdown period, the healthy foods that you prepare/consume:”	56% reported “I have not changed habits with respect to the type of food” 28% reported “I don’t pay attention to how healthy a food is. I consume/prepare foods that give me satisfaction.” 16% reported “I consume/prepare more healthy foods, paying attention to the seasoning”
Pham et al., 2020 ⁹⁴	M/I: Healthy intake- 5-item Healthy Eating Score (HES-5) ¹³⁷	Being under the lockdown associated with lower healthy dietary intake scores (p < 0.001).
Poelman et al., 2021 ⁵⁶	M/I & RO: Participants healthy eating pre-lockdown on a five-point Likert scale (fully agree - full disagree). M/I & RO: If they “found it easier or more difficult than usual to make healthy food choices” and “if they ate healthier or less healthy than usual”	Pre-lockdown, most perceived their eating as healthy (81%) with 16.1% being neutral and 2.9 % reporting eating unhealthily. 82.7% no change in difficulty to eat healthy, 10.8% more difficult to eat healthy 6.5% easier to eat healthy 83.3% reported no difference in healthiness of food 9.6 % reported eating healthier 7.1% reported eating unhealthier
Robinson et al., 2021 ⁷⁰	M/I: ‘Compared to before the COVID-19 lockdown in the UK, I have ’ followed by several items on barriers/facilitators to healthy eating RO: 7-point response scale 1 = A lot less frequently/ 4 = The same amount/ 7 = A lot more frequently M/I: Short 13 item food frequency questionnaire (SFFQ) ^{138c}	Below are the percent of people who agreed to the question ‘compared to before the COVID- 19 lockdown in the UK, I have...’ 77% been able to access healthy food 79% been able to afford healthy food 77% been able to plan healthy meals 83% known how to eat healthily in the current circumstances

		88% had time to eat healthily 83% had unhealthy food in the house 55% been motivated to eat healthily 49% fallen into unhealthy habits 43% been supported by others to eat healthily
		Nearly equal proportions said that their eating a healthy and balanced diet remained the same (31%), was less (17% a little less, 12% less, 6% a lot less), and was more (17% a little more, 12% more, 6% a lot more)
		Lower diet quality was related to higher BMI, lower education, being white, younger and a male.
Rossinot et al., 2020 ⁹⁵	M/I: Self-evaluation of the change during the lockdown of their diet RO: Less balanced/ no change/ more balanced	54.1% unchanged 28.7% more balanced 17.1% less balanced
Sánchez-Sánchez et al., 2020 ⁸⁵	M/I: Prevention with Mediterranean Diet questionnaire Healthy defined as high adherence	Adherence to Mediterranean diet increased (8% vs 4.7%).
Wang et al., 2020 ⁷²	M/I: Not listed	23% of adults reported changed their diets to be healthier

^a Findings related to healthy foods and unhealthy snacks from Ben Hassen et al., 2020⁶³ have percentages that do not add to be 100%. These results are presented in accordance with the original study.

^b The original item from Di Renzo, Gualtieri, Pivari, et al., 2020⁶⁷ reads “Did your lifestyle and eating habits changed during the COVID-19 pandemic?”

^c Measure source as cited in Robinson et al., 2021⁷⁰ “Participants completed a UK-based short 13 item food frequency questionnaire (SFFQ) in which consumption frequencies of ‘healthy’ and ‘unhealthy’ key food groups (e.g. fruit, vegetables, wholegrains, sugary drinks, processed meat) during the last week are measured (Green et al., 2016).”

Table 9. Measures and Findings for Changes in Other Eating Behaviors During the Initial Months of the COVID-19 Pandemic

Citation	Behavior	Measure/Items (M/I) & Response Options (RO)	Findings
Adams et al., 2020 ¹⁰³	Meal Skipping	M/I: Whether/ how often they cut meal sizes or skipped meals in the past 30 days because there was not enough money for food. RO: number of days/month ≥ 3 days considered food insecure	Parents reported cutting or skipping meals because of not enough money more often during the pandemic (11.0 ± 7.5 days/month) compared to before COVID-19 (2.9 ± 2.2 days/month)
Almandoz et al., 2020 ⁸⁹	Meal Skipping	M/I: Food security: The 6-item US Adult Food Security Survey Module ¹³⁹ M/I: Skipping meals? RO: Yes/No	12.1% of participants reported skipping meals (although 78.3% of the sample was not food insecure)
Ammar et al., 2020 ⁶⁴	Uncontrolled Eating	M/I: Asked as before and during the pandemic “How often have you found yourself eating out of control?” RO: Never/sometimes/ most of the time/always	Eating out of control was significantly higher during home confinement ($p < 0.001$) 20.4% of participants indicated eating out of control most of the time during home confinement compared to 9.7% before confinement 9.6% of participants indicated they were always eating out of control during home confinement compared to 2.3% before confinement
Cheikh Ismail et al., 2020 ⁶⁶	Meal Skipping	M/I: Meal skipping? RO: Yes/no M/I: Main reasons for skipping meals? RO: To reduce food intake, lack of time, to lose weight, lack of appetite, fasting	46.2% of people reported skipping meals during the pandemic compared to 65.5% skipping meals before the pandemic People reported the main reason they skipped meals during and before the pandemic was: To reduce food intake (29.1% during, 21.7% before) Losing weight (23.6% during, 18.5% before) Lack of time (30.6% during, 62.3% before) Lack of appetite (36% during, 27.7% before) Fasting (25.7% during, 10.3% before)
Cheikh Ismail et al., 2021 ⁶⁵	Meal Skipping	M/I: Meal skipping? RO: Yes/no M/I: Main reasons for skipping meals? RO: To reduce food intake, lack of time, to lose weight, lack of appetite, fasting	45.1% of participants skipped meals during the pandemic compared to 64.4% of participants skipping meals from before the pandemic ($p < 0.001$) People reported the main reason they skipped meals during and before the pandemic was: To reduce food intake (27.7% during, 18.6% before) Losing weight (23.8% during, 20.2% before) Lack of time (27% during, 60.8% before)

			Lack of appetite (37.9% during, 30.9% before) Fasting (26.4% during, 10% before)
Di Renzo, Gualtieri, Pivari, et al., 2020 ⁶⁷	Meal Skipping	M/I: “Did you change the number of daily meals, during this period “ RO: No, it didn't/Yes, I skip 1 or more of the main meals (breakfast, lunch, dinner)/Yes, I skip 1 or more of snacks between meals/Yes, I added 1 or more of the main meals/Yes, I added 1 or more of the snacks between meals/Yes, I eat out of the meals. ^a	17.5% reported skipping more snacks or meals 23.5% reported introducing more meals/snacks
Elmacloğlu et al., 2021 ¹⁰²	Uncontrolled Eating Restrictive Eating	M/I: Uncontrolled eating, cognitive restriction, and emotional eating behavior: Eighteen items in total ^{140,141} RO: 1=absolutely true; 2=mostly true; 3=mostly false; and 4=absolutely false	Uncontrolled eating behavior significantly increased during the pandemic in “normal” and “overweight” individuals compared to before (p<.001). Compared to men, women’s uncontrolled eating and cognitive restriction were higher during the pandemic compared to before. 22.14 % of participants reported increases in uncontrolled eating behavior 9.12% of participants reported increases in restrictive eating behaviors
Flaudias et al., 2020 ⁹⁷	Binge Eating Restrictive Eating	M/I: Depression and Anxiety: The Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS) ¹⁴² M/I: Perceived stress: The 10-item Perceived Stress Scale (PSS-10) ¹⁴³ M/I: Eating behaviors: The body dissatisfaction and impulse regulation subscales of the Eating Disorder Inventory, 2 nd edition (EDI-2) ¹⁴⁴ an eating disorder screening tool (Sick, Control, One, Fat, Food [SCOFF]) ¹⁴⁵ and the Ideal Body Stereotype Scale (IBSS) ^{146b}	Binge eating (past 7 days) higher in women, those with higher BMI, greater perceived stress, higher stress related to lockdown, more anxiety, more depression, and probable eating disorders Dietary restriction (past 7 days) higher in women, younger students, those who are classified as “underweight” or “obese.” Having scholarship associated with less restriction Higher stress related to the lockdown and anxiety was associated with a higher likelihood of current dietary restriction (past 7 days; p<.001) and anticipated restriction (next 2 weeks; p<.01). Higher eating disorder risk, body dissatisfaction, and endorsement of appearance ideals linked to report higher dietary restriction (p<.001).

			<p>Anticipated bingeing (next 2 weeks) associated with higher age, depression, stress related to lockdown, and COVID media exposure, being “underweight,” risk for eating disorder, and lower impulse regulation and body dissatisfaction.</p> <p>Anticipated dietary restriction (next 2 weeks) was higher for those who were younger, women, at risk of eating disorders, had high levels of body dissatisfaction, endorsement of appearance ideals, low impulse control and BMIs classified as “underweight” and “obese.”</p>
Haddad et al., 2020 ¹⁰⁴	Restrictive Eating	<p>M/I: The Eating Disorder Examination-Questionnaire (EDEQ)¹⁴⁷</p> <p>M/I: 10 questions related to fear of COVID-19 (e.g., “Thinking about COVID-19 makes me feel anxious”)</p> <p>RO: 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (extremely) Higher scores indicate increased fear.</p>	Greater fear of COVID-19, higher BMI, and physical activity predicted higher restraint scores $p < .001$.
Husain & Ashkanani, 2020 ⁶⁹	Meal Skipping	<p>M/I & RO: “Skipping meal breakfast; skipping meal snack (breakfast and lunch); skipping meal lunch; skipping meal snack between lunch and dinner; skipping meal dinner; none skipping meal”</p>	Changes in meal skipping were seen for: Breakfast: 41.7% during, 38.8% before Snack between breakfast and lunch: 25.8% during, 32.3% before Lunch: 13.7% during, 8.9% before Snack between lunch and dinner: 20.2% during, 28.7% before
Kansiime et al., 2021 ⁴⁰	Meal Skipping	<p>M/I: Food security: The food insecurity experience scale (FIES)¹³²</p> <p>M/I: Skipped a meal</p> <p>RO: Yes/no</p>	Meal skipping significantly increased in samples from Kenya (19% before, 42% during) and Uganda (12% before, 27% during). This was an indicator of food insecurity, which rose significantly in both samples.
Kaya et al., 2021 ¹⁰⁵	Meal Skipping	<p>M/I: Fear: The fear of COVID-19 Scale (FCV-19S)¹⁴⁸</p> <p>M/I: Anxiety: The Generalized Anxiety Disorder-7 test (GAD-7)¹⁴⁹</p> <p>M/I: Eating: Questions about skipping meals (not specified)</p>	There was a significant decrease in skipping breakfast (19.9% before to 16.7% during) and snacks (54.7% before to 35.6% during) and a significant increase in skipping lunch (35.6% before to 49.2% during).

Khubchandani et al., 2020 ⁹³	Overeating	M/I: Stress: 10-item Perceived Stress Scale (PSS) ¹⁴³	39% reported overeating at the same level 39% reported overeating more 22% reported overeating less
	Restrictive Eating	M/I: Dietary behaviors: Four questions about dietary behaviors (e.g., overeating, fasting, etc.) RO: More than before the pandemic/same as before the pandemic/less than before the pandemic	52% reported no changes in restricted eating 20% reported an increase in their restricted eating 28% reported a decrease in their restricted eating
Phillipou et al., 2020 ⁹⁸	Meal Skipping		45% reported no changes in meal skipping 25% reported skipping meals more 30% reported skipping meals less
			54% reported no changes in fasting 16% reported increased fasting 30% reported less fasting
			Changes in overeating, restricted eating, meal skipping, and fasting were related to higher stress scores.
Phillipou et al., 2020 ⁹⁸	Binge Eating	M/I: Current negative mood states (over the past week): The Depression Anxiety Stress Scale (DASS-21) ¹⁵⁰	60% reported no changes in binge eating behaviors 34.6% reported increased binge eating behaviors 5% reported decreased binge eating behaviors
	Restrictive Eating	M/I: Restricted eating and binge eating questions adapted from the Eating Disorders Examination Questionnaire (EDE-Q) ¹⁵¹ RO: 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1- a lot more to 5-a lot less	59% reported no change in level of food restriction 27.6% reported a greater level of food restriction 13% reported less food restriction
Puhl et al., 2020 ⁹⁹	Binge Eating	M/I: Binge eating: Two questions adapted from the Questionnaire on Eating and Weight Patterns-Revised ¹⁵² “In the past month, have you ever eaten so much food in a short period of time that you would be embarrassed if others saw you (binge-eating)?” and “During the times when you ate this way, did you feel you couldn’t stop eating or control what or how much you were eating?” RO: yes/no M/I: Weight stigma ¹⁵³ : asked how often they teased you about your weight (1 = Never, 2 = Less than once a year, 3 = A few times a	Those who experienced pre-pandemic weight stigma had 2.88 times higher odds of binge eating during the pandemic.

		year, 4 = A few times a month, and 5 = At least once a week)	
Robertson et al., 2021 ¹⁰¹	Uncontrolled Eating	<p>M/I: Perceived changes in eating: “I have found it more difficult to regulate or control my eating”; “I have become more preoccupied with food/eating”</p> <p>M/I: Psychological distress: The 4-item version of the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-4)¹⁵⁴</p>	<p>29.4% of participants agreed and 23.7% strongly agreed that it was more difficult to control or regulate eating during the pandemic compared to before</p> <p>37.8% of participants agreed and 21.8% strongly agreed they were more preoccupied with food and eating during the pandemic compared to before</p> <p>Both difficulty with controlling eating and preoccupation with food were significantly related to psychological distress.</p>
Robinson et al., 2021 ⁷⁰	Overeating Meal Skipping	<p>M/I: 10 questions on mental/physical health: “Compared to before the COVID-19 lock-down in the UK, I have (e.g., ‘Felt lonely’, ‘Had conflict/arguments with others’)”</p> <p>RO: 7-point scale ranging from 1 = A lot less frequency to 7 = A lot more frequently</p> <p>M/I: The 5 item WHO well-being scale¹⁵⁵</p> <p>M/I: Overeating: The Appetitive Drive subscale of the Addiction-Like Eating Behavior Scale¹⁵⁶</p>	<p>Overeating during COVID-19 was associated with lower age and education, being female, higher BMI, having a previous psychiatric diagnosis, having had COVID, and experiencing negative mental health since lockdown</p> <p>45% reported no change in meal skipping 23% reported increased meal skipping (12% a little more, 7% more, 4% a lot more). 31% reported decreased meal skipping (9% a little less, 11% less, 11% a lot less)</p> <p>48% reported no change in fasting 19% reported increased fasting (8% a little more, 6% more, 5% a lot more). 33% reported decreased fasting (9% a little less, 12% less, 12% a lot less)</p>
Robinson et al., 2020 ⁹⁶	Binge Eating	<p>M/I: Binge Eating: “Compared with before the COVID-19 virus crisis, I have binged on food.”</p> <p>RO: 7-point scale from 1- a lot less to 7- a lot more. 1-3 was coded as reduced behavior, 4 was no change, and 5-7 were increased behavior</p>	<p>49% reported increased bingeing 33% of participants reported no changes in bingeing 19% reported decreased bingeing</p>
Şimsek & Şen, 2020 ¹⁰⁰	Uncontrolled Eating Restrictive Eating	<p>M/I: Eating behaviors: 20 questions from the three-factor eating questionnaire¹⁵⁷</p>	<p>There were significant increases in uncontrolled eating during the COVID-19 pandemic compared to before</p> <p>Participants with a lower income had greater uncontrolled eating compared to those with a higher income</p>

There was a significant decrease in cognitive restraint behavior during compared to before COVID-19

There was lower cognitive restraint and higher uncontrolled eating in participants aged 18-20 compared to those above 35.

^a The response options stated here are quoted directly from Di Renzo, Gualtieri, Pivari, et al., 2020.⁶⁷ There was no reporting on the “Yes, I eat out of the meals” response option.

^b As cited in Flaudias et al., 2020⁹⁷

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Table 10. Measures and Findings for Reasons for Changes in Eating During the Initial Months of the COVID-19 Pandemic

Citation	Reason	Measure/Items (M/I) & Response Options (RO)	Findings
Adams et al., 2020 ¹⁰³	Food Insecurity	M/I: Whether/ how often they cut meal sizes or skipped meals in the past 30 days because there was not enough money for food ¹³⁹ RO: Number of days/month ≥ 3 days considered food insecure	Food security lowered by 17% and there was a 20% increase in families with very low food security during the pandemic. There were increases in meal skipping related to lack of money from an average of 2.9 ± 2.2 days/month before the pandemic and 11.0 ± 7.5 during the pandemic.
Almandoz et al., 2020 ⁸⁹	Stress Food Insecurity	M/I: Do you stress eat more? RO: Yes/No M/I: 6-item US Adult Food Security Survey Module ¹³⁹	61.2% reported stress eating 78.3% of the sample was not food insecure
Buckland et al., 2021 ⁴⁵	Emotional Eating Craving	M/I: Food responsiveness, emotional eating: The Adult Eating Behavior questionnaire (AEBQ) ¹⁵⁸ M/I: Cravings: The Control of Eating Questionnaire (CoEQ) ¹⁵⁹	Greater emotional overeating and lower emotional undereating were significantly associated with higher increased overall eating 46% of participants reported increased food cravings; 23% reporting less cravings 41% of participants reported no changes and 36% reported increases in craving intensity during COVID-19 compared to before Greater craving frequency and intensity and lower craving control were significantly associated with higher increased overall eating
Carroll et al., 2020 ⁴⁷	Food Insecurity	M/I: “During the past month, was there a time when you were worried you would not be able to pay the mortgage, rent or other bills on time?” RO: Yes/no/I don’t know M/I: “Are you worried about not being able to pay the mortgage, rent or other bills on time over the next 6 months?”	5% of fathers and 10% of mothers reported concerns about food security in the past month or over the next 6 months

Cheikh Ismail et al., 2020 ⁶⁶	Weight Control	M/I: Meal skipping? RO: yes/no	People reported the main reason they skipped meals during and before the pandemic was: Losing weight (23.6% during, 18.5% before)
	Time	M/I: Main reasons for skipping meals? RO: to reduce food intake, lack of time, to lose weight, lack of appetite, fasting	Lack of time (30.6% during, 62.3% before)
Cheikh Ismail et al., 2021 ⁶⁵	Weight Control	M/I: Meal skipping? RO: yes/no	People reported the main reason they skipped meals during and before the pandemic was: Losing weight (23.8% during, 20.2% before)
	Time	M/I: Main reasons for skipping meals? RO: to reduce food intake, lack of time, to lose weight, lack of appetite, fasting	Lack of time (27.0% during, 60.8% before)
Di Renzo, Gualtieri, Cinelli, et al., 2020 ¹⁰⁷	Emotional eating	M/I: Anxiety: 14 item Hamilton Anxiety Rating Scale ¹⁶⁰	57.8% of participants reported feeling anxious due to their eating habits
	Anxiety	M/I: Depression: 17 item Hamilton Depression Scale ¹⁶¹	48.7% reported using food to respond to anxious feelings
		M/I: Emotional eating: 25 item Yale Food Addiction Scale (YFAS) ¹⁶²	55.1% reported increasing their food intake to feel better 20.3% reported exclusion of foods that led to anxious feelings
Elmacloğlu et al., 2021 ¹⁰²	Emotional Eating	M/I: Uncontrolled eating, cognitive restriction, and emotional eating behavior: Eighteen items in total ^{140,141} RO: 1=absolutely true; 2=mostly true; 3=mostly false; and 4=absolutely false	In normal individuals, emotional eating behavior increased significantly during the pandemic compared to before Women's emotional eating scores were higher than men during the pandemic compared to before.
Flaudias et al., 2020 ⁹⁷	Depression	M/I: Depression and Anxiety: The Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS) ¹⁴²	Binge eating in the past 7 days was higher in those with higher BMI, perceived stress, stress related to lockdown, anxiety, and depression, those with probable eating disorders, and women
	Anxiety		
	Stress	M/I: Perceived stress: The 10-item Perceived Stress Scale (PSS-10) ¹⁴³	Higher stress related to the lockdown and anxiety were associated with a higher likelihood of dietary restriction over the past 7 days.
	Body Image	M/I: Eating behaviors: The body dissatisfaction and impulse regulation subscales of the Eating Disorder Inventory, 2 nd edition (EDI-2) ¹⁴⁴ an eating disorder screening tool (Sick,	Higher endorsement of appearance ideals and body dissatisfaction (p < 0.001) associated with a higher likelihood of dietary restriction (past 7 days).

		Control, One, Fat, Food [SCOFF]) ¹⁴⁵ and the Ideal Body Stereotype Scale (IBSS) ^{146a}	Lower body dissatisfaction was related to increased intentions to binge eat in the coming 2 weeks ($p < .001$).
Haddad et al., 2020 ¹⁰⁴	Anxiety	M/I: The Eating Disorder Examination-Questionnaire (EDEQ) ¹⁴⁷	Greater anxiety, fear of COVID-19, anger, and boredom were significantly associated with higher eating concerns scores
	Fear and Anger		
	Boredom	M/I: 10 questions related to fear of COVID-19 (e.g., “Thinking about COVID-19 makes me feel anxious”) RO: 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (extremely) Higher scores indicate increased fear.	Greater fear of COVID-19 predicted higher restraint scores
		M/I: Short boredom proneness scale (SBPS) ¹⁶³ M/I: Lebanese anxiety scale (LAS) ¹⁶⁴ M/I: Anger subscale of the Buss-Perry scale ¹⁶⁵	
Husain & Ashkanani, 2020 ⁶⁹	Stress	M/I: “Do you eat when you feel stressed, unhappy, angry, or bored?” Reported in reference to before and during the pandemic	Participants reported eating when stressed, unhappy, angry, or bored (before and during the pandemic):
	Anger		
	Boredom	RO: Never/rarely/occasionally/usually	Never: 24.1% before and 23.6% during Rarely: 24.8% before and 21% during Occasionally: 35.9% before 34.5% during Usually 15.2% before and 21% during
Jeżewska-Zychowicz et al., 2020 ¹⁰⁸	Stress	M/I: “Have you noticed changes in the availability of food in stores over the last month?”	Higher levels of perceived stress were related greater fears of limited access to food and purchasing of larger quantities of food during the pandemic.
	Fear	RO: No, I did not notice any changes / yes	
	Food Access	M/I: Fear of limited access to food as the pandemic spreads RO: Definitely not/ rather not/ neither no nor yes/ rather yes/ definitely yes M/I: Perceived Stress Scale 4 (PSS-4) ¹⁴³	87.4% of respondents reported perceiving changes in food availability at the onset of the pandemic. 43.7% reported that they were “definitely” or “rather” not worried about limited food access as the pandemic spreads whereas 39% reported fears to some degree. Perceived changes in food availability were the strongest predictor of fear for limited food access.
Kansiime et al., 2021 ⁴⁰	Food Security	M/I: Food security: The food insecurity experience scale (FIES) ¹³²	In the total sample, there were significant increases in food insecurity indicators including worrying about not having enough

			<p>food, being unable to eat healthy/nutritious foods, eating only a few kinds of foods, skipping meals, eating less food, running out of food, feeling hungry and not eating, and going the whole day without eating.</p> <p>In the total sample here were significant increases in the amount of people who were food insecure (39% increase) and severely insecure (16% increase)</p>
Kaya et al., 2021 ¹⁰⁵	Anxiety Fear	<p>M/I: Fear: The fear of COVID-19 Scale (FCV-19S)¹⁴⁸</p> <p>M/I: Anxiety: The Generalized Anxiety Disorder-7 test (GAD-7)¹⁴⁹</p>	<p>Anxiety was positively related to consumption of milk, cheese, kefir, meat, poultry, fish, legumes, dried fruits, nuts-seed, bread, rice-pasta, cake-cookies and general desserts.</p> <p>Fear of COVID was positively related to consumption of yoghurt, cheese, kefir, cake-cookies, dried fruit and nuts-seeds.</p>
Khubchanda ni et al., 2020 ⁹³	Stress	<p>M/I: Stress: 10-item Perceived Stress Scale (PSS)¹⁴³</p> <p>M/I: Dietary behaviors: Four questions about dietary behaviors (e.g., overeating, fasting, etc.)</p> <p>RO: More than before the pandemic/same as before the pandemic/less than before the pandemic</p>	<p>High stress scores were related to worsening diet and changes in restricted eating, fasting, skipping meals, and overeating.</p> <p>Stress scores were lowest among those that had no changes in these behaviors.</p>
Marty et al., 2021 ⁵³	Mood Weight Control	<p>M/I: Food choice motives: French version of the Food Choice Questionnaire developed in English¹⁶⁶ and adapted¹⁶⁷</p>	<p>48% of participants reported an increase in the importance of mood during COVID compared to before and this was associated with worsened dietary nutritional quality</p> <p>29% of the participants reported an increase in importance of weight control and this was associated with lower dietary nutritional quality</p>
Pakravan-Charvadeh et al., 2021 ⁸³	Food Security	<p>M/I: Food Security: modified version of the HFIAS,¹⁶⁸ validated in Iran</p> <p>RO: 9 scales rated over the past 4 weeks with response options including never/ rarely/ sometimes/ often with total scores ranging from 0-27. Higher scores indicate higher household food insecurity</p>	<p>There was a reduction in food insecurity overall $p < .001$</p> <p>Food security was negatively related to factors such as higher family size, and number of educated family members. Food security was positively related to factors such as personal savings and nutrition knowledge.</p>
Pellegrini et al., 2020 ⁵⁵	Depression	<p>M/I: "Which of the following conditions mainly impact on</p>	<p>Participants reported the following as mainly impacting their eating behaviors:</p>

	Anxiety	your eating habits? (you can choose more than 1 option)”	34.7% reported anxiety/depression
	Boredom		36% of participants reported boredom
	Family and Friends		21.3% reported family presence
	Time		32.7% reported increased time for cooking
	Exposure		19.3% reported continuous availability of food
Poelman et al., 2021 ⁵⁶	Stress	M/I: Eating behavior reasons: Participants were asked to indicate the two most important reasons for eating either healthier or less healthy from a list	Percent of participants that reported the following relevant factors related to eating healthier during lockdown: 30.3% reported more time/ headspace to prepare a healthy meal 26.3% reported more time/head space to be conscious about healthy nutrition 30.3% reported a need to improve resistance 17.2% Facing less unhealthy temptations at work 25.3% Facing less unhealthy temptations at social events 24.2% Facing less unhealthy temptations when going out for dinner
	Boredom		
	Friends and family		
	Time		
	Exposure		
			Percent of participants that reported the following relevant factors related to eating unhealthier during lockdown: 19.2% reported more stress 21.9% reported being bored 5.5% reported less social control 17.8% reported fewer social contacts/feeling lonely 5.5% reported more time/head space to prepare an extensive meal 19.2% reported more time/head space and opportunities to bake 31.5% reported more leisure time 35.6% reported facing more unhealthy temptations at home
Puhl et al., 2020 ⁹⁹	Depression	M/I: General weight teasing and weight stigma: assessed with a tool developed by the researchers to ask participants about the frequency they are teased about their weight	Participants who experienced weight stigma and weight teasing prior to the COVID-19 pandemic reported greater depression, stress, and eating to cope during the pandemic.
	Stress		
		M/I: Depressive symptoms: Six-item scale ¹⁶⁹	
		M/I & RO: Perceived stress ¹⁷⁰ Average level of stress was	

		indicated in the past 30 days, with response options ranging from 1 (Not at all stressed) to 10 (Very stressed)	
		M/I: Eating as a coping strategy: The five-item coping subscale of the Motivations to Eat Scale ¹⁷¹	
Robertson et al., 2021 ¹⁰¹	Psychological Distress	M/I: Perceived changes in eating: “I have found it more difficult to regulate or control my eating”; “I have become more preoccupied with food/eating”	Psychological distress was significantly related to difficulty in eating control and regulation ($p < 0.001$)
	Cravings	M/I: Psychological distress: The 4-item version of the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-4) ¹⁵⁴	Psychological distress was significantly related to preoccupations with food/eating ($p < 0.001$) where 37.8% “agreed” and 21.8% “strongly agreed”
Robinson et al., 2021 ⁷⁰	Emotional Eating	M/I: 10 questions on mental/physical health: “Compared to before the COVID-19 lock-down in the UK, I have (e.g., ‘Felt lonely’, ‘Had conflict/arguments with others’)”	42% of participants reported eating more due to their feelings
	Time	RO: 7-point scale ranging from 1 = A lot less frequency to 7 = A lot more frequently	26% of participants reported eating less due to their feelings
		M/I: The 5 item WHO well-being scale ¹⁵⁵	COVID mental health decline was significantly related to overeating
		M/I: Overeating: The Appetitive Drive subscale of the Addiction-Like Eating Behavior Scale ¹⁵⁶	88% reported having time to eat healthily
Rolland et al., 2020 ¹⁰⁹	Mental Well-being	M/I: Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-being Scale (WEMWBS) ¹⁷²	Increased consumption of caloric/salty foods was related to lower mental well-being, higher general stress, and current/past psychiatric disorders.
	General Stress	M/I: Stress visual numeric scale	Increased consumption of caloric/salty foods was related to having a partner and being lockdown alone
	Family and friends	M/I: “How many people share your accommodation during the lockdown (including you)?”	
Rossinot et al., 2020 ⁹⁵	Depression	M/I: “Since the beginning of the lockdown, are you feeling more . . . anxious? Depressed? Irritable?”	Negative changes in nutrition were related to negative changes in mental health (depression, stress, irritability)
	Stress		

		RO: 0-more depressed, stressed, irritable/ 3- no change.	
		M/I & RO: “self-evaluation of the change during the lockdown of their diet (less balanced, no change, more balanced)”	
Scarmozzino & Visioli, 2020 ⁵⁹	Anxiety	M/I: Measures are all in Italian and can be found through this link: https://clikka.net/0f1BP	42.7% of participants reporting an increase in “comfort food” consumption reported it was due to higher anxiety levels
Şimsek & Şen, 2020 ¹⁰⁰	Emotional Eating	M/I: Eating behaviors: 20 questions from the three-factor eating questionnaire ¹⁵⁷	Emotional eating significantly increased during compared to before the pandemic No significant differences in emotional eating by age
Zeigler et al., 2020 ¹¹⁰	Stress Boredom Cravings Family and friends Exposure	M/I: Eating: The Weight and Lifestyle Inventory (WALI) ¹⁷³ M/I: Stress: The Perceived Stress Scale ¹⁷⁴	52% reported eating more in response to stress 73% reported eating more when bored 73% reported eating more due to craving certain foods 59% reported eating more often with friends and family 65% reported eating more in response to sight and smell of food

^a As cited in Flaudias et al., 2020⁹⁷

Figure 1. Flow Diagram of the Articles Included and Excluded from the Present Review of Changes in Adults' Eating Behaviors During the Initial Months of the COVID-19 Pandemic

