SUBSTANCE USE AND MENTAL HEALTH CONCER	NS AMONG ADOLESCENTS

CHARACTERIZING THE CO-OCCURRENCE OF SUBSTANCE USE AND MENTAL HEALTH SYMPTOMS AMONG ADOLESCENTS IN GENERAL POPULATION AND CLINICAL SAMPLES

By JILLIAN HALLADAY, B.Sc.N., R.N., M.Sc.

A Thesis Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree Doctor of Philosophy

McMaster University © Copyright by Jillian Halladay, June 2022

Ph.D. Thesis – J. Halladay; McMaster University – Health Research Methodology

McMaster University DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (2022) Hamilton, Ontario (Health Research Methodology)

TITLE: Characterizing the co-occurrence of substance use and mental health symptoms among adolescents in general population and clinical samples

AUTHOR: Jillian Halladay, B.Sc.N., R.N., M.Sc. (McMaster University)

SUPERVISOR: Professor K. Georgiades

NUMBER OF PAGES: xii, 190

Lay Abstract

This dissertation deepens our understanding of the patterns of co-occurring substance use and mental health concerns among adolescents. First, a review of all existing studies that explore patterns of multiple substance use among adolescents was conducted. Second, patterns of substance use and mental health symptoms were identified in secondary students and schools across Ontario. Third, the feasibility of assessing substance use and mental health symptoms using standardized approaches on an inpatient adolescent psychiatric unit was evaluated. Overall, this work suggests that substance use and mental health concerns commonly co-occur, and that schools and inpatient psychiatric units are important settings for prevention, assessment, and intervention. This work provides actionable next steps to inform assessment, prevention, and intervention efforts designed to address co-occurring substance use and mental health concerns among adolescents.

Abstract

Background: Despite policy and practice guidelines highlighting the need to identify and treat substance use early and concurrently with other mental health symptoms, efforts remain uncoordinated and guidelines lack specificity. Limited evidence characterizing patterns and correlates of co-occurring substance use and mental health symptoms hinders our ability to effectively address these concerns early during adolescence. This dissertation deepens our understanding of the patterns and correlates of co-occurring substance use and mental health symptoms among adolescents, how to collect relevant data in inpatient settings, and how to rigorously analyze and report findings. Methods: The first paper is a systematic review of 70 cluster-based studies examining patterns of multiple substance use among adolescents. The second examines patterns and correlates of co-occurring substance use and mental health symptoms through multilevel latent profile analysis and multilevel multinomial regression using a large, representative sample of secondary students and schools across Ontario. The third paper is a pilot study examining the feasibility, acceptability, and importance of standardized assessments of substance use and mental health symptoms in an adolescent psychiatric inpatient unit. **Results:** The substantive findings of this work include: 1) multiple substance use is common; 2) co-occurrence of substance use and mental health symptoms is common, though not universal; 3) substance use may be related to mental health symptom severity, comorbidity, and hospital service use; 4) school climate, belonging, and safety represent important targets for school-based interventions; and 5) adolescent psychiatric inpatient units may represent important contexts for standardized assessments, though more professional training and standardization in assessments and interventions are needed. Methodological recommendations are also presented to improve the collection, analysis, and reporting of similar work in the field. Conclusions: Collectively, this dissertation provides novel, timely, and actionable insight into adolescent substance use patterns, correlates, and potential targets for assessment and intervention efforts.

Acknowledgements

First, I want to express my gratitude to my committee members Drs. Kathy Georgiades, Catharine Munn, James MacKillop, and Michael Amlung. You have all provided me with many opportunities to strengthen my methodological skills, deepen my substantive knowledge, think creatively and critically about the real-world impact of my work, and build far-reaching professional networks. *Kathy*, you have a special ability to help others create specific, feasible, and valuable research questions from complex, messy, real-word problems. Your substantive expertise, detail-oriented methodological approach, and compassion have ensured my work is rigorous, thoughtful, and meaningful. I am deeply grateful for your mentorship; you have allowed me the space and freedom to create my own path, providing me with opportunities and guidance specific to my goals. Catharine, in addition to laying the foundation for my research and network, you helped shape my self-confidence, allowing me to realize my potential, and you taught me the skills to advocate for myself. Your clinical expertise, creativity, and ability to communicate research in a way that inspires people to act has greatly improved the quality and impact of my work. James, thank you for believing in my potential and providing me with career and life-changing methodological, substantive, and clinical opportunities over the years. I am so grateful for all the valuable time you have provided me – to brainstorm, learn, and collaborate. Michael, thank you for your open and transparent mentorship related to academia and job crafting. I also want to thank you for leading by example, and encouraging your mentees to follow suit, in prioritizing family, personal values, and selfcare and mental health.

I am also deeply grateful for the personal and professional mentorship offered by Drs. Laura Duncan, Melissa Kimber, Susan Jack, and Lawrence Mbuagbaw.

To my 3G family, thank you for sharing your knowledge, empathy, and passion for child and youth mental health. The patients and staff have and will continue to shape my work.

To friends and colleagues made along the way, thank you for sharing your knowledge and for your support and friendship. A special thank you to my *Research Ladies*, who will forever have a place in my heart. To my friends outside of graduate school, thank you for standing by me when I did not have as much time to connect.

To my incredibly supportive partner, Nick. Thank you for grounding me during the overwhelming moments, building me up and celebrating my accomplishments, and encouraging me to create a meaningful life inside and outside of work.

Last, but certainly not least, I need to extend a huge amount of gratitude and love to my parents. Thank you for instilling in me the values of compassion and kindness, hard work and persistence, and purpose and generosity. Thank you for always believing in me and supporting me through the highs and lows. No words will ever be able to describe how much I appreciate and love both of you.

Table of Contents

	Page
Preliminary Pages	
Abstract.	iv
Acknowledgements	V
Table of Contents	vi
List of Figures and Tables	ix
List of Abbreviations	X
Declaration of Academic Achievement	xii
Chapter 1: Background	1
Characterizing patterns of substance use and mental health symptoms	1
School environments and adolescent substance use	2
Feasibility of standardized substance use assessment during psychiatric	4
hospitalization.	5
Dissertation objectives and program of work	5
Chapter 2: Patterns of substance use among adolescents: A systematic review	8
Citation, highlights, and copyright information	8
Abstract	9
Introduction	9
Objectives	10
Methods	10
Search Strategy	10
Eligibility Criteria	10
Data extraction and synthesis	11
Risk of bias and quality assessment	11
Results	12
Identification and characterization of substance use patterns	12
Identification and characterization of mental health considerations	12
Patterns of sociodemographic characteristics	19
Quality of included studies	19
Discussion	20
Strengths and limitations	22
Methodological recommendations	23
Conclusion	23
Supplementary Materials	27

,	42
A multilevel latent profile analysis	
	42
	43
8	44
School effects	45
,	46
Methods	46
Sample	46
	47
Statistical methods	50
Results	52
1	52
School-level classes.	52
Characterizing and predicting student profiles	53
J 1	54
Discussion.	54
Conclusion.	57
Supplementary Materials	70
Supplementary Materials	
	112
	112
Chapter 4: The CAMP study: Feasibility and clinical correlates of	112
Chapter 4: The CAMP study: Feasibility and clinical correlates of standardized assessments of substance use in a youth psychiatric inpatient sample	112 112
Chapter 4: The CAMP study: Feasibility and clinical correlates of standardized assessments of substance use in a youth psychiatric inpatient sample Citation, highlights, and copyright information	
Chapter 4: The CAMP study: Feasibility and clinical correlates of standardized assessments of substance use in a youth psychiatric inpatient sample Citation, highlights, and copyright information	112
Chapter 4: The CAMP study: Feasibility and clinical correlates of standardized assessments of substance use in a youth psychiatric inpatient sample Citation, highlights, and copyright information. Abstract. Background.	112 113
Chapter 4: The CAMP study: Feasibility and clinical correlates of standardized assessments of substance use in a youth psychiatric inpatient sample Citation, highlights, and copyright information. Abstract. Background. Methods.	112 113 114
Chapter 4: The CAMP study: Feasibility and clinical correlates of standardized assessments of substance use in a youth psychiatric inpatient sample Citation, highlights, and copyright information. Abstract. Background. Methods. Design and setting.	112 113 114 114
Chapter 4: The CAMP study: Feasibility and clinical correlates of standardized assessments of substance use in a youth psychiatric inpatient sample Citation, highlights, and copyright information. Abstract. Background. Methods. Design and setting.	112 113 114 114 114
Chapter 4: The CAMP study: Feasibility and clinical correlates of standardized assessments of substance use in a youth psychiatric inpatient sample Citation, highlights, and copyright information. Abstract. Background. Methods. Design and setting. Participants	112 113 114 114 114 115
Chapter 4: The CAMP study: Feasibility and clinical correlates of standardized assessments of substance use in a youth psychiatric inpatient sample Citation, highlights, and copyright information. Abstract. Background. Methods. Design and setting. Participants. Measures. Recruitment and data collection.	112 113 114 114 114 115 115
Chapter 4: The CAMP study: Feasibility and clinical correlates of standardized assessments of substance use in a youth psychiatric inpatient sample Citation, highlights, and copyright information. Abstract. Background. Methods. Design and setting. Participants. Measures Recruitment and data collection. Ethics and reporting guidelines.	112 113 114 114 115 115 116
Chapter 4: The CAMP study: Feasibility and clinical correlates of standardized assessments of substance use in a youth psychiatric inpatient sample Citation, highlights, and copyright information. Abstract. Background. Methods. Design and setting. Participants. Measures. Recruitment and data collection. Ethics and reporting guidelines. Statistical analyses.	112 113 114 114 115 115 116 117
Chapter 4: The CAMP study: Feasibility and clinical correlates of standardized assessments of substance use in a youth psychiatric inpatient sample Citation, highlights, and copyright information. Abstract Background Methods Design and setting Participants Measures Recruitment and data collection Ethics and reporting guidelines Statistical analyses.	112 113 114 114 115 115 116 117
Chapter 4: The CAMP study: Feasibility and clinical correlates of standardized assessments of substance use in a youth psychiatric inpatient sample Citation, highlights, and copyright information. Abstract. Background. Methods. Design and setting. Participants. Measures. Recruitment and data collection. Ethics and reporting guidelines. Statistical analyses. Results. Youth component.	112 113 114 114 115 115 116 117 117
Chapter 4: The CAMP study: Feasibility and clinical correlates of standardized assessments of substance use in a youth psychiatric inpatient sample Citation, highlights, and copyright information. Abstract. Background. Methods. Design and setting. Participants. Measures. Recruitment and data collection. Ethics and reporting guidelines. Statistical analyses. Results. Youth component. Staff component.	112 113 114 114 115 115 116 117 117
Chapter 4: The CAMP study: Feasibility and clinical correlates of standardized assessments of substance use in a youth psychiatric inpatient sample Citation, highlights, and copyright information. Abstract. Background. Methods. Design and setting. Participants. Measures. Recruitment and data collection. Ethics and reporting guidelines. Statistical analyses. Results. Youth component. Staff component. Discussion.	112 113 114 114 115 115 116 117 117 117 117

Chapter 5: Discussion	155
Summary of key findings	155
Chapter 2	155
Chapter 3	157
Chapter 4	158
Strengths	160
Limitations	163
Opportunities for future work	167
Co-development: "Nothing about us without us"	168
Implementing and evaluating measurement-based care	170
Prevention and intervention across contexts and stages of development	171
Understanding co-occurrence over time	173
Conclusions	174
References: Chapters 1 and 5	177

List of Figures and Tables

Chapter 1: Background	
Figure 1. School Mental Health Ontario's continuum of mental health	
support at school	3
Chapter 2: Patterns of substance use among adolescents: A systematic review	
Figure 1. A flow diagram of included studies	11
Table 1. Summary of included studies	13
Table 2. Summary of indicators and thematic patterns across included studies	18
Table 3. Substance use pattern themes	20
Figure 2. Risk of Bias Summary	20
Figure 3. Visual representation of substance use patterns	21
Figure 4. Visual representation of mental health and substance use	22
patterns	
Chapter 3: Patterns of student substance use and mental health symptoms: A multilevel latent profile analysis	
Figure 1. Student-level 5 profile model (single level)	64
Figure 2. School-level 3-class model (multilevel)	65
Table 1. Student-level descriptives	66
Table 2. Multilevel multinomial regressions prediction student profile membership	67
Table 3. School-level descriptives.	69
Chapter 4: The CAMP study: Feasibility and clinical correlates of standardized assessments of substance use in a youth psychiatric inpatient	
sample	
Table 1. Summary of key measures in the youth electronic assessment	116
Figure 1. Youth participant flow chart	118
Table 2. Demographic and clinical characteristics of youth participants	120
Table 3. Prevalence of youth substance use prior to index admission	121
Table 4. Selected Kendall's tau correlations between substance variables	
and clinical severity and complexity outcomes	122
Chapter 5: Discussion	
Figure 1. Summary of key dissertation findings	176

List of Abbreviations

ACRA Adolescent Community Reinforcement Approach

ADHD Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder

AUDIT Alcohol Use Disorder Identification Test

BIC Bayesian Information Criterion

BPG Best Practice Guideline

CAMP Cannabis, Alcohol, Mental Health, and Patterns of Service Use

CAN Cannabis involvement

CCSA Canadian Centre for Substance use and Addiction

CD Conduct Disorder

CEDIS Canadian Emergency Department Information System

CI Confidence Interval

CIHI Canadian Institute for Health Information

CLA Common Liability to Addiction Model

CBPR Community Based Participatory Research

CYW Child and Youth Worker

CUDIT-R Cannabis Use Disorder Identification Test - Revised

DAD Discharge Abstract Database

DT Design Thinking

ED Emergency Department

ESA East/Southeast/South Asian

FIML Full Information Maximum Likelihood

GAD Generalized Anxiety Disorder

HED Heavy Episodic Drinking

K6 Kessler-6

LCA Latent Class Analysis

LPA Latent Profile Analysis

LTA Latent Transition Analysis

LRT Likelihood Ratio Test

MBC Measurement-Based Care

MH Mental Health

MDE Major Depressive Episode

MLCA Multilevel Latent Class AnalysisMLPA Multilevel Latent Profile Analysis

MMI Multilevel Multiple Imputation

NACRS National Ambulatory Care Reporting System

OCHS Ontario Child Health Study

OCHS-EBS Ontario Child Health Study – Emotional Behavioural Scales

ODD Oppositional Defiant Disorder

OR Odds Ratio

OSDUHS Ontario Student Drug Use and Health Survey

PHAC Public Health Agency of Canada

PPV Positive Predictive Value

PRISMA-P Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analysis

Protocols

RA Research Assistant

RECORD Reporting of Studies Conducted Using Observational Routinely-Collected

Health Data

RN Registered Nurses

RoB Risk of Bias

SES Socioeconomic Status

SMHS School Mental Health Surveys

SP Social Phobia

SPOR Strategy for Patient Oriented Research

STROBE Strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology

SU Substance Use

SUD Substance Use Disorder

TOB Tobacco smoking

Declaration of Academic Achievement

This is a "sandwich thesis" comprised of 5 chapters. All the work contained herein meets the requirements for inclusion in a Doctor of Philosophy dissertation.

Chapter 1 is unpublished. JH is the sole author.

Chapter 2 is published in *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*. JH conceived of and designed the review. JH led the pre-registration, search, screening, data extraction, and thematic coding. RW and HK were the primary second reviewers in screening, data extraction, and thematic coding. MO, LF, KA, and MK also assisted with screening, data extraction, and verification. CM, JM, MA, and KG provided methodological and substantive support through the manuscript process. JH drafted the first version of the manuscript and was responsible for editing, submitting, and responding to reviewers. All authors approved the final version of the article.

Chapter 3 is under peer review. JH conceived of and designed the secondary analysis. JH led the data cleaning, data analyses, interpretation of results, and writing. JM, CM, MA, and KG provided methodological and substantive support throughout the design, interpretation, and manuscript process. JH drafted the first version of the manuscript and was responsible for editing, submitting, and responding to reviewers. All authors approved the final version of the article.

Chapter 4 is published open access in *Child and Adolescent Mental Health*. JH conceived of and designed the study. JH led work related to approvals (from the Child and Youth Mental Health Research Advisory Committee and the Hamilton Integrated Research Ethics Board) and funding accrual (Hamilton Health Sciences). JH led the data collection, data analysis, and writing of the manuscript. RW assisted with youth and staff primary data collection, data cleaning, and confirming descriptive statistics under the supervision of JH. ZN assisted with chart reviews and descriptive analyse under the supervision of JH. LH, CM, JM, MA, and KG provided methodological and substantive support throughout the study design and manuscript process. JH drafted the first version of the manuscript and was responsible for editing, submitting, and responding to reviewers. All authors approved the final version of the article.

Chapter 5 is unpublished. JH is the sole author.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Prevention and early intervention of substance use and other mental health disorders during mid to late adolescence is imperative to improving overall population health and quality of life. Although most substance use disorders (SUDs) emerge during the mid-twenties, over half of people who use substances in their lifetime initiate use prior to 20 years of age (1) and first symptoms of SUDs appear a median of 9 years earlier than diagnosis (2). Alcohol, cannabis, and tobacco products are the most commonly used substances among adolescents (3, 4) with earlier age of first use being associated with negative psychosocial, mental health, and substance use sequelae (5-7). The co-occurrence of substance use and other mental health symptoms has been related to more severe symptoms, poorer prognosis, and greater likelihood of suicidality (8-18). For decades, governments nationally and internationally have recognized the need to identify substance use problems early in the life course and have called for the development and implementation of integrated substance use and mental health prevention and treatment (19-22). Unfortunately, gaps in integrated efforts persist and there remains uncertainty regarding why, how, when, and for whom substance use and mental health symptoms cooccur.

Characterizing patterns of substance use and mental health symptoms

Substance use and mental health symptoms commonly co-occur (23). For example, individuals with mood and anxiety disorders have been found to be 2 to 4 times more likely to experience a substance use problem than those without these disorders (24). Further, the highest incidence and prevalence of co-occurring problems occurs during late adolescence and emerging adulthood (23). Adolescents are particularly vulnerable to both the initiation and negative effects of substance use – even if not meeting criteria for a SUD – given ongoing brain development (25-27). Among clinical samples of Canadian youth, a large proportion of hospitalizations for substance use (70%) involve concurrent mental health concerns (28) and many adolescents attending outpatient substance use programs (72-83%) present with comorbid elevations in mental

health symptoms (11). This is congruous with findings from an Australian systematic review, which found a majority of individuals (47 to 100%) who attend substance use treatment present with co-occurring mental health symptoms, predominantly related to depression and anxiety (29).

Establishing patterns of co-occurring substance use and mental health symptoms is important for understanding targets for prevention and interventions. First, adolescents may use more than one substance. The types, frequency, and number of substances adolescents use may be related to both etiological and prognostic factors (30, 31). Second, substance use and mental health symptoms overlap, though co-occurrence is not ubiquitous (32). Not all individuals with poor mental health use substances and, at times, presence of mental health symptoms may decrease the likelihood of using substances (33). Similarly, not all individuals who use substances have poor mental health (34, 35). Therefore, focusing on individual substance use or mental health symptoms separately, or on the other hand assuming they consistently co-occur, may result in oversimplification and inaccurate inferences that misguide clinical decisions.

Cluster-based methods are increasingly being used to identify patterns of substance use (36). However, recent systematic reviews have been restricted to summarizing patterns of adolescent multiple substance use (without considering mental health symptoms) (31) or mental health symptoms (without considering substance use) (37). Thus, more work is needed to synthesize existing cluster-based studies related to co-occurring patterns to identify homogenous subgroups that can inform tailored prevention and treatment efforts.

School environments and adolescent substance use

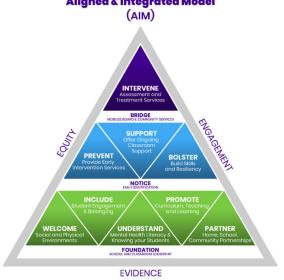
Schools can be sources of risk and resiliency factors related to student health, substance use, and mental health concerns (38). Schools have been found to account for a large amount of the variability in student substance use, with point estimates of up to 20% depending on the substance and frequency pattern being measured (39, 40). Accordingly, the Public Health Agency of Canada (PHAC) recently proposed the Blueprint for Action:

Preventing substance related harms among youth through a comprehensive school health approach (41), suggesting upstream prevention efforts focused on a school's social environment similar to the internationally recognized Icelandic Prevention Model (42). These models focus on schools, which are seen as a hub for youth and their communities, to prevent or delay substance use and improve overall student wellbeing, stating, "the best prevention measures often have nothing to do with substance use at all" (pg. 11). In general, mental health and risk behaviours in schools are typically addressed through multi-tiered systems of support addressing promotion and prevention (Tier 1) and intervention (Tiers 2 and 3) where all tiers support, supplement, and build upon one

another (see Figure 1) (43). Tier 1 supports are consistent with a public health approach (and PHAC direction) focused on health promotion and prevention by providing universal "whole-school" interventions for all students in a school (44), broadly focused on school organization, culture, integrated curriculum, policies, and general practices and interactions. Historically, interventions across the tiers for youth substance use and mental health symptoms have been explored and implemented separately.

Figure 1. School Mental Health Ontario's continuum of mental health support at school

Aligned & Integrated Model



Understanding the substantive importance of school environments on co-occurring substance use and mental health symptoms is not yet common practice. With the emergence of cluster-based analyses, identification of common student profiles of co-occurrence will enable greater specificity in identifying school-based prevention initiatives applicable to both substance use and mental health symptoms and identifying

specific schools that may require more support. For example, patterns derived from cluster-based analyses of student substance use and mental health can be used: 1) as outcomes of intervention studies and 2) as targets for interventions at the school level by identifying typologies of schools that may require more support. Thus, the contextual factors related to profiles of co-occurrence remains a largely untapped, and potentially powerful, component to understanding and addressing this phenomenon.

Feasibility of standardized substance use assessment during psychiatric hospitalization

For roughly 1 in 3 youth, the hospital is the first point of contact for mental health or substance use related concerns (45). Recently, there has been a disproportionate increase in hospital-related psychiatric service use, relative to outpatient services (46-49). For example, between 2009 and 2017 there was a 58% increase in mental health and substance use related outpatient visits and 136% increase in hospitalizations among Ontario adolescents 14-17 years of age (45). Further, among Ontarians 10-21 years of age there was a >90% increase in emergency department (ED) visits for mental health and substance use concerns (45). Increases in hospital contacts for youth mental health concerns is in part due to repeat visits (50). Canada wide, 39% of youth with a mental health related ED presentation typically have 3 or more related ED visits (51) resulting in repeat presentations accounting for more than 30% of visits (50, 52-54) (55). Further, a recent systematic review found over 10% of youth who experience a psychiatric hospitalization are re-admitted with most returning within 1 year (56).

Information on substance-related predictors of representations and readmissions is limited. In recent reviews, SUDs were unexpectedly related to a lower likelihood of psychiatric readmissions among youth (56) with mixed findings related to representations to ED among youth (57). However, almost all included studies looked at associations between readmission and SUDs, toxicity, or substance-induced mental illnesses with no studies looking at general use of substances. Additionally, few looked at

substances separately (often a global indicator or any use) and those that did came to divergent conclusions for different substances (58).

Collectively, these data signal that there are barriers to accessing outpatient services and follow-up supports post-hospital discharges. Given many youth will engage with psychiatric services prior to substance use treatment (59, 60), youth psychiatric hospitalizations, whether for substance or non-substance related reasons, may be an important context for substance use assessment, early interventions, and referral to or recommendations for community providers. Though multidisciplinary clinical best practice guidelines (BPGs) recommend assessing for substance use prior to diagnosing mental illnesses and treating concurrently if co-presenting (26, 61-63), concurrent disorder recommendations generally lack specificity and consistency, rarely incorporating stakeholder input, and no specific guidelines address the management of youth substance use in emergency or inpatient psychiatric settings (64). Further, there is limited research in adolescent inpatient psychiatric settings regarding patterns of use, clinical correlates, and interventions for substance use. Existing research must often rely on administrative coding of SUDs, which typically do not emerge until later in life. Standardized instruments assessing substance use (not merely disorder) and mental health symptoms could help fill this gap, though they are rarely administered at intake, and less so, at discharge or follow-up (65-68).

Dissertation objectives and program of work

The first step to developing and implementing effective prevention and early interventions for substance use and mental health symptoms among adolescents is to understand patterns of substance use and mental health co-occurrence in general population and clinical samples of adolescents. After identifying patterns of co-occurrence, the second step is to identify correlates of co-occurrence to guide targets for prevention and early intervention efforts.

This dissertation addresses three overarching objectives: 1) characterizing the patterns of co-occurrence in general population and clinical settings; 2) exploring the

potential importance of schools and psychiatric hospitalizations as critical contexts for assessment and intervention; and 3) identifying possible targets for assessing and addressing substance use and co-occurring mental health symptoms within these contexts (e.g., standardized assessments, universal whole-school approaches). All papers are distinct manuscripts that are either already published (chapters 2 and 4) or under review (chapter 3). The first two chapters utilize methods focused on the application and synthesis of cluster-based designs to understand multiple substance use and co-occurring mental health symptoms, primarily in the general population. The first paper (chapter 2) is a systematic review synthesizing all cluster-based studies to date exploring adolescent patterns of multiple substance use, yielding core common patterns of use for future etiological, prognostic, and intervention studies and methodological recommendations for future cluster-based studies. The second paper (chapter 3) identifies co-occurring substance use and mental health symptom patterns in a representative sample of secondary students and schools across Ontario, applying and expanding upon results from chapter 2. Patterns are explored at multiple levels and school contextual correlates are examined that may serve as targets for school-based prevention. The third paper (chapter 4) focuses on the feasibility of implementing a standardized assessment of substance use and mental health symptoms among adolescents experiencing psychiatric hospitalization, including considerations of the perspectives of frontline providers in this setting.

This work includes multidisciplinary perspectives (e.g., psychiatric epidemiology, population and public health, nursing, psychology, addictions, and health services research) and utilizes various health research methods (e.g., systematic review and metasyntheses, cluster-based analyses, survey design and evaluation, regression and correlation, content analysis). This work is predominantly grounded in positivist ontology, epistemology, and quantitative methodology. However, chapters 2 and 4 use mixed methods philosophy and methodology to deliberately integrate qualitative and quantitative approaches to gain a more complete picture (i.e., complementarity) and enhanced understanding of the research questions and results (e.g., convergence and explanation) (69). For example, chapter 2 includes a thematic synthesis of cluster results

and chapter 4 includes the collection and analysis of primary qualitative data from frontline provider perspectives. Mixed methods enable practical and pragmatic combinations of deductive (top-down, quantitative/positivistic) and inductive (bottom-up, qualitative/constructivist) reasoning, collection of data in ways "that work," and embracing of both singular and multiple realities (69). Quantitative components are given greater weight across studies, with qualitative components enhancing our understanding and enabling thematic summaries.

Overall, the objectives of this dissertation are to: 1) characterize co-occurrence of substance use and mental health symptoms using advanced analytic methods; 2) identify correlates of those patterns to inform targets for intervention; and 3) establish the feasibility of implementing standardized assessment practices of substance use and mental health symptoms on adolescent psychiatric inpatient units. **Chapter 5** will conclude the dissertation by summarizing key methodological and substantive insights, highlighting the strengths and limitations of this work, and discussing opportunities for future work related to adolescent substance use and co-occurring mental health symptoms.

Chapter 2: Patterns of Substance Use Among Adolescents: A Systematic Review

Halladay, J., Woock, R., El-Khechen, H., Munn, C., MacKillop, J, Amlung, M., Ogrodnik, M., Favotto, L., Aryal, K., Noori, A., Kiflen, M., & Georgiades, K. (2020). Patterns of substance use among adolescents: A systematic review. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*, 108222. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2020.108222

Highlights

- This is a systematic review of 70 studies on patterns of adolescent substance use.
- Typical clusters: low use, single or dual substances, moderate multi- use, high multi-use.
- Alcohol, cannabis, and/or tobacco characterized low, single, dual, and moderate clusters.
- Mental health and substance use co-occurred, but distinct patterns also emerged.
- Clustering methods were heterogenous and poorly reported, limiting comparability.

Copyright Information. This manuscript is reprinted from *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*, which permits the right to include the work in whole in theses. Verbatim from the Journal Author Rights page, "Please note that, as the author of this Elsevier article, you retain the right to include it in a thesis or dissertation, provided it is not published commercially. Permission is not required, but please ensure that you reference the journal as the original source. For more information on this and on your other retained rights, please visit: https://www.elsevier.com/about/our-business/policies/copyright#Author-rights"

Drug and Alcohol Dependence 216 (2020) 108222



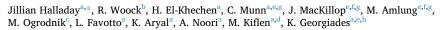
Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

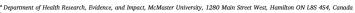
Drug and Alcohol Dependence

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/drugalcdep



Patterns of substance use among adolescents: A systematic review





Department of Social Sciences, McMaster University, Canada

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords: Polysubstance use Substance use Adolescent Latent class analysis

ABSTRACT

Purpose: This review characterizes empirically derived patterns of multiple (multi-) substance use among adolescents. A secondary objective was to examine the extent to which mental health symptomatology was included in the empirical analyses examining substance use patterns.

Methods: Eligible studies included those that used cluster-based approaches, included the assessment of at least two different substances, and were based on study samples with mean ages between 11 and 18 years. 4665 records were screened including 461 studies for full-text screening.

Results: 70 studies were included with common clusters being: low use, single or dual substance use, moderate general multi-use, and high multi-use. The most common patterns of single or multi-substance use were: alcohol only, alcohol with cannabis and/or tobacco, and use of alcohol, tobacco, and cannabis with and without other drugs. Lower socioeconomic status, older age, and male gender were consistent predictors of multi-use clusters. Only 37 % of studies compared differences in levels of mental health across clusters with symptoms consistently associated with a greater likelihood of multi-use. Only 29 % of studies included mental health indicators in cluster-based analyses, with over half identifying distinct mental health and substance use clusters. Fit indices in cluster analyses and measurement properties of substance use were heterogeneous and inconsistently reported

Conclusions: Distinct patterns of substance use were derived but methodological differences prevented direct comparison and reduced capacity to generalize across studies. There is a need to establish standardized methodological approaches to identify robust patterns of substance use to enhance etiological, prognostic, and intervention research.

1. Introduction

Psychoactive substance use during adolescence is both common and concerning due to potential negative impacts on social, emotional, cognitive, physical and academic outcomes (Boak et al., 2016). Early substance use initiation and use of multiple substances are strong predictors of later substance use problems and disorders (Moss et al., 2014). Early interventions have the potential to reduce the severity and persistence of substance use related problems (de Girolamo et al., 2012d), but adolescents rarely seek help (Georgiades et al., 2019; Merikangas et al., 2011; Reavley et al., 2010; Winstanley et al., 2012). Importantly, use of a single substance is rare, while use of multiple substances is common. Patterns of multiple substance use may represent distinct groups of adolescents with unique risk factors and prognostic profiles (Tomczyk et al., 2016). However, most prevention and intervention studies focus on single substances. Identification of the

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2020.108222

Received 29 March 2020; Received in revised form 10 July 2020; Accepted 28 July 2020 Available online 03 August 2020

0376-8716/ © 2020 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved

^c NeuroFit Lab, Department of Kinesiology, McMaster University, Canada ^d Population Health Research Institute, Hamilton, ON, Canada

^{*}Department of Psychiatry & Behavioral Neurosciences, McMaster University, Canada

feter Boris Centre for Addictions Research, McMaster University/St. Joseph's Healthcare Hamilton, Hamilton, ON, Canada

Michael G. DeGroote Centre for Medicinal Cannabis Research, McMaster University, Canada

^h Offord Centre for Child Studies, McMaster University, Canada

^{*}Corresponding author at: Department of Health Research Methods, Evidence, and Impact, McMaster University, Canada. E-mail addresses: halladje@mcmaster.ca (J. Halladay), woockr@mcmaster.ca (R. Woock), elkhechh@mcmaster.ca (H. El-Khechen), munnc@mcmaster.ca (C. Munn), jmackill@mcmaster.ca (J. MacKillop), amlungm@mcmaster.ca (M. Amlung), ogrodnm@mcmaster.ca (M. Ogrodnik), favottl@mcmaster.ca (L. Favotto), aryalk@mcmaster.ca (K. Aryal), nooria3@mcmaster.ca (A. Noori), kiflenn@mcmaster.ca (M. Kiflen), georgik@mcmaster.ca (K. Georgiades).

Drug and Alcohol Dependence 216 (2020) 108222

consumption patterns among adolescents with single and multiple substance use is fundamental for etiologic and prognostic studies. Previous researchers have indicated a need for tailored interventions, which could be informed by common patterns of use (Connor et al., 2014; Tomczyk et al., 2016).

The most commonly used substances in adolescence are alcohol, cannabis, and tobacco products, followed by other illicit drug use (Boak et al., 2020; Schulenberg et al., 2018). Over half of individuals who use substances in their lifetime initiate use prior to age 20 (Blanco et al., 2018). The average age of substance use initiation in North America has been increasing and is currently between 15-17 years of age (Boak et al., 2020; Richmond-Rakerd et al., 2017). Youth that initiate use during early adolescence (11-14 years) are particularly vulnerable to later substance use related problems (Behrendt et al., 2009; Dawson et al., 2008; Jordan and Andersen, 2017). Early and later adolescents are more likely to both initiate and experience negative effects of substance use than older age groups (Arain et al., 2013; Casey et al., 2008). This increased risk is commonly explained by Casy and Jones (2010) dual systems model of adolescent risk behaviour, which points to the asynchronous maturation of the emotional limbic regions in the brain (which peaks during adolescence) compared to the regulatory prefrontal cortex (which matures last in young adulthood).

Use of more than one substance, also known as multiple substance or polysubstance use (hereby referred to as multi-use) is common and associated with poor mental health, educational, and social outcomes (Banks et al., 2017; Connor et al., 2014; Yurasek et al., 2017). The Common Liability to Addiction model (CLA) explains the underlying pathways contributing to multi-use (Vanyukov et al., 2012). The CLA model suggests that there are shared underlying latent biobehavioural characteristics that make individuals more "liable" to use multiple substances. This model posits that there are shared factors contributing to the propensity to initiate substance use as well as gradations in the severity of substance use related problems (Vanyukov et al., 2012). Liability is presented on a fluctuating and malleable continuum that goes from resistance to use and problems (i.e., resiliency) to multi-use and severe problems (i.e., affected). Thus, identifying patterns of substance use among adolescents may help to further investigate common liability and resiliency factors to inform prevention and early intervention efforts.

To characterize patterns of multi-use, cluster-based analyses such as Latent Class Analysis (LCA), Latent Profile Analysis (LPA) and related methodologies can be used (Connor et al., 2014). LCA explains patterns in observed responses on "indicator variables," which refer to variables we can observe (i.e., substance use variables). LCA identifies mutually exclusive latent clusters based on the patterns of indicators (Collins and Lanza, 2010). These clusters are meant to be qualitatively distinct, acknowledging that differences may not lie on a single dimension. For example, identified clusters may not be solely indicative of increasing prevalence of substance use, but rather of patterns and types of use (Collins and Lanza, 2010).

The potential impact and applications of latent clustering approaches have led to a dramatic increase in studies pursuing these approaches (Petersen et al., 2019). Additionally, traditional clustering approaches such as hierarchical clustering and k-means are rapidly regaining popularity due to being labelled as "unsupervised machine learning algorithms" for big data. A previous review in 2016 categorized adolescent substance use patterns and found a relatively consistent classification of 3 clusters including: (1) no use or limited use; (2) single substance use (often alcohol only); and (3) polysubstance use (most often defined as multi-use of alcohol, cannabis, and tobacco) (Tomczyk et al., 2016). Numerous studies have been published since this review; thus, an update is needed to enhance our understanding of multi-use patterns in adolescents as well as ongoing methodological limitations in cluster-based research that need to be addressed. Additionally, the previous review focused exclusively on LCAs with substance use indicators, potentially missing other robust methodologies and patterns

such as co-occurrence of substance use with mental health concerns.

The co-occurrence of substance use and mental health concerns has demonstrated associations with more severe mental health symptomatology and poor prognosis (Gobbi et al., 2019; Hser et al., 2017; Jacobus et al., 2017; Mammen et al., 2018; Moitra et al., 2016) as well as a greater likelihood of experiencing substance use related problems and progression to a substance use disorder (Chan et al., 2008; Diamond et al., 2006; Hawke et al., 2018). Substance use and mental health concerns are thought to be related because of the potential following mechanisms: (1) similar risk factors or shared biological predispositions (discussed in the CLA model); (2) self-medication hypothesis, whereby individuals use substances to alleviate mental health symptoms; and (3) substance use causing mental illness or worsening symptoms (Bolton et al., 2009; Fergusson et al., 2011; Hathaway, 2003; Leyton and Stewart, 2014). Thus, understanding the co-occurrence of mental health concerns and substance use among adolescents is important.

1.1. Objectives

Given the rapidly expanding empirical literature, the primary objective of this systematic review was to identify, synthesize, and characterize common patterns of substance use among adolescents. A secondary objective was to examine the extent to which mental health symptomatology was included in empirical analyses examining substance use patterns, and to summarize associations found.

2. Methods

This protocol follows procedures outlined in the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analysis Protocols (PRISMA-P) statement (see Supplementary Materials). This review was registered on PROSPERO (CRD42018112548).

2.1. Search strategy

The following databases were systematically searched: PsycINFO (1987 to October Week 1 2019), Embase (1996-2019 October 9), OVID MEDLINE Epub Ahead of Print, In-Process & Other Non-indexed Citations, Ovid MEDLINE® Daily and Ovid MEDLINE (R) (1946 to Present), CINAHL (October 9 2019). Abstracts and reference lists of included articles and reviews were checked, and authors were contacted for further information when appropriate. The search strategy combined the exposure (i.e., multiple use of substances), the statistical method (i.e., cluster methods), and the target population (i.e., adolescents). The complete search strategy can be found in the Supplementary Materials. Two review authors screened titles and abstracts of identified studies based on piloted and calibrated screening forms. A total of 4665 records were identified for screening after duplicate removal, with 461 full-text articles selected for further review. All full-text articles were screened in duplicate with disagreements resolved through discussion or consultation with a third reviewer. In total, 70 primary studies reported in 79 publications were included in this review. Primary studies were operationalized as the initial peer-reviewed publication reporting the cluster solution. Some primary studies had multiple publications including follow-up comparative analyses whereby the sample and clusters were the same, but different comparisons were made. Comparisons from all related studies were included in final data extraction. See Fig. 1 for the PRISMA

2.2. Eligibility criteria

Studies were included that met the following criteria:

1 Population: Samples of adolescents with mean ages between 11 and

Drug and Alcohol Dependence 216 (2020) 108222

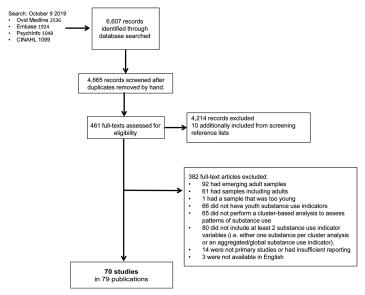


Fig. 1. A flow diagram following the PRISMA template of included studies.

18 (minimum age of 11 and maximum of 22). Study samples that included individuals over 19 years of age were eligible, only if they were school-based with the oldest enrolled in grades 12/13. Grade 6 was the youngest grade. This range was selected based on age of initiation of substance use over the past two decades, recent prevalence estimates, prior search strategies, and sampling frames of popular population surveys.

- 2 Substance use: More than one substance was assessed (i.e., multiple substance indicator variables), operationalized as prevalence or frequency of use within a defined time period or substance use disorder; including alcohol, tobacco, cannabis, other illicit drug use, and/or prescription drug misuse. Studies were excluded if analyses were conducted separately for different substances or combined substances into one global indicator.
- 3 Types of studies and methodologies: All quantitative study designs were included that used a statistical approach to identify clusters of substance use patterns. Methods included cluster analysis (i.e., hierarchical cluster analysis, k-means), LCA or LPA, and finite mixture modelling. Studies that used latent trajectory/transition analysis (LTA) were included if they reported cluster results at one time point. Given the consistencies in statistical approaches and reporting, the term "LCA" will hereby refer to LCAs, LPAs, and LTAs.
- 4 Publication status: Studies that were published in peer-reviewed journals.
- 5 Language: Restricted to English.
- 6 Sampling Frame: All studies were included regardless of sampling context (i.e., school, community, hospital, clinic, etc.).
- 7 Outcomes: Studies had to report the number and nature of substance use clusters among adolescents.

2.3. Data extraction and synthesis

Two review authors independently extracted data including: study ID, design, demographics, risk of bias (RoB), statistical techniques, indicator variables, outcomes/clusters, correlations between clusters and

extrinsic variables, an overall summary of author's findings, and other comments (See Supplementary Materials for more details). Calibration exercises and resolution of discrepancies mirrored screening methods. Data were combined and presented narratively regarding: the types of indicators; the number and nature of clusters; correlates and clusters related to mental health symptomatology; and sociodemographic correlates.

Cluster solutions are partly based on theoretical (as opposed to quantitative) decisions, and heterogeneity in the measurement and methodological decisions across studies made direct objective comparisons difficult. Accordingly, narrative summaries informed by content analytical techniques were used to identify common themes within and across cluster solutions (Elo and Kyngäs, 2008). The individual clusters were used as the unit of analysis and narrative data was extracted for coding purposes. Researchers reviewed all identified clusters and engaged in open coding, then iteratively established a higher order thematic coding scheme, ending with abstraction of final themes (Elo and Kyngäs, 2008). To enhance credibility and confirmability, all data extractors approved of final overarching cluster themes. Comparisons were made to existing evidence and theoretical understandings of substance use and mental health comorbidity among adolescents. This approach was used to present a meta-synthesis of identified substance use cluster solutions across studies.

2.4. Risk of Bias (RoB) and quality assessment

RoB tools for cross-sectional designs endorsed by Evidence Partners were used and adapted to assess RoB (CLARITY Group at McMaster University, 2019). Domains included: (a) representativeness of the source population; (b) adequacy of response rate (> 60 %); (c) amount of missing data (< = 20 %); (4) reliability and validity of measurement tools. The quality of reporting cluster-analytic approaches was evaluated based on recommendations from Connor et al. (2014) and Collins and Lanza (2010) . Where LCAs were used, studies were evaluated regarding reporting and assessment of: fit indices, local independence,

Drug and Alcohol Dependence 216 (2020) 108222

and transparency in model selection. For other cluster techniques, methods were examined for reporting of fit indices, competing models, sensitivity analyses, and cross-replication.

3. Results

70 primary studies published up to October 2019 were included. Data in these studies was collected between 1980 and 2017. Of note, 26 % of these studies were also included in the previous review (which went up to June 2015), with the remaining studies published from 2015 onwards and/or not included in the previous review. Across all included studies, the average age was 15 years, with males constituting 47 %, and 49 % were white/Caucasian. A majority (k = 48, 69 %) were general population studies, in which the sample did not have specific inclusion/exclusion criteria and recruitment occurred in schools or communities (non-general population studies are labelled "targeted" populations). Most studies were US-based (k = 52, 74 %). Additionally, most studies included the full sample in their analyses and did not conduct subgroup analyses by age. About 44 % of studies included grade 6-12 students ($\sim\!11$ to 18 years) and 24 % included grade 9-12 students (~14 to 18 years). Please refer to Table 1 for a summary of included studies and participant characteristics.

3.1. Identification and characterization of substance use patterns

3.1.1. Substance use indicators

The number and nature of indicator variables directly impacts cluster solutions. The most common substance use indicators included in the cluster-based analyses were alcohol (99 %), tobacco (81 %), and cannabis (79 %). Most substance indicators were measured as general use (59 % alcohol; 66 % tobacco; 90 % cannabis), with few including specific products or methods of use apart from heavy episodic drinking [HED] (27 %). Across these common substance use indicators, scales of measurement varied with 62 % using dichotomous indicators (typically ever/never use), 22 % using categorical indicators reflecting frequency of use, and 13 % using continuous indicators (e.g., counts, such as number of days). The time period of reporting was lifetime (23 %), past vear (25 %), or past month (43 %). Other illicit drugs (60 %) and prescription drugs (30 %) were also included; most often as a combined global indicator of any use (62 %) measured dichotomous (79 %) either using a lifetime (38 %) or past year (42 %) timeframe. Of note, the operationalization of indicator variables was not always consistent in one study - i.e., alcohol, tobacco, and cannabis may have been included categorically or continuously with shorter timelines than illicit or pre scription drug misuse.

A large proportion of studies included alcohol, tobacco, and cannabis (63 %). About a third also included other illicit drugs (36 %), a fifth also included misuse of prescription drugs (21 %), and about a fifth included all (19 %). The majority of studies only included substance use indicators (63 %) in the cluster-based analyses, with few including a combination of substance use and mental health indicators (16 %), and the remaining including other additional non-substance or mental health indicators (21 %). These non-substance and mental health indicators were usually related to sexual behaviours or general health behaviours (e.g., exercise, nutrition, sleep). See the left portion of Table 2 for a summary of indicators studies. See Supplementary Material for a thorough summary of indicator characteristics.

3.1.2. Characterization of substance use clusters

In 70 studies (k), there were 89 cluster solutions. After removing one outlier cluster solution , solutions had an average of 4 clusters after model enumeration (minimum 2 and maximum 6). Cluster themes were

predominantly defined by the number and type of substances used. Consistent themes found across studies included: (1) low use; (2) single or dual substance use; (3) moderate general multi-use; and (4) high multi-use. Moderate and high multi-use typically included use of alcohol, cannabis, and tobacco with or without other substances. Within the 'single or dual substance' cluster, the most common themes in descending order were: (1) alcohol; (2) cannabis with alcohol; (3) tobacco with alcohol; (4) tobacco. Each cluster was classified into a mutually exclusive overarching theme. See the right side of Table 2 for themes identified across individual studies, Table 3 for more detailed thematic descriptions, and Fig. 3 for a visual depiction of themes.

Overall, most cluster solutions fit into these overarching themes and were found in both general and targeted population studies, with some exceptions. General population studies had more alcohol focused clusters (k = 20, 43 % general vs. k = 4, 18 % targeted). Targeted population studies had larger proportions of adolescents categorized as high multi-use (~10 % general versus ~16 % targeted) and targeted identified more "higher" multi-use clusters (k = 2, 4 % general vs. k = 6, 27 % targeted). In several situations, clusters were difficult to fit within identified themes typically occurring when: (a) multiple time points and/or age of initiation was included, making the pattern more reflective of trajectories; (b) indicators were included as interactions with one another; and (c) when there were a large number of indicators using a k-means or hierarchical cluster analysis. There were also times when cluster solutions "relatively" fit the identified themes. Relative fit occurred in targeted population studies whereby the sample was selected based on use of a particular substance - and therefore, all youth were at an elevated risk, but clusters were found relative to this inclusion criteria. Of note, when targeted populations were not selected based on particular substance use or mental health risk factors or behaviours, patterns fit identified overarching themes similarly to general

3.2. Identification and characterization of mental health considerations

3.2.1. Mental health indicators

In total, 20 studies (29 %) included one or more mental health indicator variables. Four studies included internalizing symptoms (e.g., mood and anxiety disorders), typically using a sum of several symptom items that align with a particular diagnosis. 18 studies included externalizing behaviours, often included as single items that reflected one specific behaviour (e.g., delinquency, fighting, truancy). Less common mental health indicators were suicidal thoughts and behaviours, general distress, and eating disorders. Studies with mental health indicators are specified in Table 2 and more details are provided in Supplementary Materials.

3.2.2. Cluster solutions with mental health indicators

Almost universally, each cluster solution that included mental health indicator(s) identified a lower and higher co-occurring cluster related to both substance use and mental health symptomatology (Quadrants 1 and 4 respectively in Fig. 4). Over 50 % of studies with mental health indicators found distinct substance use and mental health symptom clusters (Quadrant 2 and 3) in addition to general positive correlations between substance use and mental health (Quadrant 4). There were several studies that identified clusters of high mental health symptomatology but low to no substance use (Quadrant 2), high mental health symptomatology and moderate substance use (Qaudrant 2), and high multi-substance use and low mental health symptomatology (Quadrant 3). Therefore, although co-occurrence was common, it was not the only emerging pattern.

3.2.3. Mental health predictors of cluster membership

Only 37 % (k = 26) of studies compared substance-use clusters based on mental health symptomatology. Of these studies, 96 % found at least one significant difference between substance use clusters based

 $^{^{1}}$ One study had 15/16 clusters using the k-mean approach and was not included in the summary (Hallfors, 2004; Waller; 2006 supp).

Drug and Alcohol Dependence 216 (2020) 108222

Table 1
Summary of included studies.

Study	Sampling Characteristics	Participant Characteristics	Methods	
	Country, Collection Year Population, Sampling (specifics)	sample size, age mean (SD if reported), min to max age, $\%$ males, ethnicity	Method (#indicators)	
Ansary and Luthar (2009)	USA, 1996 General, City	n = 256 age = 16.1 (0.5), all gr10s	K-means (7)	
Assanangkornchai, Li,	Thailand, 2009	46.5% males 78.7% Caucasian n = 25566	LCA (20)	
McNeil, and Saingam (2018)	General, National	age=13 (42%), 12 to 15 years of age 46% males NR Ethnicity		
Baggio, Spilka, Studer, Iglesias, and Gmel	France, 2011 General, National (exception had to use	n = 23882 age = all 17	LCA (14)	
(2016) sartlett et al. (2005)	substances ~6% excluded) USA, 1994-1995 & 1996	49.7% males NR Ethnicity n=12617	Cluster Analysis (14)	
	General, National	age = 15.8 (1.6), 11.6 to 21.2 (gr7-12, +1 year after gr12) 48% males 69% Caucasian		
Sohnert et al. (2014)	USA, 2007-2009 Targeted, Cities (Low SES clinics)	22% Black n=1416 age=15.2 (2), 12 to 18	LCA (7)	
Charak, Koot, Dvorak, Elklit,	USA, 1995	37.2% males 63.6% Black n = 918	LCA (8)	
and Elhai (2015)	Targeted, National (youth who have been assaulted)	age = 14.9 (1.6), 12 to 17 50.4% males 68.6% Caucasian		
Chen et al. (2015)	USA, 2006-2011 Targeted, National (youth endorsing ADHD stimulant use)	$\begin{array}{l} n = 2203 \\ \text{age groups} = 12\text{-}13 \ (11\%), \ 14\text{-}15 \ (20\%), \ 16\text{-}17 \ (59\%) \\ 48.71\% \ \text{males} \\ 76.3\% \ \text{White} \end{array}$	LCA (8)	
Childs and Ray (2017)	USA, 1995-1996 General, National (black and white youth only)	23.7% Minorities n = 8963 age = 15.5 (1.2), 13 to 17 48% males	LCA (9)	
Choi, Lu, Schulte, and Temple (2018)	USA, 2011-2013 General, State (public schools only)	74.65% Caucasian 25.35 Black n=990; 886; 782 age=15.1 (0.8), 16 to 18 44% males	LCA (5)	
hung and Elias (1996)	USA, NR General, City	30% Caucasian 29% Black n = NR age = NR, gr9 to gr12	Cluster Analysis (7)	
	,,	49.3% males NR Caucasian 5% Black and Latino		
Chung, Kim, Hipwell, and Stepp (2013)	USA, 2005-2012 Targeted, City (black and white females only in low-income neighbourhoods)	n=1076 age=NR, all gr12s 0% males 43.2% Caucasian	LTA (3)	
Cleveland, Collins, Lanza, Greenberg, and Feinberg (2010)	USA, 2005 General, State	56.8 Black n = 8879 age = all gr12s 47% males	LCA (5)	
Connell, Gilreath, Aklin, and Brex (2010)	USA, 2000-2003 General, State	90.1% Caucasian n = 1236 age = 14.6 (0.7), gr9 to gr10 47% males	LCA (6)	
onnell, Gilreath, and Hansen (2009)	USA, 2005 General, National	89% Caucasian 1% Black n=13953 age= ~16, gr9 to gr12 50.5% males	LCA (7)	
onway et al. (2013)	USA, 2010 General, National	62% Caucasian 15% Black n = 2524 age = all gr10s 45.6% males	LCA (6)	
Coulter, Ware, Fish, and Plankey (2019)	USA, 2015 General, National	57.9% Caucasian 17.5% Black n=124519 age=16, gr9 to gr12	LCA & Multinomial Logistic Regression (5) (continued on next po	

.

Drug and Alcohol Dependence 216 (2020) 108222

itudy	Sampling Characteristics	Participant Characteristics	Methods
	Country, Collection Year Population, Sampling (specifics)	sample size, age mean (SD if reported), min to max age, $\%$ males, ethnicity	Method (#indicators)
		56.1%males	
		41.0-48.2% Caucasian	
		10.2-18.0% Black	
Cranford et al. (2013)	USA, NR	27.5-30.2% Hispanic n = 2744	LCA (6)
adilioid et al. (2013)	General, State	age = 14.8 (1.9), gr7 to gr12	LCA (0)
	General, state	49.6% males	
		64.1% Caucasian	
		30.6% Black	
Davila and Tubman (2019)	USA	n = 371	K-means (6)
	NR	age = 16.3 (1.2), 12 to 18	
		71.1% males 44.9% Caucasian	
		9.1% Black	
		20.6% Hispanic	
Oelk et al. (2019)	USA, 2015-2016	n = 2733	LCA (9)
()	General, State	age 7 th grade = 12.3	(-)
		age 7^{th} grade = 12.3 age 9^{th} grade = 14.3	
		age 11 th grade=16.0	
		51% males	
		27.2-33.0% Caucasian	
		13.2-18.0% Black	
	USA, 2011	52.8-55.7% Hispanic n = 2064	MM (4)
Dermody et al. (2016)	General, City	age = 17.2 (1.3), 15 to 19	WIWI (4)
	General, City	0% males	
		39% Caucasian	
		55% Black	
ermody (2018)	USA, 2015	n=15607	LCA (7)
	General, National	age=NR, gr9 to gr12	
		49.59% males	
		43.85% Caucasian	
Dierker, Vesel, Sledjeski,	USA, 1995-1996	n = 4707	LCA (6)
Costello, and Perrine (2007)	General, National	age=NR, gr7 to gr12 47.6% males	
(2007)		67.7% Caucasian	
		23.7% Black	
Espelage, Davis, Basile,	USA, 2012-2013	n=1875	LCA (4)
Rostad, and Leemis	General, State	age = 15.8 (1), 14 to 18	
(2018)		49.2% males	
		29.1% Caucasian	
		44.3% Black	
Assau and de la Torre-Luque	USA, 2001-2004	n=10123	LCA (26)
(2019)	General, National	mean age = 15.2 (1.5), 13 to 18 48.93% males	
		55.66% Caucasian	
		19.29% Black	
inch and Pierson (2011)	USA, 2009	n=16410	MM (14)
	Generaiol, National	age = 16 (1.2), gr9 to gr12	
		52.2% males	
		58.7% Caucasian	
raga, Severo, Costa, Lopes,	Portugal, 2003-2004	n=1612	Hierarchical Cluster (6)
and Ramos (2011)	General, City	age = all 13	
		45.7% 100% Portuguese	
Gilreath et al. (2014)	USA, 2005-2007	n = 418702	LCA (3)
miteatii et al. (2014)	General, State	age = gr9, gr7 to gr11	LCA (3)
	,	47.5% males	
		33.1% Caucasian	
		8.1% Black	
		58.8% Latino	
raham, Collins, Wugalter,	USA, 1987-1988	n = 2009	LTA (3)
Chung, and Hansen	General, City	age Time 1 = 7 th grade	
(1991)		age Time 2 = 8 th grade NR males	
		47% Caucasian	
		4/% Caucasian 2.5% Black	
		2.5% black 28% Latino	
reen et al. (2013)	Scotland, 1987	n = 1383	LCA (9)
	General, City	age Time 1 = 15.7	
		age Time 2=17.1	
		age Time 3=18.6	
		-8	

Drug and Alcohol Dependence 216 (2020) 108222

	(cor	

Study	Sampling Characteristics	Participant Characteristics	Methods
	Country, Collection Year Population, Sampling (specifics)	sample size, age mean (SD if reported), min to max age, $\%$ males, ethnicity	Method (#indicators)
		time 1: 48.6% males	
		time 2: 46.5% males	
		time 3: 47.5% males	
Hallfors et al. (2004)	USA, 1994	100% Scottish n = 18924	K-means (9)
Halifors et al. (2004)	General, National	n = 18924 median age = 16.3, 11.6 to 21.4 (gr7 to gr12)	K-means (9)
	General, National	50.92% males	
		76.13% Caucasian	
		16.66% Black	
Hedden, Whitaker, Von	USA, NR	n = 212	LCA (5)
Thomsen, Severtson, and Latimer (2010)	Targeted, City (African American youth with	age = NR, 11 to 14 50.94% males	
Latimer (2010)	signs of risk behaviours)	NR Ethnicity	
Jordão et al. (2018)	Brazil, 2012	n = 105164	Hierarchical Agglomerative
	General, National	age = 13-15 (86%), all year 9 11% < 13 and 13% > = 16	Cluster Analysis (17)
		47.8% males	* * *
		36.8% Caucasian	
		13.4% Black	
		42.2% "Brown"	
Karlsson et al. (2019)	Sweden, 2012-2015	n=3374 age=11 th grade (67.9%), gr9 to gr11	LCA (10)
	Targeted, National (youth who have used illicit	age=11 grade (67.9%), gr9 to gr11 56.1% males	
	drugs)	NR Caucasian	
Kelly, Chan, Mason, and	Australia, NR	n = 9966	LCA (4)
Williams (2015)	General, State	age = 14.5 (0.6), gr7 to gr11	
		49.34% males	
		NR Ethnicity	
Kemppainen et al. (2007)	Russia, Finland, 2005	n=2318	K-means and Hierarchical
	General, Town	age = ~15, all gr9s	Cluster Analysis (8)
		NR males NR Ethnicity	
Kliewer, Wan, Parham, and	Myanmar/Burma, NR	n = 1918	LCA (5)
Ring (2019)	General, Town	age = 15.4 (1.1), 14 to 18	EGI (3)
rung (2015)	General, 10vii	44.3% males	
		61.3% Kachin	
		22.3% Myanmar	
Lamont, Woodlief, and	USA, 1997	n=1550	LCA (7)
Malone (2014)	General, National	age = 17 to 18	
		51.7% males	
		52.7% Caucasian 24.6% Black	
Lazzeri et al. (2016)	Italy, 2010	n = 3291	K-means and Hierarchical
	General, National	age = ~13, 11 to 15	Cluster Analysis (8)
		NR males	
		100% Italian	
Mazur, Tabak, Dzielska, Wąż,	Poland, 2013-14	n=1202	K-means (3)
and Oblacińska (2016)	General, National	age = 15.6 (0.3), 11 to 15	
		46.1% males NR Ethnicity	
Merrin, Thompson, and	Canada, 2003-2013	n = 662	LCA (4)
Leadbeater (2018)	General, City	age = 15.5 (1.9), 12 to 18	LCA (4)
icaubcuter (2010)	ocherui, orty	48% males	
		NR Ethnicity	
Mitchell and Plunkett (2000)	USA, 1993	n=2012	LCA (5)
	Targeted, State ("American Indians")	age: NR, ~15 to 18 (all high school)	
		NR males	
	VII. 0040	100% American Indian n = 2241	
Morean et al. (2016)	USA, 2013 General, State		LCA (8)
	General, State	age = 15.6 (1.2), gr9 to gr12 45.6% males	
		65.1% Caucasian	
		9.1% Black	
		14.3% Latino	
Okumu et al. (2019)	USA, 2017	n=14765	LCA (7)
	General, National	age = 16 (29.1%), 15 to 18+ (all gr9 to gr12)	
		48.6% males	
		43.4% Caucasian	
		19.4% Black	
Ochri et al. (2011)	LICA NIP	20.3% "Multiracial"	I DA (5)
Oshri et al. (2011)	USA, NR Targeted, City (youth receiving outpatient	20.3% "Multiracial" n = 394 age = 16.3 (1.2), 12 to 18	LPA (5)

(continued on next page)

Drug and Alcohol Dependence 216 (2020) 108222

Table 1 (continued)

Study	Sampling Characteristics	Participant Characteristics	Methods
	Country, Collection Year Population, Sampling (specifics)	sample size, age mean (SD if reported), min to max age, $\%$ males, ethnicity	Method (#indicators)
	substance use services with sexual activity in past 6 months)	25.4% Caucasian 20.6% Black 44.9% Latino	
Park and Kim (2018)	Korea, 2013 General, National	n=72435 age=grade 11/12 (34.1%), gr7 to gr12 52% males	LCA (7)
Parker and Bradshaw (2015)	USA, 2013	100% Korean n = 18680	LCA (6)
	General, State	age=15.9 (1.3), 12 to 21 (all gr9 to gr12) 50.2% males 50.5% Caucasian 31.9% Black	
Picoito, Santos, Loureiro, Aguiar, and Nunes (2019)	Portugal, 2010 General, National	n = 1551 age: all 15 43.8% males NR Ethnicity	LCA (7)
Pilatti, Godoy, Brussino, and Pautassi (2013)	Argentina, NR General, City	n=583 age=15 (1.5), 13 to 16.5 40.5% males	LCA (5)
Potter and Jenson (2003)	USA, 1999 Targeted, City (youth in juvenile detention centres with mental health or substance use	100% Argentinian n=155 age=15.6 (1.4), range NR 79% males	K-means (14)
Ranney et al. (2018)	concerns) USA, 2013-2014 Targeted, National (youth presenting to US ERs with non-life threatening conditions)	69% Caucasian n=5001 age=14.5 (1.7), 12 to 17 45.4% males	LCA (7)
Ray, Thornton, Frick, Steinberg, and Cauffman	USA, 2011 Targeted, States (males in juvenile justice	54.2% Caucasian 31.8% Black n=1216 age=15.3 (1.3), 13 to 17	LCA (4)
(2016) Riehman, Stephens, and	system) USA, 1997-2000	100% males 14.8% Caucasian 36.9% Black n=1228	LCA (10)
Schurig (2009)	Targeted, National (youth with a mental health concern attending services in a US funded system of care community)	age = 14.6 (1.6), 11 to 18 60.6% males 58.2% Caucasian 19.1% Black	
Rivera et al. (2018)	USA, 2007-2016 Targeted, City (general population of females in US but selected to compare maltreatment)	$n\!=\!504$ age = 18.2 (1.1), 14 to 17 $$ 0% males $$ 49.2% Caucasians for non-maltreated; 40.3 % Caucasians for	LCA (8)
Rose, Evans, Smokowski, Howard, and Stalker (2018)	USA, 2014 Targeted, City (rural population)	maltreated n= 4822 age = 14.8, gr6 to gr12 48.296 males 29% Caucasian	LCA (5)
Salas-Wright et al. (2016)	USA, 2002-2012 Targeted, National (pregnant teens)	26% Black n=810 age=15-17 (89%), 12 to 17 0% males	LCA (18)
Schmiege and Bryan (2016)	USA, NR Targeted, City (sexually active youth in juvenile	39.4% (Caucasian 23.9% Black 27.6% Latino n = 596 age = 15.7, 14 to 18	LPA (5)
	probation offices)	66.6% 15.7% Caucasian 24.5% Black 40.9% Latino	
Shin, Hong, and Hazen (2010)	USA, 1996-1997 Targeted, City (youth involved in publicly funded service systems)	n=1019 age=15.9, 13 to 18 66% males 31% Caucasian 21% Black	LCA (6)
Shook et al. (2013)	USA, 2006-2010 Targeted, National (youth who had sold drugs in the past year)	32% Latino n=3080 age=15.7 (1.2), 12 to 17 70.1% males 60.2% Caucasian 18% Black	LPA (17)

(continued on next page)

Drug and Alcohol Dependence 216 (2020) 108222

Table 1 (continued)

Study	Sampling Characteristics	Participant Characteristics	Methods	
	Country, Collection Year Population, Sampling (specifics)	sample size, age mean (SD if reported), min to max age, % males, ethnicity	Method (#indicators)	
Silveira, Green, Iannaccone, Kimmel, & Conway (2019)	USA, 2013-2014 General, National	n=6127 age=NR, 15 to 17 NR males NR ethnicity	LCA (17)	
Snyder, Gwaltney, and Landeck (2015)	USA, 2008-2009 Targeted, National (representative of child welfare in US)	n=890 age=13.6, 11 to 17 59.82% males 45.97% Caucasian 18.33% Black 26.76% Latino	LCA (6)	
Stanley and Swaim (2018)	USA, 2009- 2013 Targeted, National (American youth on or near reserve)	n=4964 age= American Indian (grade 7-8)=13.3; American Indian (grade 9-12)=15.9; white (grade 7-8)=13.3; white (grade9-12)=15.9 50.56% males 30% Caucasian	LCA (6)	
Su, Supple, and Kuo (2018)	USA, 2009 General, City	70% American Indian n=9155 age=15.6 (1.1), 13 to 17 49% males 84% Caucasian	LCA (13)	
Sullivan, Childs, and O'Connell (2010)	USA, NR General, State	7% Black n=2549 age=16 (1.2), gr9 to gr12 50% males 59% Caucasian	LCA (12)	
Tomczyk, Hanewinkel, and Isensee (2015)	Germany, 2013 General, State	31% Black n=2490 age=13.3 (0.6), gr7s 51% males	LCA (6)	
Valente, Cogo-Moreira, and Sanchez (2017)	Brazil, NR General, City	NR Ethnicity n = 6391 age = 12.6, 11 to 15 48.79% males NR Ethnicity	LCA (5)	
Vaughn et al. (2012)	USA, 2008 Targeted, National (non-prescription opioid users)	n = 1783 age = NR, 12 to 17 44.7% males 66% Caucasian 11.9% Black	LCA (16)	
Weden and Zabin (2005)	USA, 1997-2000 General, National	11.9% black n = 3183 age = ~18 50.5% males 64.8% Caucasian 34.9% Black	LCA (6)	
White et al. (2013)	Australia, 2007 General, National	34.9% Black n = 1402 age = 14.6, 12 to 17 48.5% males NR Ethnicity	LCA (10)	
Zapert et al. (2002)	USA, 1980-1982 General, City	n=764 age =NR, gr6 to gr11 42% males 87% Caucasian	Cluster Analysis (12)	
Zweig et al. (2001)	USA, 1994-1995 General, National	n = 12955 age males =16.5, gr9 to gr12 age females =16.3, gr9 to gr12 48.85% males 66% males 66% Caucasian 16% Black	Cluster Analysis (8)	

on mental health symptomatology, although these were often based on univariate analyses. 34 % (k = 24) of studies compared groups based on internalizing symptoms, most commonly based on symptoms of depression, anxiety, or general psychological distress. Levels of internalizing symptoms were significantly higher in most multi-use clusters (83 %), compared to other clusters. 21 % (k = 15) of studies compared groups based on externalizing symptoms, most commonly including general externalizing symptoms. Externalizing symptoms were almost

universally (93 %) higher in the substance use and multi-use clusters, compared to the other clusters. These associations were found in both general and targeted population studies, including those targeting higher risk adolescents engaged in publicly funded services, substance use treatment, or the justice system.

Drug and Alcohol Dependence 216 (2020) 108222

 Table 2

 Summary of indicators and thematic patterns across included studies.

				Indica	tors				Pattern themes							
Study	Alc	HED	Tob	Can	Pres	III	МН	Oth	Low	Mod	Alc	C/A	Tob	High	MH	Oth
Ansary, 2009									L	A/T/C			T/A	A/T/C	MH	
Assanangkornchai, 2018									L		A			A/T/C/O		
Baggio, 2016									A	A/T/C/O			T/A	A/T/C/O(2)	N/A	
Bartlett, 2005									A	A/C			N/A	A/C		
Bohnert, 2014 (T)									L					A/T/C/O	N/A	С
Charak, 2015 (T)									L	A/T/O		N/A		A/T/O	N/A	
Chen 2015 (T)									A(r)	A/C(r)			N/A	A/C/O(2)	N/A	
Childs, 2017									L(2*)				T	A/T/C	MH(r)	
Choi, 2018									A			C/A		A/T/C/O	N/A	
Chung, 1996									L	A/T	A	N/A		A/T/O		
Chung, 2013 (T)									L		A			A/T/C	N/A	
Cleveland, 2010									L	A/T/C	A (2)		T	A/T/C	N/A	
Connell, 2010									L	A/T/C	A			A/T/C/O	N/A	
Connell, 2009									L	A/T/C	A			A/T/C/O	N/A	
Conway, 2013	l l								L	A/T/C				A/T/C/O	N/A	С
Coulter, 2019									A	A/T/C (2)		C/A	T/A	A/T/C	N/A	
Cranford, 2013									L	A/T/C				A/T/C/O(2)	N/A	
Davila, 2019 (T)									L(r)	A/O (r)		N/A	N/A	A/O	MH(r)	
Delk, 2019									L	A/T/C (2)				A/T/C	N/A	
Dermody, 2016									L		A	C/A	T/A	A/T/C	N/A	
Dermody, 2018									L	A/T/C	A			A/T/C	N/A	C/T
Dierker, 2007									L		A	C/A	T	A/T/C	N/A	
					l									<u>l</u>	1	
Espelage, 2018						<u> </u>			L		A	N/A	N/A	A/O	N/A	
Essau, 2019									L			N/A		A/T/O	MH	
Finch, 2011									L		A		T/A	A/T/O	N/A	
Fraga, 2011									L	A/T		N/A		A/T	N/A	
Gilreath, 2014									L	A/T/C (2)				A/T/C	N/A	
Graham, 1991									L	A/T (2)	A	N/A	T	A/T	N/A	
Green, 2013									L	A/T (2)	A	N/A			MH	
Hallfors, 2004										Did not fit direc	ctly into p	atterns due	to outlyin	g cluster solution (k	means, c=1	5/16)
Hedden, 2010 (T)									L					A/T/C		
Kelly, 2015									L		A			A/T/C/O	N/A	
Jordao, 2018									L*			N/A		A/T/O*		
Karlsson, 2019 (T)									L(r)	A/T/C(r)			N/A	A/T/C/O(2)	N/A	
Kemppainen, 2007									L	A/T (2)		N/A		A/T	N/A	
Kliewer, 2019									A/O	A/T/O (m)		N/A		A/T/O	N/A	1 (f)
Lamont, 2014									L				T/A	A/T/C/O	N/A	C/T
Lazzeri , 2018									L	A/T (3)		N/A	T		MH	
Mazur, 2016	l l					t			L			C/A	T/A	A/T/C	N/A	
Merrin, 2018									A			C/A		A/T/C/O	N/A	
Mitchell, 2000 (T)						Ħ			L	A/C			N/A	A/C/O (2)	N/A	
Morean, 2016									L			C/A	T/A	A/T/C	N/A	
Okumu , 2019									A	A/C		l	N/A	A/C/O	MH(r)	
Oshri, 2011 (T)									L(r)		<u> </u>	N/A	N/A	A/O	MH(r)	
Park, 2018									L	A/T	A	N/A		A/T	N/A	
Parker, 2015									L	A/T/C (2)	A	-		A/T/C/O	N/A	
Picoito, 2019						<u> </u>			L	A/T/C (m)	A		T/A (f)	A/T/C	N/A	
Pilatti, 2013									L	A/T	A (2)	N/A	· · · ·	A/T/O	N/A	

(continued on next page)

Drug and Alcohol Dependence 216 (2020) 108222

Table 2 (continued)

		1 of these types of clusters included; (m/f)=when the cluster only applies to males or females when stratified; *=fit general pattern with some exceptions/distinctions											emales when				
T=targeted samples	grey =	= measur	red/inc	luded					C=Can health s	L=Noflow use; L(r)= relatively low use in a high risk sample; A=Alcoho]; T=Tobacco/Smoking; C=Cannabis; O=Other prescription or illicit drugs; MH=Mental Health; MH(r)=high/highest mental health symptomatology alongside moderate general substance multi-use; (#)=when there is more than							
TOTAL (k = 70)	69	29	57	55	20	42	20	19	67	47	24	10	15	66	11		
Zweig , 2001									L	A/T/C				A/T/C/O	MH (f)	C/T/O (m)	
Zapert, 2002									L	A/T/C/O (3*)	A			A/T/C/O*	N/A		
White, 2013									Α	A/T/C				A/T/C/O	N/A		
Weden, 2005									L	A/T/C				A/T/C	MH		
Vaughn , 2012 (T)									L(r)	A/T/C(r)				A/T/C/O	MH		
Valente, 2017									L		A			A/T/C/O	N/A		
Tomczyk, 2015									L	A/T		N/A		A/T	N/A		
Sullivan, 2010									L	A/T/C (2)				A/T/C			
Su, 2017									L	A/T/C	Α			A/T/C/O	N/A		
Stanley, 2018 (T)									L	A/T/C				A/T/C/O	N/A	C/T	
Snyder, 2015 (T)									Α	A/C			N/A	A/C/O	N/A		
Silveira, 2019									L	A/T/C (2)*		C/A*		A/T/C/O	N/A		
Shook , 2013 (T)									L(r)	A/T/C(r)				A/T/C/O			
Shin, 2010 (T)									L	A/C			N/A	A/C/O(2f, 1m)	N/A		
Schmiege, 2016 (T)													N/A			3	
Salas-Wright, 2016 (T)									L	A/C	A		N/A	A/C/O	N/A		
Rose, 2018 (T)									L	A/T/C	A			A/T/C/O	N/A		
Rivera, 2017 (T)									L		A	C/A		A/T/C (2)	N/A	C/T	
Riehman, 2009 (T)										A/T/C		C/A	T	A/T/C/O	*all		
Ray, 2015 (T)									L	A/T/C				A/T/C/O	N/A		
Ranney, 2018 (T)									L	A/T/C				A/T/C/O			
Potter, 2003 (T)									L(r)*				N/A	A/T/O (2)*			

3.3. Patterns of sociodemographic characteristics

The majority of studies compared substance use clusters based on sociodemographic characteristics. 86 % of studies compared clusters based on sex or gender, 75 % of which found significant differences. There were consistent, but not universal, associations between sex and/or gender and substance use cluster solutions. Males were typically more likely to be in high multi-use clusters and experience more externalizing symptoms. Females were more likely to be in the low use clusters, experience more internalizing symptoms, and be in clusters with high mental health symptomatology and low substance use. Although males were often more likely to use substances than females, several studies found that females who did use substances were more likely to be in the high multi-use clusters rather than moderate general multi-use, to use more heavily, misuse prescription drugs, and experience co-occurring mental health concerns.

The second most common comparison was age, with 71 % of studies comparing clusters based on age, 88 % of which found significant differences demonstrating higher multi-use groups among older age groups. Of note, five studies stratified their cluster solutions by age with three finding similar cluster solutions across age groups but with different distributions (i.e., higher prevalence of multi-use clusters in older age strata). The remaining two identified fewer and more limited range cluster solutions in the middle school strata (i.e., grade 6–8) compared to the secondary school strata (i.e., grade 9 – 12). Race/ethnicity was compared in 53 % of the studies, of which 92 %

Race/ethnicity was compared in 53 % of the studies, of which 92 % found significant differences with inconsistent findings. The most common pattern was white youth being more likely to be in higher multi-use clusters and black youth being more likely to be in low use clusters or alcohol-focused clusters. 33 % of studies compared groups based on socioeconomic status (SES), with 65 % finding significant differences. Most studies found lower SES was related to higher

likelihood of multi-use, with two exceptions (Picoito et al., 2019; Salas-Wright et al., 2016).

3.4. Quality of included studies

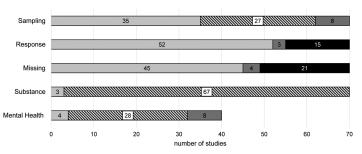
An overview of the RoB of included studies is presented in Fig. 2 with more details found in Supplementary Materials. In summary, 50 % were deemed low risk of sampling bias with higher RoB due to sample exclusions or restrictions (including geography) limiting representativeness, not reporting sampling frames, self-selection, and discrepancies in reporting. Most studies had initial response rates greater than 60 % (74 %) and less than 20 % missing data (64 %), however 21 % and 30 % did not report enough information to determine response rates and missingness, respectively. 37 % of studies did not report how they dealt with missing data, 27 % used complete cases only, 29 % used Full information maximum likelihood (FIML), and 7 % used other missing data strategies. Most studies relied on self-reports of substance use and mental health symptoms using single or multi-item scales.

Overall, quality of cluster reporting was inconsistent and poor. Of the included articles, 81 % (k=57) performed LCAs, Of note, the type of cluster analysis was significantly related to cluster solution findings whereby studies using LCAs identified more single and dual clusters than other cluster methods. Most studies using LCA provided some type of fit statistic(s) for determining the final number of clusters although several did not report Likelihood Ratio Test (LRT; k=22); entropy or Positive Predictive Value (PPV; k=15); or Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC; k=9). Only 28 % selected a final solution that was mostly or fully consistent with reported fit indices. When discrepancies exist across fit statistics, it is recommended to use BIC for model enumeration (Nylund et al., 2007). Often BIC was the primary index used for model selection – either denoted by the lowest BIC or accelerated flattening - although this was not universal. Regarding the model

Drug and Alcohol Dependence 216 (2020) 108222

Table 3
Substance Use Pattern Themes.

Theme	Brief Descriptions	Sub-themes	Proportion reported as median (min to max)
Low Use	The lowest relative levels and probabilities of use in the sample, usually reflective of the largest proportion of adolescents.	No/low use Some alcohol use	53 % (8%–91%)
Moderate general multi-use	Typically, adolescents in these clusters endorsed more than 2 substances, most commonly alcohol, cannabis and tobacco. Use of other illicit or misuse of prescription substance use was either absent or low. When the scale of measurement of the indicator variables reflected a continuum of frequency of use, occasional levels of use of alcohol, cannabis, and tobacco were most common, alongside infrequent or rare use of other drugs.	Alcohol, Tobacco, and/or Cannabis Alcohol, Tobacco, and/or Cannabis + some experimental use of other substances	22 % (4%–52%)
Single or dual substance use	These clusters indicate moderate to high levels of a single substance or dual substances, exclusively pertaining to the use of Alcohol, Cannabis, and Tobacco. Of note, in order to be classified into a dual Tobacco & Alcohol or Cannabis &	Alcohol focused. This cluster theme is distinct from low use class in that it reflects notably higher levels of just alcohol use, and in some instances had a similar or larger prevalence than the low use cluster.	25 % (8%–45%)
	Alcohol focused group, we required all three common substances to be included as indicators. If all three substances were not included, those clusters were classified into general multi-use clusters given inability to determine difference between dual versus multi-use.	Cannabis & Alcohol Focused. Note: tobacco had to be included as an indicator variable Tobacco focused (with and without co-alcohol). Note: cannabis had to be included as an indicator variable.	19 % (5%–44%) 13 % (4%–31%)
High multi-use	Adolescents in these clusters endorsed use of all included substances. When the scale of measurement of the indicator variables reflected a continuum of frequency of use, high multi-use clusters reflected regular or frequent levels of use of alcohol, cannabis, and tobacco alongside other illicit or prescription drug use (when included). At times "high" and "higher" multi-use clusters emerged, differentiated by the frequency and type of other illicit or prescription substance misuse in addition to the Alcohol, Tobacco, and/or Cannabis. This cluster usually represented the smallest proportion of adolescents within study samples.	Highest levels of Alcohol, Tobacco, and/or Cannabis Highest levels of Alcohol, Tobacco, and/or Cannabis + other substances Highest levels of Alcohol, Tobacco, and/or Cannabis + advanced other substances	12 % (0.03%-53%)



□Low RoB ☑Intermediate RoB ■High RoB ■Not Reported

Fig. 2. Risk of Bias Summary.

assumption of local independence, only 12 % mentioned local independence. Of studies that did not mention this assumption. 28 % may have been in violation given inclusion of indicators that were dependent on one another (e.g., HED indicator is dependent upon any alcohol use indicator). Lastly, 46 % stated there were competing models that made final model selection difficult, with 25 % indicating using theoretical rationale to guide final decision-making. Other methodologies that were not model-based similarly did not typically report fit indices, competing models, sensitivity analyses, or cross- replication. Most commonly, these studies stated they selected the number of clusters that maximized the squared Euclidean distances but did not report specific details.

4. Discussion

Seventy studies were identified which investigated substance use

patterns among adolescents with over half published in the last five years, demonstrating that this is a rapidly emerging field. The following distinct patterns of substance use were derived: low use, single or dual substance use (i.e., alcohol only, cannabis with alcohol, and tobacco with and without alcohol), moderate general multi-use, and high multi-use. Our review presents extensive evidence that latent subgroups of adolescent substance use exist. The patterns identified in this review provide a robust foundation for evaluating etiological and prognostic models as well as prevention and intervention studies. If we see consistent and distinct risk factors and treatment responses based on common multi-substance patterns, novel tailored interventions will be needed

Our review provides a critical update on the state of the literature on multi- substance use patterns, with some replication from the previous review (Tomczyk et al., 2016). The patterns replicated include: (a) the highest proportion of adolescents typically falling into a low use

Drug and Alcohol Dependence 216 (2020) 108222

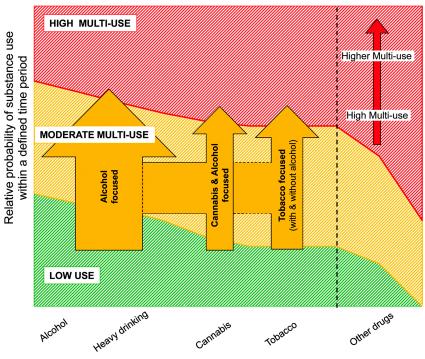


Fig. 3. Visual representation of substance use patterns.

Caption Fig. 3. This figure visually depicts substance use themes found across studies within this review. The y-axis represents the relative probability of endorsement of each substance (within a defined time period and/or frequency of use) and the x-axis depicts commonly included substance use indicators. The black dotted line indicates that other illicit drugs and prescription drug misuse are less likely to be indicated sin dicators in cluster generation. The green shading reflects relative endorsement for low use, whereby there is low to no use across all substances (although at times, alcohol may be slightly more elevated). The yellow shading reflects relative endorsement in moderate general multi-use clusters, where adolescents in these clusters typically have higher relative levels of alcohol, cannabis, and tobacco use with low to no use of other illicit drugs and prescription drug misuse. The yellow arrows represent single and dual substance focused clusters that typically fall into moderate to high probabilities of endorsement on specific substances. The alcohol focused cluster is the largest of the three arrows as it was most commonly found and typically represented a large proportion of adolescents. The cannabis arrow is directly connected to the alcohol arrow as predominant cannabis use often co-occurred alongside reported alcohol use (as a dual substance cluster), more-so than cannabio in its' own. For the tobacco arrow, the connection with alcohol is represented by a dotted line since there was a relatively large proportion of single substance tobacco focused clusters although a majority were still dual-substance alongside alcohol. The red shading reflects relative endorsement in high multi-use clusters, where adolescents typically endorse the highest levels across all included substance use indicators. The red arrow represents the distinction between high and higher multi-use clusters, which were typically reflective of differences in the prevalence and frequency of use of other illicit drugs and

group, which at times includes experimental or low levels of alcohol; (b) the next most common pattern being predominant alcohol use; (c) higher multi-use groups typically identified as small and most often comprised of the highest relative levels of alcohol, tobacco, and cannabis use; and (d) that low SES and older age are related to higher multi-use (Tomczyk et al., 2016). The replication of these key patterns strengthens their importance and validity. Additionally, our review refined and disaggregated previously identified single-substance patterns, multi-use, and extended sociodemographic and mental health correlates (Tomczyk et al., 2016). Specifically, our review found that: (1) cannabis and tobacco have distinct patterns of use that are separate from general multi-use across all substances; (2) mental health is important to consider when generating and characterizing clusters; and (3) gender/sex differences are important.

First, substance use patterns should be considered in prevention, identification, and treatment strategies. The National Institute on Drug Abuse (NIDA, 2014) suggests that for adolescent substance use, it is

critical to identify and intervene early even when youth do not meet criteria for a substance use disorder. Guidelines recommend asking about substance use during annual primary care visits (starting around age 11) and in mental health settings (Burkstein, 2020; Pan and Brent, 2018; National Institute on Drug Abuse (NIDA, 2014; Swinson, 2017). Common brief screeners include Brief Screener for Tobacco, Alcohol, and other drugs (BSTAD) and the Screening to Brief Intervention (S2BI), both of which provide steps for asking about all types of substances that can help identify patterns. Once assessed, recent research has focused on the use of brief motivational interventions, although these are typically single-substance specific (Carney et al., 2016; Halladay et al., 2019a, 2019b; O'Connor et al., 2018; Towns et al., 2017). Our review suggests that although stand-alone interventions for alcohol and tobacco may still be warranted, there seems to be a particular need for interventions focusing on dual use of cannabis and alcohol as well as different levels of multi-use (i.e., separating those using alcohol, cannabis, and tobacco occasionally from those using more frequently with

Drug and Alcohol Dependence 216 (2020) 108222

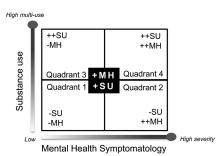


Fig. 4. Visual representation of mental health and substance use patterns. Caption Fig. 4. This figure visually depicts the relationship between the clustering of substance use and mental health symptomatology. This figure was adapted from the four-quadrant model of concurrent disorders. The y-axis represents the level of endorsement of substance use and multi-use and the x-axis represents the level of endorsement of mental health symptomatology. Quadrant 1 represents low substance use (-SU) and low mental health symptomatology (+H-MH) but low substance use, the Quadrant 3 represents high multi-substance use (++SU) and low mental health symptomatology, and the Quadrant 4 depicts high co-occurring substance use and mental health symptomatology. Within included studies that considered mental health symptomatology, clusters reflective of all quadrants were identified.

and without other drug use). Given the sensitivity of the adolescent brain to rewards and the opportunity to address potential common liability factors, there is also interest in the use of alternative activities and drug free reinforcement strategies (McKay, 2017) as well as school climate and social skills interventions (Das et al., 2016).

Secondly, our review highlights the co-occurrence of mental health and substance use concerns among adolescents. When mental health was considered, almost all studies found significant differences, suggesting that mental health symptomatology is associated with higher multi-use clusters. This is consistent with positive correlations between substance use and mental health symptomatology found in general population samples of youth (Cheung et al., 2019) and high prevalence of co-occurring substance use among clinical samples of youth. For example, studies have found that the majority of youth who present to hospital or outpatient clinics for substance use concerns experience cooccurring mental health concerns, and this co-occurrence is related to greater severity of problems (Chan et al., 2008; Diamond et al., 2006; Hawke et al., 2018). Additionally, it has been found that youth who present to the hospital for mental health concerns commonly use substances (Blevins et al., 2019), and that co-occurring substance use is related to poorer mental health treatment outcomes (Gobbi et al., 2019; Hser et al., 2017; Jacobus et al., 2017; Mammen et al., 2018; Moitra et al., 2016). For many years, it has been suggested that, "co-occurring disorders are an expectation, not an exception" (pg. iv, SAMHSA, 2002) and our review reinforces the need to examine and address them concurrently (Addiction and Mental Health Collaborative Project Steering ttee, 2014).

Although co-occurrence was common, our review also demonstrated distinct subgroups of adolescents with substance use and mental health concerns (i.e., Quadrants 2 and 3). This suggests that not all adolescents using substances experience mental health concerns (and vice versa). The four-quadrant model of concurrent disorders (adapted in Fig. 4) illustrates that individuals can present in various ways with substance use concerns only, mental health concerns only, or with co-occurring problems (Sacks et al., 2005). The model points to the need to assess and treat both mental health and substance use concerns in a stepped, integrated, and coordinated manner (see the following for a review of integrated care: Evidence Exchnage Network for Mental

Health and Addictions (EEnet, 2016). Our review found different crosssectional patterns consistent with all four quadrants among adolescents in general and targeted populations. This suggests that in addition to continuing to promote concurrent assessment and treatment in primary care and specialized mental health and substance use settings (see the following for summaries of concurrent treatment: CSAT, 2007; Drake et al., 2008; Kelly et al., 2012), it may also be helpful to extend this concurrent lens to the development of health prevention, promotion, and early identification protocols. Future research should consider patterns of mental health and substance use in order to develop distinct referral and care pathways in various settings, including schools.

Third, our review suggests gender and sex are associated with different patterns of substance use among adolescents. Other studies have similarly found that females may be particularly vulnerable to the effects of substances, may be more likely to progress to higher risk use and to experience problems from their use (McHugh et al., 2018), including co-occurring mental health concerns (Halladay et al., 2019a). In line with international recommendations, future research should consider findings related to both sex and gender independently from one another in order to further refine our understanding of the nature of these associations (Heidari et al., 2016).

4.1. Strengths and limitations

We undertook a comprehensive search strategy resulting in the inclusion of many studies, which were extensively described and analyzed. We used content analytical techniques (due to limitations of existing meta-analytical software) to iteratively identify consistent themes across studies, leading to a meta-synthesis. Our review focused on cross-sectional cluster analyses and did not include longitudinal analyses; thus, it is focused on cross-sectional cluster identification and not on general etiology and prognosis of specific patterns. Greater inclusivity led to increased heterogeneity of studies in terms of sampling design, participant characteristics, methods, and indicators, although was focused exclusively on studies written in English. Therefore, overarching themes were consistent but this heterogeneity may have resulted in missed nuances in cultural, ethnic, or targeted population differences.

Although the review process itself was methodologically rigorous. there were a number of limitations in individual studies that restrict generalizability and direct comparison. Regarding population and contextual characteristics, 3/4 of included studies were conducted in the US and - although studies were published recently - data itself was at least 3 years old and often older. This limits our ability to know if patterns are similar globally and if they have persisted or changed due to the recent opioid crisis and changes in cannabis legislation. There may also be other contextual factors including regional differences in drug availability, cultural practices, local drug policy, and cost. Additionally, most included studies did not stratify the analyses based on age or developmental period, although age was typically included as a covariate, precluding our ability to examine developmental differences in patterns of substance use. Similarly, few studies empirically evaluated differences across sex/gender and ethnicity/race. Most sociodemographic and mental health correlates were assessed univariately, thus conclusions regarding associations are threatened by unmeasured confounding. There were also a number of methodological shortcomings including moderate to high RoB, poor reporting of cluster-methodological decisions, and heterogeneity/inconsistency in measurement of indicator variables. Given cluster-methods are personcentred and most solutions are sample- and indicator-dependent, patterns were captured relatively and, as such, there were large variations in "low" "moderate" and "high." Thus, there is a critical need for greater consistency, clarity, and standardization of methods for future cluster studies. Further, more research is needed to understand if patterns differ or persist across global, political, contextual, and demographic factors.

Drug and Alcohol Dependence 216 (2020) 108222

4.2. Methodological recommendations

Our review suggests a need for more consistent and clear reporting of response rates, missingness, and cluster-based methodological decisions including statistical fit indices, evaluation of the assumptions of local independence, and presentation of competing models. Focusing on LCA studies, there was poor reporting of cluster solutions and inconsistencies in model enumeration strategies. Poor reporting and inconsistencies in model enumeration have been echoed in previous reviews related to youth mental health and substance use (Petersen et al., 2019; Tomczyk et al., 2016) and reflect larger cluster-based methodological concerns that span across fields (van Smeden et al., 2014v). To our knowledge, there are no current reporting guidelines for LCAs, however, there are reporting guidelines for observational research (STROBE Guidelines; Von Elm et al., 2014), latent trajectory models (van de Schoot et al., 2017v), and other papers that discuss how to appropriately report LCAs (Petersen et al., 2019; Schreiber, 2017). At minimum, LCA-type studies should include: (a) statistical fit indices across all three domains (absolute, relative, predictive probabilities) for selected and competing models; (b) evaluations for the assumption of local independence; and (c) a transparent discussion regarding final model selection and competing models (including presenting patterns for competing models).

The heterogeneity in the selection and measurement of indicator variables alongside cluster-analytical methodological decisions preclude direct comparisons. Previous researchers have similarly expressed concerns regarding the ability to replicate and compare clusters across studies due to differences in the number, nature, and types of indicators (Nylund-Gibson and Choi, 2018; Petersen et al., 2019; Tomczyk et al., 2016). Our review highlights that:

- 1 Separate indicators for alcohol, cannabis, and tobacco should be included when examining patterns of substance use among adolescents. These are the most common substances used globally, and without including all indicators, substance-specific patterns carrying distinct risks cannot emerge;
- 2 Using continuous indicators, as opposed to dichotomous or categorical, is recommended as it increases sample variability and also allows for identification of clusters based on frequency and higher risk use versus any use;
- 3 Indicators related to mental health symptomatology should be included, as different and important patterns and shared liability factors may be revealed which warrant further exploration;
- 4 Maximizing consistency and comparability across studies is crucial. First, a set of standardized substance use measures and operationalization of use would greatly advance the field. Secondly, future studies should consider cross-replication using different clustering techniques such as comparing model-based approaches to machine-learning approaches;
- 5 There is a need for novel advanced meta-analytical software or strategies to pool study-level cluster solutions while accounting for heterogeneity across sampling and methodological decisions.

5. Conclusion

There is a large and multifarious empirical literature identifying patterns of multiple substance use in adolescents. Patterns of adolescent substance use typically included low use, single and dual substance use, moderate general multi-use, and high multi-use. A minority of studies considered mental health symptomatology, but those that did suggest important correlations as well as concurrent and distinct patterns. Further exploration of the role of mental health in patterns of substance use is warranted. More broadly, there is a need to identify robust substance use patterns using standardized methodological approaches and to conduct etiologic, prognostic, and intervention research using these patterns that is rigorous and comparable. The benefits of cluster

methods, in that they are person-centred approaches that reduce complex patterns into homogenous sub-groups, may currently be outweighed by heterogeneity across studies which limits direct comparisons and syntheses of results across studies and samples. Future clusterbased research needs to balance the desire for person-centred exploration with the need for consistency and comparability.

Funding support

This research was supported by a Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR)Doctoral Research Training Award (JH), the Peter Boris Chair in Addictions Research (JM), and the David R. (Dan) Offord Chair in Child studies (KG). No conflicts of interest for any authors except Dr. MacKillop, who is a Principal in BEAM Diagnostics, Inc.

Contributors

JH conceived of and designed the review. JH lead the screening, data extraction, data analysis, and writing of the review. RW and HK were the primary second reviewers in screening, data extraction, and thematic coding, MO, LF, KA, MK also helped with screening, data extraction, and verification. CM, JM, MA, and KG provided methodological and substantive support throughout the manuscript process. All authors have reviewed and approve of the final submission.

Declaration of Competing Interest

No conflicts declared for all authors other than JM, who is a principal in BEAM Diagnostics, Inc.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2020. 108222

References

- Addiction and Mental Health Collaborative Project Steering Committee, 2014 Collaboration for Addiction and Mental Health Care: Best Advice. Ottawa, ON Canadian Centre on Substance Abuse. Retrieved from. . http://collaboration-addiction-and-mental-health-care-best-advice-rep
- Ansary, N.S., Luthar, S.S., 2009. Distress and academic achievement among adolescents of affluence: a study of externalizing and internalizing problem behaviors and school performance. Dev. Psychopathol. 21 (1), 319-341. https://doi.org/10.1017/
- Arain, M., Haque, M., Johal, L., et al., 2013. Maturation of the adolescent brain. Neuropsychiatr. Dis. Treat. 9, 449–461. https://doi.org/10.2147/NDT.S39776. Assanangkornchai, S., Li, J.L., McNeil, E., Saingam, D., 2018. Clusters of alcohol and drug use and other health-risk behaviors among thai secondary school students: a latent class analysis. BMC Public Health 18 (1). https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-018
- Baggio, S., Spillka, S., Studer, J., Iglesias, K., Gmel, G., 2016. Trajectories of drug use among French young people: prototypical stages of involvement in illicit drug use. J. Subst. Abuse Treat. 21 (5), 485–490. https://doi.org/10.3109/14659891.2015.
- Banks, D.E., Rowe, A.T., Mpofu, P., Zapolski, T.C.B., 2017. Trends in typologies of con current alcohol, marijuana, and cigarette use among us adolescents: an ecological examination by sex and race/ethnicity. Drug Alcohol Depend. 179, 71–77. https://
- Bartlett, R., Holditch-Davis, D., Belyea, M., 2005. Clusters of problem behaviors in ado-
- lescents. Res. Nurs. Health 28 (3), 230-239. https://doi.org/10.1002/nur.20078.
 rendt, S., Wittchen, H.U., Höfler, M., Lieb, R., Beesdo, K., 2009. Transitions from first substance use to substance use disorders in adolescence: is early onset associated with a rapid escalation? Drug Alcohol Depend. 99 (1-3), 68-78. https://doi.org/10.1016/
- Blanco, C., Florez-Salamanca, L., Secades-Villa, R., Wang, S., Hasin, D.S., 2018. Predictors of initiation of nicotine, alcohol, cannabis, and cocaine use: results of the National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions (NESARC). Am. J. Addict.
- Blevins, C., Grimone, K.R., Cavinessm, C.M., Stein, M., Abrante, A., 2019, Categorizing cannabis and alcohol use patterns of emerging adults in psychiatric partial hospita lization. J. Psychiatr. 25 (6), 491–498. https://doi.org/10.1097/PRA.

- Boak, A., Hamilton, H.A., Adlaf, E.M., Henderson, J.L., Mann, R.E., 2016. The Mental Health and Well-being of Ontario Students 1991-2015: Detailed OSDUHS Findings (CAMH Research Document Series no. 43). Centre for Addiction and Mental Health,
- Boak, A., Elton-Marshall, T., Mann, R.E., Hamilton, H.A., 2020, Drug Use Am Students, 1977-2019: Detailed Findings From the Ontario Student Drug Use and Health Survey (OSDUHS). Centre for Addiction and Mental Health, Toronto, ON. Bohnert, K.M., Walton, M.A., Resko, S., Barry, K.T., Chermack, S.T., Zucker, R.A., Booth,
- B.S., Blow, R.B., 2014. Latent class analysis of substance use among adolescents presenting to urban primary care clinics. Am. J. Drug Alcohol Abuse 40 (1), 44–50. https://doi.org/10.3109/00952990.2013.844821.
- Bolton, J.M., Robinson, J., Sareen, J., 2009. Self-medication of mood disorders with alcohol and drugs in the National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions. J. Affect. Disord. 115 (3), 367–375. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jad.2008
- Burkstein, O., 2020. Substance Use Disorder in Adolescents: Epidemiology, Pathogo Clinical Manifestations and Consequences, Course, Assessment, and Diagnosis UpToDate. https://www.uptodate.com/contents/.
- UpToDate. https://www.uptodate.com/contents/.
 Carney, T., Myers, B.J., Louw, J., Okwundu, C.I., 2016. Brief school-based interventions and behavioural outcomes for substance-using adolescents. Cochrane Database Syst. Rev.(1). https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD008969.pub3.
- ReV(1): https://doi.org/10.1002/14031638.LD0008959.JB02. Center for Substance Abuse Treatment (CSAT). Overarching Principles To Address the Needs of Persons With Co-Occurring Disorders. COCE Overview Paper 3. DHHS Publication No. (SMA) 07-4165 Rockville, MD: Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, 2007.
- Casey, B.J., Jones, R.M., Hare, T.A., 2008. The adolescent brain. Ann. N.Y. Acad. Sci. 1124, 111–126. https://doi.org/10.1196/annals.1440.010.
 Casey, B.J., Jones, R.M., 2010. Neurobiology of the adolescent brain and behavior: implications for substance use disorders. J. Am. Acad. Child Adolesc. Psychiatry 49 (12), 1189–1201. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaac.2010.08.017.
 Chan, Y., Dennis, M.L., Funk, R.R., 2008. Prevalence and comorbidity of major inter
- in 1., Definis, M.L., Pulis, A., 2006. They are the controlled to halp inter-nalizing and externalizing problems among adolescents and adults presenting to substance abuse treatment. J. Subst. Abuse Treat. 34 (1), 14–24. https://doi.org/10.
- Charak, R., Koot, H.M., Dvorak, R.D., Elklit, A., Elhai, J.D., 2015, Unique versus cumu lative effects of physical and sexual assault on patterns of adolescent substance use Psychiatry Res. 230 (3), 763–769. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychres.2015.11.014. Chen, L, Crum, R.M., Strain, E.C., Martins, S.S., Mojtabai, R., 2015. Patterns of con-current substance use among adolescent nonmedical adhd stimulant users. Addict.
- Behav. 49, 1-6. h
- Cheung, A.H., Cook, S., Kozloff, N., Chee, J.N., Mann, R.E., Boak, A., 2019. Substance use and internalizing symptoms among high school students and access to health care services: results from a population-based study. Can. J. Public Health 110 (1), 85–92.
- Childs, K.K., Ray, J.V., 2017. Race differences in patterns of risky behavior and associated risk factors in adolescence. Int. J. Offender Ther. Comp. Criminol. 61 (7), 773–794. https://doi.org/10.1177/3036624815599401.
- Choi, H.J., Lu, Y., Schulte, M., Temple, J.R., 2018. Adolescent substance use: latent class and transition analysis. Addict. Behav. 77, 160–165. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.
- Chung, H., Elisa, M., 1996. Patterns of adolescent involvement in problem behaviors: relationship to self-efficacy, social competence, and life events. Am. J. Commun. Psychol. 24 (6), 771–784. https://doi.org/10.1007/8BP02511034. Chung, T., Kim, K.H., Hipwell, A.E., Stepp, S.D., 2013. White and black adolescent fe-
- males differ in profiles and longitudinal patterns of alcohol, cigarette, and marijuana use. Psychol. Addict. Behav. 27 (4). https://doi.org/10.1037/a003173. 110. CLARITY Group at McMaster University, 2019. Risk of Bias Instrument for Cross-sectional Surveys of Attitudes and Practices. Accessed September 2019Retrieved from. -of-Attitud
- Cleveland, M.J., Collins, L.M., Lanza, S.T., Greenberg, M.T., Feinberg, M.E., 2010. Does individual risk moderate the effect of contextual-level protective factors? A latent class analysis of substance use J. Prev. Interv. Community 38 (3), 213–228. https://doi.org/10.1080/10852352.2010.486299.
- Collins, L.M., Lanza, S.T., 2010. Latent Class and Latent Transition Analy as in the Social Rehavioral and Health Sciences Vol. 718 John Wiley 8
- Connell, C.M., Gilreath, T.D., Hansen, N.B., 2009. A multiprocess latent class analysis of the co-occurrence of substance use and sexual risk behavior among adolescents. J
- the co-occurrence of substance use and sexual risk behavior among adolescents. J. Stud. Alcohol Drugs 70 (6), 943–951. https://doi.org/10.15288/jsad.2009.70.943. Connell, C.M., Gilreath, T.D., Aklin, W.M., Brex, R.A., 2010. Social-ecological influences on patterns of substance use among non-metropolitan high school students. Am. J. Community Psychol. 45, 36–48. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10464-009-9289-x. Connor, J.P., Gullo, M.J., White, A., Kelly, A.B., 2014. Polysubstance use: diagnostic
- challenges, patterns of use and health. Curr. Opin. Psychiatry 27 (4), 269-275.
- Conway, K.P., Vullo, G.C., Nichter, B., Wang, J., Compton, W.M., Iannotti, R.J., Simons Morton, B., 2013. Prevalence and patterns of polysubstance use in a nationally representative sample of 10th graders in the united states. J. Adolesc. Health 52 (6),
- 716–723. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2012.12.006.
 Coulter, R.W.S., Ware, D., Fish, J.N., Plankey, M.W., 2019. Latent classes of polysubstance use among adolescents in the united states: intersections of sexual identity with sex, age, and race/ethnicity. LGBT Health 6 (3), 116–125. https://doi.org/10.1089/lgbt.
- Cranford, J.A., Boyd, C.J., McCabe, S.E., 2013, Adolescents' nonmedical use and excessive medical use of prescription medications and the identification of substance use

- subgroups. Addict. Behav. 38 (11), 2768–2771. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.addbeh.
- Das, J.K., Salam, R.A., Arshad, A., Finkelstein, Y., Bhutta, Z.A., 2016. Interventions for cent substance abuse: an overview of systematic reviews. J. Adolesc. Health 59 (4), S61-S75, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2016.06.021
- (4), 30-43/3. Tubman, J.G., 2019. Gender, maltreatment and psychiatric symptoms among adolescents in outpatient substance abuse treatment. Child Adolesc. Social Work J. 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10560-019-00637-4.
 Dawson, D.A., Goldstein, R.B., Chou, S.P., Ruan, W.J., Grant, B.F., 2008. Age at first drink
- and the first incidence of adult-onset DSM-IV alcohol use disorders. Alcohol. Clin. Exp. Res. 32 (12), 2149–2160, https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1530-0277.2008.00806.
- Exp. Res. 32 (12), 219–2160. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1530-027/2.2008.00800.x. Girolamo, G., Dagani, J., Purcell, R., Cocchi, A., McGorry, P.D., 2012d. Age of onset of mental disorders and use of mental health services: needs, opportunities and ob-stacles. Epidemiol. Psychiatr. Sci. 21 (1), 47–57. https://doi.org/10.1017/
- Delk, J., Carey, F.R., Case, K.R., Creamer, M.R., Wilkinson, A.V., Perry, C.L., Harrell, M.B., 2019. Adolescent tobacco uptake and other substance use: a latent class analysis. Am. J. Health Behav. 43 (1), 3–14. https://doi.org/10.5993/AJHB.43.1.1.

 Dermody, S.S., 2018. Risk of polysubstance use among sexual minority and heterosexual
- youth. Drug Alcohol Depend. 192, 38-44. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dru
- Dermody, S.S., Marshal, M.P., Cheong, J., Chung, T.D., Stepp, S., Hipwell, A., 2016. Adolescent sexual minority girls are at elevated risk for use of multiple substances. Subst. Use Misuse 51 (5), 574–585. https://doi.org/10.3109/10826084.2015.
- Diamond, G., Panichelli-Mindel, S.M., Shera, D., Dennis, M., Tims, F., Ungemack, J. 2006. Psychiatric syndromes in adolescents with marijuana abuse and dependenc outpatient treatment. J. Child Adolesc. Subst. Abuse 15 (4), 37–54. https://doi.o/ https://doi.o/
- Dierker, L.C., Vesel, F., Sledjeski, E.M., Costello, D.C., Perrine, N., 2007. Testing the dual Dienker, L.C., Vesel, r., Steujesst, E.M., Costeino, D.C., Perrine, N., 2007. Testing the dual pathway hyothesis to substance use in adolescence and young adulthood. Drug Alcohol Depend. 87 (1), 83–93. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2006.08.001
 Drake, R.E., O'Neal, E.L., Wallach, M.A., 2008. A systematic review of psychosocial re-
- search on psychosocial interventions for people with co-occurring severe mental and substance use disorders. J. Subst. Abuse Treat. 34 (1), 123–138. https://doi.org/10.
- Kyngäs, H., 2008. The qualitative content analysis process. J. Adv. Nurs. 62 (1),
- 107–115. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365- 2648.2007.04569.x.
 Espelage, D.L., Davis, J.P., Basile, K.C., Rostad, W.L., Leemis, R.W., 2018. Alcohol, prescription drug misuse, sexual violence, and dating violence among high school youth. J. Adolesc. Health 63 (5), 601–607. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2018.05.
- Essau, C.A., de la Torre-Luque, A., 2019. Comorbidity profile of mental disorders among adolescents: a latent class analysis. Psychiatry Res. 278, 228–234. https://doi.org/10.
- Evidence Exchange Network for Mental Health and Addictions (EEnet), 2016, Models of Collaboration Between Primary Care and Mental Health and Substance Use Services: Rapid Review. Accessed July 2020 Retrieved from: https://www.eenet.ca/sites/
- Fergusson, D.M., Boden, J.M., Horwood, L.J., 2011, Structural models of the comorbidity of internalizing disorders and substance use disorders in a longitudinal birth cohort Soc. Psychiatry Psychiatr. Epidemiol. 46 (10), 933–942. https://doi.org/10.1007/
- Finch, W.H., Pierson, E.E., 2011. A mixture IRT analysis of risky youth behavior. Front.
- Psychol. 2, 98. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2011.00098.
 Fraga, S, Severo, M., Costa, D., Lopes, C, Ramos, E, 2011. Clustering behaviours among 13-year-old portuguese adolescents. J Public Health (Bangkok) 19 (1), 21–27. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10389-010-0376-0.
- Georgiades, K., Duncan, L., Wang, L., Comeau, J., Boyle, M.H., Team, O.C.H.S., 2019. Sixinontario: evidence or mental disorders and service contacts among children and youth in ontario: evidence from the 2014 Ontario Child Health Study. Can. J. Psychiatry 64 (4), 246-255. https://doi.org/10.1177/0706743710830034
- Gilreath, T.D., Astor, R.A., Estrada, J.N., Johnson, R.M., Benbenishty, R., Unger, J.B., 2014. Substance use among adolescents in California: a latent class analysis. Subst.
- Use Misuse 49 (1–2), 116–123. https://doi.org/10.3109/10826084.2013.824408.
 Gobbi, G., Atkin, T., Zytynski, T., et al., 2019. Association of cannabis use in adolescence and risk of depression, anxiety, and suicidality in young adulthood: a systematic review and meta-analysis. JAMA Psychiatry. https://doi.org/10.1001/
- Graham, J.W., Collins, L.M., Wugalter, S.E., Chung, N.K., Hansen, W.B., 1991. Modeling transitions in latent stage-sequential processes: a substance use prevention example. J. Consult. Clin. Psychol. 59 (1). https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0068.59.1.48.48.
 Green, M.J., Leyland, A.H., Sweeting, H., Benzeval, M., 2013. Socioeconomic position and
- adolescent trajectories in smoking, drinking, and psychiatric distress. J. Adolescent Health, 53 (2), 202-208, https:// loi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2013.02.023, e202.
- Halladay, J.E., Boyle, M.H., Munn, C., Jack, S.M., Georgiades, K., 2019a. Sex differences in the association between cannabis use and suicidal ideation and attempts, depression, and psychological distress among Canadians. Can. J. Psychiat 64 (5), 345–350. https://doi.org/10.1177/0706743718804542.
- Halladay, J., Scherer, J., Mackillop, J., Woock, R., Petker, T., Linton, V., Munn, C., 2019b. Brief interventions for cannabis use in emerging adults: a systematic review, meta-analysis, and evidence map. Drug Alcohol Depend. 204, 107565. https://doi.org/10.
- Hallfors, D.D., Waller, M.W., Ford, C.A., Halpern, C.T., Brodish, P.H., Iritani, B., 2004. J. Prev. Med. 27 (3), 224-231. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.am

- Hathaway, A.D., 2003. Cannabis effects and dependency concerns in long-term frequent users: a missing piece of the public health puzzle. Addict. Res. Theory 11 (6),
- 441–458. https://doi.org/10.1080/1606635021000041807.
 Hawke, L.D., Koyama, E., Henderson, J.L., 2018. Cannabis use, other substance use, and Hawke, L.D., Koyama, E., Hencerson, J.L., 2018. Cannabis use, other substance use, and co-occurring mental health concerns among youth presenting for substance use treatment services: Sex and age differences. J. Subst. Abuse Treat. 91, 12–19. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsat.2018.05.001.
 Hedden, S.L., Whitaker, D.E., Von Thomsen, S., Severtson, S.G., Latimer, W.W., 2010.
 Latent patterns of risk behavior in urban African-American middle school students in
- Baltimore city. J. Child Adolesc. Subst. Abuse 20 (1), 34-47. https://doi.org/10.
- Heidari, S., Babor, T.F., De Castro, P., et al., 2016. Sex and Gender Equity in Research: rationale for the SAGER guidelines and recommended use. Res. Integr. Peer Rev. 1, 2.
- Hser, Y.I., Mooney, L.J., Huang, D., Zhu, Y., Tomko, R.L., McClure, E., Chou, C.P., Gray, K.M., 2017. Reductions in cannabis use are associated with improvements in anxiety depression, and sleep quality, but not quality of life. J. Subst. Abuse Treat. 81, 53–58
- https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsat.2017.07.012.
 Jacobus, J., Squeglia, L.M., Escobar, S., McKenna, B.M., Hernandez, M.M., Bagot, K.S., Taylor, C.T., Huestis, M.A., 2017. Changes in marijuana use symptoms and emotional functioning over 28-days of monitored abstinence in adolescent marijuana users. Psychopharmacology. 234 (23), 3431–3442. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00213-017-
- Jordan, C.J., Andersen, S.L., 2017. Sensitive periods of substance abuse: early risk for the transition to dependence. Dev. Cogn. Neurosci. 25, 29-44. https://de
- Jordão, L.M.R., Malta, D.C., Freire, M.C.M., 2018. Clustering patterns of oral and general health-risk behaviours in brazilian adolescents: findings from a national survey.

 Community Dent. Oral Epidemiol. 46 (2), 194–202. https://doi.org/10.1111/cd
- 12.53%.
 Karlsson, P., Ekendahl, M., Månsson, J., Raninen, J., 2019. Has illicit drug use become normalised in groups of swedish youth? A latent class analysis of school survey data from 2012 to 2015. Nord. Stud. Alcohol Drugs 36 (1), 21–35. https://doi.org/10.
- Kelly, T.M., Daley, D.C., Douaihy, A.B., 2012. Treatment of substance abusing patients
- Kelly, T.M., Daley, D.C., Douaihy, A.B., 2012. Treatment of substance abusing patients with comorbid psychiatric disorders. Addict. Behav. 1 (1), 11–24. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.addbeh.2011.09.010. 37.
 Kelly, A.B., Chan, G.C., Mason, W.A., Williams, J.W., 2015. The relationship between psychological distress and adolescent polydrug use. Psychol. Addict. Behav. 29 (3). https://doi.org/10.1037/adb0000068. 787.
- Kemppainen, U., Tossavainen, K., Vartiainen, E., Puska, P., Jokela, V., Pantelejev, V., Uhanov, M., 2007. Identifying russian and Finnish adolescents' problem behaviours. Health Educ. 107 (1), 81–98. https://doi.org/10.1108/09654280710716897.
- Kliewer, W., Wan, N.M.A., Parham, B., Ring, Z., 2019. Protective factors and biological sex differentiate profiles of teen substance users in Myanmar. Health Educ. Behav. 46 (5), 853–864, https://doi.org/10.1177/1090198119839106.
- Lamont, A.E., Woodlief, D., Malone, P.S., 2014. Predicting high-risk versus higher-risk substance use during late adolescence from early adolescent risk factors using latent class analysis. Addiction Res. Theory. 22 (1), 78–89. https://doi.org/10.3109/
- Lazzeri, G., Panatto, D., Domnich, A., Arata, L., Pammolli, A., Simi, R., Giacchi, M.V., Amicizia, D., Gasparini, R., 2016. Clustering of health-related behaviors among early and mid-adolescents in Tuscany: results from a representative cross-sectional study. J. Public Health (Bangkok) 40 (1), e25–e33. https://doi.org/10.1093/pubmed/
- Leyton, M., Stewart, S. (Eds.), 2014. Substance Abuse in Canada: Childhood and Adolescent Pathways to Substance Use Disorders. Canadian Centre on Substance Abuse, Ottawa, ON Accessed July 2020Retrieved from: https://www.ccsa.ca/
- Mammen, G., Rueda, S., Roerecke, M., Bonato, S., Lev-Ran, S., Rehm, J., 2018. Association of cannabis with long-term clinical symptoms in anxiety and mood disorders: a systematic review of prospective studies. J. Clin. Psychiatry 79 (4). https://
- Mazur, J., Tabak, I., Dzielska, A., Waż, K., Oblacińska, A., 2016. The relationship between Mazur, J., Tabak, I., Dzielska, A., Waz, K., Oblacinska, A., 2016. The relationship between multiple substance use, perceived academic achievements, and selected socio-de-mographic factors in a polish adolescent sample. Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health 13 (12). https://doi.org/10.3390/jerphi3121264.1264.
 McHugh, R.K., Votaw, V.R., Sugarman, D.E., Greenfield, S.F., 2018. Sex and gender dif-ferences in substance use disorders. Clin. Psychol. Rev. 66, 12–23. https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.cep.2017.1001.
- McKay, J.R., 2017. Making the hard work of recovery more attractive for those with substance use disorders. Addiction. 112 (5), 751–757. https://doi.org/10.1111/a
- Merikangas, K.R., He, J., Burstein, M., Swendsen, J., Avenevoli, S., Case, B., Georgiades K., Heton, L., Swanson, S., Olfson, M., 2011. Service utilization for lifetime mental disorders in us adolescents: Results of the national comorbidity survey-adolescent supplement (NCS-A). J. Am. Acad. Child Adolesc. Psychiatry 50 (1), 32–45. https://
- Merrin, G.J., Thompson, K., Leadbeater, B.J., 2018. Transitions in the use of multiple substances from adolescence to young adulthood. Drug Alcohol Depend. 189, 147–153. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2018.05.015.
- Mitchell, C.M., Plunkett, M., 2000. The latent structure of substance use among ame indian adolescents: an example using categorical variables. Am. J. Community Psychol. 28 (1), 105-125. http
- Moitra, E., Anderson, B.J., Stein, M.D., 2016. Reductions in cannabis use are associated with mood improvement in female emerging adults. Depress. Anxiety 33 (4),

- 332–338. https://doi.org/10.1002/da.22460.
 Morean, M.E., Kong, G., Camenga, D.R., Cavallo, D.A., Simon, P., Krishnan-Sarin, S 2016. Latent class analysis of current e-cigarette and other substance use in high school students. Drug Alcohol Depend. 161, 292–297. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.
- Moss, H.B., Chen, C.M., Yi, H., 2014. Early adolescent patterns of alcohol, cigarettes, and marijuana polysubstance use and young adult substance use outcomes in a nationally representative sample. Drug Alcohol Depend. 136, 51–62. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.
- National Institute on Drug Abuse (NIDA), 2014. Principles of Adolescents Substance Use Disorder Treatment a Research-based Guide. Accessed July 2020Retrieved from https://www.drugabuse.gov/publications/principles-adolescent-substance-use-
- Nylund, K.L., Asparouhov, T., Muthén, B.O., 2007, Deciding on the number of classes in latent class analysis and growth mixture modeling: a mont Struct. Equ. Modeling 14 (4), 535–569. https://doi.org/10.
- Nylund-Gibson, K., Choi, A.Y., 2018. Ten frequently asked questions about latent class analysis, Transl, Issues Psychol, Sci. 4 (4), h
- O'Connor, E.A., Perdue, L.A., Senger, C.A., Sushkin, M., Patnode, C.D., Bean, S.I., Jonas, D.E., 2018. Screening and behavioral counseling interventions to reduce unhealthy alcohol use in adolescents and adults: updated evidence report and systematic review for the US preventive services task force. JAMA 320, 1910-1928. https://doi.org/10.
- Okumu, M., Ombayo, B.K., Small, E., Ansong, D., 2019. Psychosocial syndemics and sexual risk practices among u.S. Adolescents: findings from the 2017 U.S. Youth behavioral survey. Int. J. Behav. Med. 26 (3), 297–305. https://doi.org/10.1007
- Oshri, A., Tubman, J.G., Jaccard, J., 2011. Psychiatric symptom typology in a sample of youth receiving substance abuse treatment services: Associations with self-repchild maltreatment and sexual risk behaviors. AIDS Behav. 15 (8), 1844–1856.
- Pan, L., Brent, D.A., 2018. BMJ Best Practice: Depression in Children. Accessed July
- Park, S., Kim, J., 2018. Latent class analysis of substance use and predictors of latent class membership among adolescents in the republic of korea. J. Subst. Use 23 (1), 20–28. https://doi.org/10.1080/14659891.2017.1333162.
- https://doi.org/10.1080/14659891.2017.1333162.

 Parker, E.M., Bradshaw, C.P., 2015. Teen dating violence victimization and patterns of substance use among high school students. J. Adolesc. Health 57 (4), 441–447.
- Petersen, K.J., Qualter, P., Humphrey, M., 2019. The application of latent class analysis for investigating population child mental health: a systematic review. Front. Psychol.
- Picoito, J., Santos, C., Loureiro, I., Aguiar, P., Nunes, C., 2019. Gender-specific substance substances of substances use patterns and associations with individual, family, peer, and school factors in 15-year-old portuguese adolescents: a latent class regression analysis. Child Adolesc. Psychiatry Ment. Health 13 (1). https://doi.org/10.1186/s13034-019-0281-4.
- Pilatti, A., Godoy, J.C., Brussino, S.A., Pautassi, R.M., 2013. Patterns of substance use among argentinean adolescents and analysis of the effect of age at first alcohol use on substance use behaviors. Addict. Behav. 38 (12), 2847–2850. https://doi.org/10.
- Potter, C.C., Jenson, J.M., 2003. Cluster profiles of multiple problem youth: mental health (2), 230-250, https
- Ranney, M.L., Bromberg, J., Hozey, A., Casper, T.C., Mello, M.J., Spirito, A., Chun, T.H., Linakis, J.G., Pediatric Emergency Care Applied Research Network, 2018. Problem behaviors and psychological distress among teens seen in a national sample of emergency departments. Acad. Pediatr. 18 (6), 650-654. https://doi.org/10.1016/j
- Ray, J.V., Thornton, L.C., Frick, P.J., Steinberg, L., Cauffman, E., 2016. Impulse control and callous-unemotional traits distinguish patterns of delinquency and substance use in justice involved adolessents: Examining the moderating role of neighborhood context. J. Abnorm. Child Psychol. 44 (3), 599-611. https://doi.org/10.1007/
- Reavley, N.J., Cvetkovski, S., Jorm, A.F., Lubman, D.I., 2010. Help-seeking for substance use, anxiety and affective disorders among young people: results from the 2007 australian national survey of mental health and wellbeing. Aust. N. Z. J. Psychiatry
- use progression: a multivariate latent growth analysis. Psychol. Addict. Behav. 31 (6), 664-675. https://doi.org/10.1037/adb0000304 Richmond-Rakerd, L.S., Slutske, W.S., Wood, P.K., 2017, Age of initiation and substance
- Riehman, K.S., Stephens, R.L., Schurig, M.L., 2009. Substance use patterns and mental health diagnosis among youth in mental health treatment: a latent class analysis. J. Psychoactive Drugs 41 (4), 363-368. https://doi.org/10.1080/02
- Rivera, P.M., Bray, B.C., Guastaferro, K., Kugler, K., Noll, J.G., 2018. Linking patterns of substance use with sexual risk-taking among female adolescents with and without histories of maltreatment. J. Adolesc. Health 62 (5), 556-562. https://doi.org/10.
- 1016/j.jadohealth.2017.11.293.
 Rose, R.A., Evans, C.B.R., Smokowski, P.R., Howard, M.O., Stalker, K.L., 2018. Polysubstance use among adolescents in a low income, rural community: latent classes for middle-and high-school students. J. Rural Health 34 (3), 227–235. https:
- Sacks, S., Ries, R.K., Ziedonis, D.M., Center for Subsatnce Abuse Treatment, 2005. Substance Abuse Treatment for Persons With Co-occurring Disorders. Psychiatry

J. Halladay, et al.

Drug and Alcohol Dependence 216 (2020) 108222

- Publications. Accessed September 2019Retrieved from. https://escholarship.
- Salas-Wright, C.P., Vaughn, M.G., Ugalde, J., 2016. A typology of substance use among pregnant teens in the united states. Maternal Child Health J. 20 (3), 646–654. doi.org/10.1007/s10995-015-1864-1.
- SAMHSA, 2002. Report to Congress on the Prevention and Treatment of Co-occurring Substance Abuse Disorders and Mental Disorders. Accessed July 2020. https://homelesshub.ca/resource/samhsa-report-congress-prevention-and-treatment-co-
- Schmiege, S.J., Bryan, A.D., 2016. Heterogeneity in the relationship of substance use to risky sexual behavior among justice-involved youth: a regression mixture mod approach. AIDS Behav. 20 (4), 821–832. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10461-015-
- Schreiber, J.B., 2017. Latent class analysis: an example for reporting results. Res. Social Adm. Pharm. 13 (6), 1196-1201. h
- Schulenberg, J.E., Johnston, L.D., O'Malley, P.M., Bachman, J.G., Miech, R.A., Patrick, M.E., 2018. Monitoring the Future National Survey Results on Drug Use, 1975–2017: Volume II, College Students and Adults Ages 19–55. Retreived from: Ann Arbor. Institute for Social Research, The University of Michigan. https://files.eric.ed.gov/
- Shin, S.H., Hong, H.G., Hazen, A.L., 2010. Childhood sexual abuse and adolescent substance use: a latent class analysis. Drug Alcohol Depend. 109 (1–3), 226–235. https://
- Shook, J.J., Vaughn, M.G., Salas-Wright, C.P., 2013. Exploring the variation in drug selling among adolescents in the united states. J. Crim. Justice 41 (6), 365–374.
- https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2013.07.008.
 Silveira, M.L., Green, V.R., lannaccone, R., Kimmel, H.L., Conway, K.P., 2019. Patterns and correlates of polysubstance use among us youth aged 15–17 years: wave 1 of the population assessment of tobacco and health (PATH) study. Addiction. 114 (5),
- 907–916. https://doi.org/10.1111/add.14547.

 Snyder, S.M., Gwaltney, A.Y., Landeck, E., 2015. What social bonds have the greatest influence on patterns of substance use among child-welfare-involved youth? J. Psychoactive Drugs 47 (4), 308–316. https://doi.org/10.1080/02791072.2015.
- ...у, ымын, к.С., 2018. Latent classes of substance use among american indian and white students living on or near reservations, 2009-2013. Public Health Rep. 133 (4), 432-441. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033354918772053 Stanley, L.R., Swaim, R.C., 2018. Latent classes of substance use among american indian Su, J., Supple, A.J., Kuo, S.I., 2018. The role of individual and contextual factors in dif-
- ferentiating substance use profiles among adolescents. Subst. Use Misuse 53 (5), 734–743. https://doi.org/10.1080/10826084.2017.1363237.
- Sullivan, C.J., Childs, K.K., O'Connell, D., 2010. Adolescent risk behavior subgroups: an empirical assessment. J. Youth Adolesc. 39 (5), 541–562. https://doi.org/10.1007/
- Swinson, R.P., 2017. BMJ Best Practice Guideline: Generalized Anxiety Disorder. Accessed July 2020Retrieved from. https://
- Tomczyk, S., Hanewinkel, R., Isensee, B., 2015. Multiple substance use patterns in adolescents—a multilevel latent class analysis. Drug Alcohol Depend. 155, 208–214.

- https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2015.07.016.
 Tomczyk, S., Isensee, B., Hanewinkel, R., 2016. Latent classes of polysubstance use among adolescents-a systematic review. Drug Alcohol Depend. 160, 12–29. https://doi.org/
- Towns, S., DiFranza, J.R., Jaysauriya, G., Marshall, T., Shah, S., 2017. Smoking cessation in adolescents: targeted approaches that work. Paediatr. Respir. Rev. 22, 11–22. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.prrv.2015.06.001.
 Valente, J.Y., Cogo-Moreira, H., Sanchez, Z.M., 2017. Gradient of association between parenting styles and patterns of drug use in adolescence: a latent class analysis. Drug
- Alcohol Depend. 180, 272–278. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep_2017.08.015. van de Schoot, R., Sijbrandij, M., Winter, S.D., Depaoli, S., Vermunt, J.K., 2017v. The GRoLTS- checklist: guidelines for reporting on latent trajectory studies. Struct. Equ. Modeling 24 (3), 451–467. https://doi.org/10.1080/10705511.2016.1247646. van Smeden, M., Naaktgeboren, C.A., Reitsma, J.B., Moons, K.G., de Groot, J.A., 2014v.
- Latent class models in diagnostic studies when there is no reference standard-a systematic review. Am. J. Epidemiol. 179 (4), 423-431. https://doi.org/10.1093/
- Vanyukov, M.M., Tarter, R.E., Kirillova, G.P., Kirisci, L., Reynolds, M.D., Kreek, M.J., Neale, M.C., 2012. Common liability to addiction and "gateway hypothesis": there retical, empirical and evolutionary perspective. Drug Alcohol Depend. 123, S3-S17.
- Vaughn, M.G., Fu, G., Perron, B.E., Wu, L.T., 2012. Risk profiles among adolescent nonmedical opioid users in the United States. Addict. Behav. 37 (8), 974–977.
- Von Elm, E., Altman, D.G., Egger, M., Pocock, S.J., Gøtzsche, P.C., Vandenbroucke, J.P. STROBE Initiative, 2014. The strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology (STROBE) statement: guidelines for reporting observational studies. Int. J. Surg. 147 (8), 573–577. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijsu.2014.07.013. Weden, M.M., Zabin, L.S., 2005. Gender and ethnic differences in the co-occurrence of
- adolescent risk behaviors. Ethn. Health 10 (3), 213-234. htt
- White, A., Chan, G.C., Quek, L.H., Connor, J.P., Saunders, J.B., Baker, P., Brackenridge, C., Kelly, A.B., 2013. The topography of multiple drug use among adolescent australians: findings from the national drug strategy household survey. Addict. Behav. 38 (4), 2068-2073, http
- Winstanley, E.L., Steinwachs, D.M., Stitzer, M.L., Fishman, M.J., 2012. Adolescent su stance abuse and mental health: problem co-occurrence and access to services. J. Child Adolesc. Subst. Abuse 21 (4), 310–322. https://doi.org/10.1080/10678283
- Yurasek, A.M., Aston, E.R., Metrik, J., 2017. Co-use of alcohol and cannabis: a review.
- Curr. Addict. Rep. 4 (2), 184–193. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40429-017-0149-8.

 Zapert, K., Snow, D.L., Tebes, J.K., 2002. Patterns of substance use in early through late adolescence. Am. J. Community Psychol. 30 (6), 835–852. https://doi.org/10.1023/
- Zweig, J.M., Lindberg, L.D., McGinley, K.A., 2001. Adolescent health risk profiles: the co-occurrence of health risks among females and males. J. Youth Adolesc. 30 (6), 707–728. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1012281628792.

Chapter 2: Select Supplementary Materials

All supplementary files available here: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2020.108222

Supplemental Materials File 1

1. PRISMA Checklist

doi:10.1371/journal.pmed1000097

2. Search Strategy

STEP 1. Database search strategy

(1) Met with McMaster Health Sciences librarian to review search strategy and refine. (2) Reviewed with Dr. Kathy Georgiades. (3) Reviewed with colleagues in HEI. (4) Reviewed key terms in target studies and search terms in related systematic reviews

Mapped in EMBASE		
EXPOSURE , and	METHOD, and	POPULATION
Cannabis addiction/	Exp latent class analysis/ (also	Young adult.mp
"Cannabis use"	captures latent structure analysis)	Exp young adult/
Cannabis/	Cluster analysis/	Emerging adult.mp
Cannabis smoking/	Latent profile analysis.mp	Exp juvenile/
Cannabis*	Latent cluster*.mp	Youth.mp
Exp drug abuse/	Cluster analysis.mp	Adolescen*.mp
Exp drug abuse pattern/	Latent class analysis.mp	Exp student/
Exp alcoholism/	Profile analysis.mp.	Student.mp
Exp alcohol abuse/	LCA.mp	Teen*.mp
Exp alcohol	LPA.mp	ANY OF THE ABOVE
consumption/	Mixture model*.mp	
Alcohol.mp	factor analysis/	
Binge drinking.mp	factor analysis.mp	
Illicit drug*.mp	FMM.mp	
Substance abuse.mp	Factor mixture*.mp	
ANY OF THE ABOVE	group-based trajectory	
	model*.mp	
	group-based model*.mp	
	trajectory model*.mp	
	group membership.mp	
	discriminant function analysis.mp	
	ANY OF THE ABOVE	

STEP 2a. Title & Abstract Screening

Criteria 1. Population: Is the sample or population youth (i.e., elementary, high school, post-secondary age)? Exclude: mean age <11 or >25; lower limit of age range below 6 and upper limit above 30.

Decision: If clear yes or unsure, go to exposure. If clear no, exclude.

Criteria 2. Exposure: Is there some mention of more than one type of substance use? i.e., ever/never use, frequency of use, or patterns of use of multiple substances.

Decision: If clear yes or unsure, go to method. If clear no, exclude.

Criteria 3. Method: 1) Is the study identifying groups/patterns/clusters/profiles or make reference to any of the following methods: cluster analysis, latent class analysis (e.g., LCA), profile analysis (e.g., LPA), mixture modeling (e.g., FMM), factor analysis, group-based trajectory modeling, discriminant function analysis; and 2) use of more than one substance appears in more than one cluster/grouping.

Notes: 1) These methods must be used for the purpose of identifying patterns of substance use (i.e., frequency, ever/never). Substance use must be an indictor variable – not the external/auxiliary variable. Patterns of "Healthy behaviours" or "risky behaviours" that include substance use are to be included. 2) Be cautious as "cluster" sometimes refers to sampling methods not the analysis.

Exclude:

- Measures of substance use such as motives or expectancies or other substancerelated variables besides frequency/ever-never use.
- Studies performing psychometric testing of measures or questionnaires.
- Studies only using regression.

Decision: If clear yes or unsure, include for full text screening. If clear no, exclude.

STEP 25. Full Text Screening	gu			
Is the population only	Was more than one substance use variable used	Did they do a	Please specify the type of analysis. Reason for exclusion	Reason for exclusion
adolescents?	as <u>indicator variables?</u>	cluster/grouping based analysis?		
07	-	-		
I = Y es < 18 or high	1=yes	I=yes	This will mainly include any of the	l=emerging
school. Youngest age	2=only 1 substance	0=no	following methods:	adult/university
2-11 of grade 0.	O-IIO.	NOTE:	The Classic analysis	Student
$2 \equiv 10$, emerging adults	CIT CIN	NOIE:	• Latent Class analysis (e.g. LCA)	2=included adults
>18 or postsecondary	NOTE	I. Regressions	 Profile analysis (e.g. LPA) 	3=no substance use
3=No, a combination of	a. The cluster analysis must be used for the purpose	/correlations are		indicators
adolescents and	of identifying patterns of substance use (i.e.	excluded	This might (but rarely) include:	4=only 1 substance
emerging adults	frequency, ever/never, substance use disorder).	2. Be cautious as	 Mixture Modeling (usually this 	use indicator or
0=No, all adults	Substance use must be an <i>indictor</i> variable – not the	"cluster" sometimes	type of model only uses one type of	aggregate score
	external/auxiliary variable.	refers to sampling	indicator variable - i.e. an aggregate	5=not a cluster-based
	b. in some instances, more than one substance is	methods not the	substance use score or a single type	analysis
	measured but they then combine all the substance	analysis.	of substance)	6=other, please
	use measures together into a summative or		 Factor analysis (usually this type 	specify
	aggregated global or overall substance use variable.		of model refers to clustering of	
	Although they technically measured multiple		variable or items for a test of	
	substances, they included substance use in the		psychometric properties and we are	
	model as a single variable. This type of analysis		interested in clustering of people).	
	would merit exclusion (coding 2)		 Group-based trajectory modeling 	
	c. in some instances, they have measured multiple		(usually this type of model only	
	substances but in separate models. This is most		uses one type of indicator variable -	
	common in the longitudinal studies (i.e. growth		i.e. an aggregate substance use	
	models, trajectory models). In this case, although		score or a single type of substance)	
	they measured two separate substances, they did not		• Discriminant function analysis	
	do so in the same model. I herefore, this type of		Or other, and specify.	
	analysis would inclib eachasion (coung 2)			
	Exclude:			
	 Including only measures of substance use such as 			
	motives or expectancies or other substance-related			
	variables besides frequency/ever-never use/disorder.			
	 Studies only looking at patterns of use of one 			
	substance.			
	 Studies only using regression. 			

3. Non-English Studies

- Laaser, U., & Allhoff, P. (1982). [Prevention during adolescence: cardiovascular risk profile in juveniles of Cologne]. Monatsschrift Kinderheilkunde. Organ der Deutschen Gesellschaft für Kinderheilkunde, 130(10), 760-766.
- Reis, O., Fegert, J. M., & Hassler, F. (2006). Patterns of multiple substance use among adolescents in low-threshold care. [German]. [Muster polyvalenten drogengebrauchs bei niedrigschwellig betreuten jugendlichen.]. Sucht, 52(5), 305-316.
- Selecka, L., Vaclavikova, I., Blatny, M., & Hrdlicka, M. (2017). Typology of antisocial behaviour: Specific manifestations of adolescent boys and girls in the relation to risky sexual behaviour. Ceska a Slovenska Psychiatrie, 113(6), 258-267.

4. Data Extraction Content

Study and Sample Characteristics

First author name, year of publication, Country, type of study (1=longitudinal comparisons made, 2=cross-sectional, 3=longitudinal study but analysis from only 1 cross-sectional wave; 4=other (specify)), year data was collected, population setting (1=school, 2=general community, 3=street youth, 4=youth in primary care (specify), 5= youth in mental health or substance use care (specify), 6=other (please specify)), specifics including title/name of study data comes from, type of sampling (1=random, 2=all youths available in setting of interest during recruitment, 3=volunteer, 4=other please specify), target sample size/sample size included/response rate, mean age with minimum and maximum, if parental consent was required, inclusion and exclusion criteria (other than consent or general sampling frame), % males, racial profile (specifics for race/ethnicity >=20% of the sample), any other comments.

Analysis Details

Type of cluster analysis, specifics (i.e. multilevel, covariances, standardization, centering, stratification, equivalency tests, inclusion of covariates, missing data strategies), statistics and theoretical model fit indices, substance use indicator variables

including alcohol, tobacco/nicotine, cannabis, prescription drug misuse, other illicit drug use (all included presence/absence, type of use, coding in analysis, time period for reporting, and measurement tool specifics), mental health indicator variables including internalizing, externalizing, and combined concerns (all of which included presence/absence and how they were measured), list of any other indicator variables, list of covariates.

Results

- Clusters: Subgroups (if results stratified), # of clusters/profiles, name of clusters, n of clusters and % of total sample, brief description re: indicator variables only.
 Note: If there were more than 8 clusters, specifics were not extracted.
- Comparisons: Specific to sex/gender, age, race/ethnicity, SES, other demographic characteristics (all measured yes/no, significant differences yes/no, specifics). Specific to mental health concerns including internalizing mental health concerns, externalizing mental health concerns, combined (all: measured yes/no, how was it measured, significant differences yes/no, specific findings). Specific to service use (measured yes/no, how were they measured, and findings). A list of other outcomes/comparisons and general overview.

Risk of Bias

<u>RISK OF BIAS #1A</u>: Is the source population (sampling frame) representative of the general population? Answer options:

- Low risk of bias (definitely yes): selection of the target population is from a representative population roster such as a registry or random sampling of students within school's representative of the population.
- Intermediate risk of bias (probably yes/ probably no): exclusions limiting representativeness, lack of reporting of sampling frame, limited geographical spread.
- High risk of bias (definitely no): self-selection, convenience sampling, very limited geographical spread, studies where the source population cannot be defined.

RISK OF BIAS #1B: What is your rationale/reason for your judgment?

RISK OF BIAS #2: Is the assessment of the substance use accurate? Answer options:

- Low risk of bias (definitely yes): biological measure (e.g., urinalysis), Timeline Follow-back, Diagnostic Interview
- Intermediate risk of bias (probably yes/ probably no): structured validated item(s)
- High risk of bias (definitely no): single non-validated item or no details

RISK OF BIAS #2B: What is your rationale/reason for your judgment?

<u>IF APPLICABLE - RISK OF BIAS #3A:</u> Is the assessment of the mental health accurate? Answer options:

- Low risk of Bias (definitely yes): structured interview or administrative data diagnosis
- Intermediate risk of bias (probably yes): structured validated scale
- Intermediate risk of bias (probably no): structured validated single item
- High risk of bias (definitely no): self-reported non-validated item or no details.

More details: https://www.evidencepartners.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/09/Tool-to-Assess-Risk-of-Bias-Longitudinal-Symptom-Research-Studies-Aimed-at-the-General-Population.pdf

RISK OF BIAS #3B: What is your rationale/reason for your judgment?

Conclusions

General study conclusions.

5. Risk of Bias (RoB) of Individual Studies

RoB tools for cross-sectional designs created by the CLARITY group at McMaster University and endorsed by Evidence Partners were used and adapted to assess RoB (CLARITY Group at McMaster University, 2019). Domains included: (a) representativeness of the source population; (b) adequacy of response rate (>60%); (c) amount of missing data (<=20%); (4) reliability and validity of measurement tools. For the assessment of substance use, Time-Line Follow-Back [TLFB] (Robinson, Sobell, Sobell, & Leo, 2014) or structured, diagnostic interviews were judged as lowest RoB and items based on measures from large epidemiological studies that have undergone cognitive and psychometric testing were judged as intermediate RoB (Brener, Collins, Kann, Warren, & Williams, 1995; Currie et al., 2010; Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, 2010). For the assessment of mental health symptoms, structured, diagnostic interviews were judged as lowest RoB, while pre-validated clinical questionnaires were judged as intermediate RoB and single item questions with no psychometric evaluation were judged as high RoB (CLARITY Group at McMaster University, 2019).

 $Ph.D.\ Thesis-J.\ Halladay;\ McMaster\ University-Health\ Research\ Methodology$

Mental Health Measure RoB	Н	I	N/A	I	N/A	N/A	I	Г	N/A	I	Н	N/A	N/A	I	N/A	Н	I	I	I	Н	Ι	Н	N/A	I	N/A
Substance Use Measure RoB	I	I	I	I	I	П	I	Г	I	П	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I
Missingness RoB	<20	<20	NR	NR	<20	<20	<20	<20	<20	<20	<20	<20	<20	<20	<20	<20	<20	<20	<20	<20	<20	<20	<20	<20	NR
Response Rate RoB	09<	09<	09<	09<	09<	09<	09<	09<	09<	09<	09<	NR	09<	09<	09<	09<	09<	09<	09<	09<	09<	09<	09<	09<	NR
Sampling RoB	Г	Г	Г	Г	Г	Г	L	L	Г	L	Г	I (prob yes)	Г	Г	Г	Г	Т	Г	Г	Г	Г	Г	I (prob yes)	I (prob yes)	Г
General or Targeted Population	General	General	General	General	General	General	General	General	General	General	General	Targeted	General	General	Targeted										
Nat/State/City	National	National	National	National	National	National	National	National	National	National	National	National	National	National	National	National	National	National	National	National	National	National	National	National	National
year	2018	2005	2009	2012	2019	2018	2007	2019	2011	2004	2018	2019	2014	2016	2016	2019	2018	2019	2019	2005	2013	2001	2016	2017	2015
First author last name	Assanangkornchai	Bartlett	Connell	Conway	Coulter	Dermody	Dierker	Essau	Finch	Hallfors	Jordao	Karlsson	Lamont	Lazzeri	Mazur	Okumu	Park	Picoito	Silveira	Weden	White	Zweig	Baggio	Childs	Charak

Ph.D. Thesis – J. Halladay; McMaster University – Health Research Methodology

I	L	N/A	Н	I	N/A	Ι	Н	N/A	N/A	I	Н	N/A	N/A	N/A	I	I	N/A	N/A	I	N/A	N/A	Г	N/A	I	I	N/A
Ι	Ι	I	I	I	Ι	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	Ι	Ι	I	I	I	I	Ι	L	I	I	I	I
NR	NR	NR	NR	<20	NR	NR	NR	NR	<20	<20	<20	>=20	<20	NR	NR	NR	<20	<20	NR	<20	<20	<20	>=20%	<20	<20	NR
09<	NR	NR	09<	09<	09<	NR	09<	09>	09<	09<	09<	09>	NR	09<	NR	09<	09<	09<	09<	09<	>60 student, <60 school	NR	09<	09<	09<	09<
Г	Г	Г	Г	Г	Г	I (prob yes)	Г	Т	Г	Г	Г	Т	I (prob yes)	I (prob no)	I (prob no)	I (prob no)	I (prob no)	Н	Т	I (prob no)	I (prob no)	Н	I (prob no)	I (prob no)	I (prob no)	Н
Targeted	Targeted	Targeted	Targeted	Targeted	Targeted	Targeted	Targeted	General	General	General	General	General	General	General	General	General	General	General	Targeted	Targeted	General	Targeted	General	General	General	General
National	National	National	National	National	National	National	National	State	State	State	State	State	State	State	State	State	State	State	State	State	State	State	City	City	City	City
2015	2009	2016	2013	2015	2018	2018	2012	2010	2014	2015	2010	2015	2015	2018	2010	2013	2018	2016	2015	2000	2019	2018	2011	2013	2002	2019
Chen	Riehman	Salas Wright	Shook	Snyder	Stanley	Ranney	Vaughn	Cleveland	Gilreath	Kelly	Sullivan	Tomczyk	Parker	Choi	Connell	Cranford	Espelage	Morean	Ray	Mitchell	Delk	Davila	Fraga	Green	Kemppainen	Kliewer

N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Ι	I	N/A	N/A	I	I	I	I	Т	I	N/A	I	I	N/A	Ī
Ι	I	I	I	Ι	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	Т	I	I	I	I	I	nted
<20	NR	>=20	<20	<20	<20	>=20	NR	<20	<20	<20	<20	<20	<20	NR	NR NR	NR	<20	hias NR=not reno
09<	09<	09<	09<	09<	NR	09<	NR	09<	09<	>60	NR	NR	>60	NR	NR	NR	09<	H=high rish of
I (prob no)	I (prob no)	I (prob no)	I (prob no)	Н	Н	Н	Н	I (prob no)	Н	on videdora bae se								
General	General	General	General	General	General	General	General	Targeted	Targeted	General	Targeted	Targeted	Targeted	Targeted	Targeted	Targeted	Targeted	t into neohably y
City	City	City	City	City	City	City	City	City	City	City	City	City	City	City	City	City	City	ilus) seid bo d'sia ete
2018	2017	2017	2002	2009	1996	1991	2013	2014	2013	2016	2011	2011	2003	2018	2016	2010	2018	ine I=Intermedia
Merrin	nS	Valente	Zapert	Ansary	Chung	Graham	Pilatti	Bohnert	Chung	Dermody	Hedden	Oshri	Potter	Rivera	Schmiege	Shin	Rose	Where I =low rick of hise I=Intermediate rick of hise (calif into makehly vec and archably no). H=high rick of hise NR=not renorted

6. Summary of Indicator Characteristics

Population 47 25 10 47 13 18	Population	69 67 31 15
47 25 10 47 13 18	20 6 5	67 31 15
25 10 47 13 18	6 5 22 2	31 15
25 10 47 13 18	6 5 22 2	31 15
10 47 13 18	5 22 2	15
47 13 18	22 2	
13 18	2	69
13 18	2	
18		15
	7	
	7	25
4	0	0;4
		34
		34
		37
		10;6
44	13	57
48	14	62
7	1	8
10	0	10
6	0	6
7	1	8
50	12	62
11	1	12
16	3	19
1	0	0;1
18	5	23
		27
		38
		9
		2
		55
35	20	55
†		6
1		
18	18	36
		9
		14
		0;2
	7 10 6 7 50 11 16	20 14 35 2 11 5 44 13 48 14 7 1 10 0 6 0 7 1 50 12 11 1 16 3 1 0 18 5 21 6 35 3 7 2 2 0 34 21 35 20 1 5 18 18 6 3 10 4

Timeline of Recall			
Lifetime	11	8	19
Past year	9	11	20
Past month	20	2	22
Other	0	4	4
Not reported	2	0	2
Prescription Drug Use	12	8	20
Measurement			
Combined prescription drugs	11	6	17
Separate prescription drugs	2	2	4
Coding in Analysis			
Dichotomous	13	7	20
Continuous	0	1	1
Timeline of Recall			
Lifetime	5	4	9
Past year	7	2	9
Other	1	2	3
Other Illegal Drug Use	23	19	42
Measurement			
Individual drug	4	2	6
Combined "all other drugs"	16	9	25
Combined separate drugs	5	11	16
Coding in Analysis			
Dichotomous	18	17	35
Continuous	4	4	8
Categorical	2	1	3
Not reported	1	0	1
Timeline of Recall			
Lifetime	11	8	19
Past year	10	9	19
Past month	2	3	5
Other	1	3	4
Not reported	1	0	1
Mental Health	13	7	20
Measurement			
Any internalizing mental health problems	3	1	4
Any externalizing mental health problems	11	7	18
Any suicide-related indicator	3	1	4
Any general psychological distress	2	1	3
Other (e.g., eating disorders)	1	0	1
Other	14	5	19
Sexual behaviours	7	2	9
Health-related behaviours	2	0	2
Drug-related behaviours	3	2	5
Combined other behaviours	2	1	3

7. Summary of Studies with Mental Health Patterns

Quadrant 3: High Substance Use, Low Mental Health

- 1. Ansary (2009) doi:10.1017/s0954579409000182
- 2. Lazzeri (2016) doi:10.1093/pubmed/fdw134
- 3. Okumu (2019) doi:10.1007/s12529-019-09783-6
- 4. Shook (2013) doi:10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2013.07.008
- 5. Vaughn (2012) doi:10.1016/j.addbeh.2012.03.015

Quadrant 4: High Substance Use, High Mental Health

- 1. Ansary (2009) doi:10.1017/s0954579409000182
- 2. Bartlett (2005) doi:10.1002/nur.20078
- 3. Childs (2017) doi: 10.1177/0306624X15599401
- 4. Chung (1996) https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02511034
- 5. Green (2013) https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2013. 02.023
- 6. Lazzeri (2016) doi:10.1093/pubmed/fdw134
- 7. Sullivan (2010) doi: 10.1007/s10964-009-9445-5
- 8. Zweig (2001) https://doi.org/10.1023/A:101228162879 2
- 9. Assanangkornchai (2018) doi:10.1186/s12889-018-6205-z
- 10. Essau (2019) doi:10.1016/j.psychres.2019.06.007
- 11. Weden (2005) https://doi.org/10.1080/13557850500115 744
- 12. Hedden (2010) https://doi.org/10.1080/1067828X.2011.5 34358
- 13. Oshri (2011) doi: 10.1007/s10461-011-9890-5
- 14. Potter (2003) https://doi.org/10.1177/00938548022510 07
- 15. Ranney (2018) doi:10.1016/j.acap.2018.02.016
- 16. Shook (2013) doi:10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2013.07.008
- 17. Vaughn (2012) doi:10.1016/j.addbeh.2012.03.015
- 18. Davila (2019) https://doi.org/10.1007/s10560-019-00637-4

Quadrant 1: Low Substance Use, Low Mental Health

- 1. Ansary (2009) doi:10.1017/s0954579409000182
- 2. Bartlett (2005) doi:10.1002/nur.20078
- 3. Childs (2017) doi: 10.1177/0306624X15599401
- 4. Chung (1996) https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02511034
- 5. Green (2013) https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2013. 02.023
- 6. Lazzeri (2016) doi:10.1093/pubmed/fdw134
- 7. Sullivan (2010) doi: 10.1007/s10964-009-9445-5
- 8. Zweig (2001) https://doi.org/10.1023/A:101228162879 2
- 9. Assanangkornchai (2018) doi:10.1186/s12889-018-6205-z
- 10. Weden (2005) https://doi.org/10.1080/13557850500115 744
- 11. Essau (2019) doi:10.1016/j.psychres.2019.06.007
- 12. Okumu (2019) doi:10.1007/s12529-019-09783-6
- 13. Hedden (2010) https://doi.org/10.1080/1067828X.2011.5 34358
- 14. Oshri (2011) doi: 10.1007/s10461-011-9890-5
- 15. Potter (2003) https://doi.org/10.1177/00938548022510 07
- 16. Ranney (2018) doi:10.1016/j.acap.2018.02.016
- 17. Shook (2013) doi:10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2013.07.008
- 18. Vaughn (2012) doi:10.1016/j.addbeh.2012.03.015
- 19. Davila (2019) https://doi.org/10.1007/s10560-019-00637-4

Quadrant 2: Low Substance Use, High Mental Health

- 1. Ansary (2009) doi:10.1017/s0954579409000182
- 2. Essau (2019) doi:10.1016/j.psychres.2019.06.007
- 3. Green (2013) https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2013. 02.023
- 4. Lazzeri (2016) doi:10.1093/pubmed/fdw134
- 5. Vaughn (2012) doi:10.1016/j.addbeh.2012.03.015
- 6. Weden (2005) https://doi.org/10.1080/13557850500115 744
- 7. Zweig (2001; female) https://doi.org/10.1023/A:101228162879

Relative (High mental health, Moderate substance)

- 8. Childs (2017; Black youth) doi: 10.1177/0306624X15599401
- 9. Okumu (2019) doi:10.1007/s12529-019-09783-6
- 10. Oshri (2011) doi: 10.1007/s10461-011-9890-5
- 11. Davila (2019) https://doi.org/10.1007/s10560-019-00637-4

8. Predictors of Substance Use Patterns

	Sex/gender	Age	Race/ethnicity	SES
# studies that made comparisons (% of total)	60 (86%)	50 (71%)	37 (53%)	23 (33%)
# found significant differences (% of those that compared)	45 (75%)	44 (88%)	34 (92%)	15 (65%)

	Any Mental	Internalizing	Externalizing	Help
	Health	problems	Problems	Seeking
# studies that made	26 (37%)	24 (34%)	15 (21%)	1 (1%)
comparisons (% of total)	20 (3770)	24 (3470)	13 (2170)	1 (170)
# found significant				
differences (% of those	25 (96%)	20 (83%)	14 (93%)	1 (100%)
that compared)				

Chapter 3: Patterns of Student Substance Use and Mental Health Symptoms: A Multilevel Latent Profile Analysis

Halladay, J., MacKillop, J., Munn, C., Amlung, M., Georgiades, K. Patterns of student substance use and mental health symptoms: A multilevel latent profile analysis. (*Under Review at Drug and Alcohol Dependence*)

Highlights

- 5 substance use and mental health symptom profiles were identified among adolescents reflecting comorbidity
- 3 types of schools were found, including schools with low, moderate, and high levels of adolescent substance use and comorbidity with disproportionate representation of rural schools in higher risk types
- School climate, belonging, and safety appeared protective
- Substance use and mental health concerns should be considered concurrently
- Schools are important contexts for addressing student substance use and comorbid mental health symptoms

Copyright Information. If accepted in this journal, the following manuscript is allowed to be reprinted in whole to include in theses. Verbatim from the Journal Author Rights page, "Please note that, as the author of this Elsevier article, you retain the right to include it in a thesis or dissertation, provided it is not published commercially.

Permission is not required, but please ensure that you reference the journal as the original source. For more information on this and on your other retained rights, please visit: https://www.elsevier.com/about/our-business/policies/copyright#Author-rights" The following manuscript is a submitted (preprint) version of the article, that has not yet been peer-reviewed.

Abstract

Background: While substance use and mental health symptoms commonly co-occur among adolescents, few population-level studies have examined profiles of co-occurrence to inform tailored prevention and early intervention efforts.

Methods: A multilevel latent profile analysis was conducted on a representative sample of 11,994 students in 68 secondary schools to: 1) identify distinct profiles of co-occurring substance use and mental health symptoms; 2) identify types of schools based on student substance use and mental health patterns; and 3) explore school correlates of student profiles and school types, including school climate, belonging, and safety.

Results: Five student profiles and three school types were identified. Among students, 57.6% were in a low substance use and mental health profile, 22.5% were in a high mental health but low substance use profile, 9.7% were in a heavy drinking and cannabis profile, 3.7% were in a heavy drinking and smoking profile, and 6.5% were in a high substance use and mental health profile. Positive school climate, belonging, and safety increased the odds of students being in the low profile, with belonging yielding larger effects among females. Among schools, 28% had low, 57% had moderate, and 15% had high levels of student substance use and comorbid mental health symptoms. Rural schools were disproportionately represented in higher risk school types.

Conclusions: The identified student substance use and mental health symptom profiles can serve as targets for tailored prevention and early interventions. Results support examining school-based interventions targeting school climate, belonging, and safety with potential benefits to both substance use and mental health.

Background

Substance use and mental health concerns are the leading cause of morbidity worldwide (World Health Organization, 2018), with half of lifetime mental disorders beginning during adolescence (Solmi et al., 2021). Substance use is a particular concern in adolescence due to its' impact on neurodevelopment (Casey et al., 2008), making any substance use during this time important to understand and address, even when not at the level of a substance use disorder.

Adolescents often use more than one substance, making it important to consider patterns of use (Halladay et al., 2020). To characterize these patterns, cluster-based analyses, such as latent profile analysis (LPA), can be used to identify distinct subpopulations based on unique patterns of substance use. A recent review of a large number of cluster-based studies on adolescent substance use (Halladay et al., 2020) found common patterns including: 1) low or no use; 2) single or dual substance use, such as alcohol only, cannabis and alcohol, and tobacco with or without alcohol; 3) moderate multiple use; and 4) high multiple use. When mental health symptoms were included as correlates (37% of studies), almost all studies found significant associations between higher substance use and poorer mental health. When mental health was incorporated directly into the cluster models (29% of studies), distinct profiles of adolescent substance use with and without comorbidity emerged, mapping on to the four-quadrant model of concurrent disorders (i.e., low in both substance use and mental health concerns, high in one domain but not the other, high in both). However, few studies incorporated mental health symptoms, and indicators were often limited to one type of mental health problem (e.g., a single item regarding behavioural problems).

Differentiating and characterizing adolescents with and without co-occurring substance use and mental health concerns will assist in selecting and creating tailored and integrated prevention and early intervention programs. Prior research has shown that adolescent substance use differs by age, sex, and gender (Boak, 2020); race, ethnicity, and immigrant status (Hamilton et al., 2018; Keyes et al., 2015); and indicators of socioeconomic disadvantage including family socioeconomic status (Lee et al., 2018) and

family structure (Hoffmann, 2017). Adolescent mental health symptoms are also known to differ across these demographic characteristics (Georgiades et al., 2019). For example, patterns often differ by gender whereby, most consistently, females are more likely to be in low substance use profiles and experience more emotional symptoms (Halladay et al., 2020). Also, females who use substances may progress to higher risk use and experience more co-occurring problems from use such as depression, anxiety, and distress (Halladay et al., 2019; McHugh et al., 2018). Sex is a biologically driven variable, impacting the neurobiological and physiological effects of substances, while gender is a sociocultural variable, impacting the context and reasons for substance use and related consequences (Greaves & Hemsing, 2020). To date, most research has not distinguished between sex and gender, typically providing binary response options, limiting our ability to understand the causal mechanisms for differences observed.

School Effects

Substance use is heavily influenced by social environments and peer networks (Henneberger et al., 2021), including schools. Up to 20% of the variability in adolescent substance use may be attributed to between-school differences (Hale et al., 2014; Shackleton et al., 2016). A school's social environment is often considered along a number of dimensions that are malleable to targeted interventions, including: 1) *school climate*, often defined by community and interpersonal relationships, fairness and clarity of rules, and academic support and values; 2) *school belonging*, defined by how connected students feel to their school; and 3) *school safety*, including how safe students feel at and around school (Aldridge & McChesney, 2018; Daily et al., 2020; Marraccini et al., 2020). These dimensions of a school's social environment, and interventions designed to improve them, have been associated with higher levels of student wellbeing, and lower mental health problems and substance use (Daily et al., 2020; Durlak et al., 2011; Faggiano et al., 2014; Faulkner et al., 2009; Fletcher et al., 2008; Ford et al., 2021; Taylor et al., 2017; Thapa et al., 2013).

Multilevel LPA (MLPA) models can account for and identify variability in student profiles between schools; answering the question, do student profiles vary significantly across schools? (i.e., parametric MLPA (Henry & Muthén, 2010)). MLPA can also be employed to identify school-level classes that reflect qualitatively different environments relative to the frequency and distribution of student profiles within schools; answering the question, can school types be classified based on the proportions of students in various profiles within schools? (i.e., nonparametric MLPA (Henry & Muthén, 2010)). Two studies have recently applied multilevel latent class analysis (MLCA) to examine both student-level patterns of alcohol use and school-level classes, without considering mental health symptoms (Gohari et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2021). Two types of schools were found, characterized by low or high student alcohol use. They examined contextual correlates of these classes, namely alcohol outlet density and median family income, though neither found significant associations. The authors indicated a paucity of related literature and given the known importance of school context and identification of unique school classes, the need for further exploration of other school characteristics that differentiate substance use patterns to better inform school-based prevention and intervention efforts (Gohari et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2021). To date, no studies have incorporated common dimensions of school environments within a multilevel cluster-based analysis of both substance use and mental health.

Objectives

To address these existing limitations, the current study used a large, representative sample of secondary (grades 9-12) students, including school-based data, to address three objectives: 1) identify distinct profiles of co-occurring substance use and mental health symptoms; 2) identify types of schools based on student substance use and mental health patterns; and 3) explore school correlates of student profiles and school types, including school climate, belonging, and safety.

Methods

Sample

All reporting follows the Strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology (STROBE) guidelines (See Supplementary Information S7). Data for analyses come from grade 9-12 students in secondary schools included in the crosssectional 2014-2015 School Mental Health Surveys (SMHS). The SMHS was designed to examine associations between school contexts and student mental health. All study procedures, including consent and confidentiality requirements, were approved by the Hamilton Integrated Research Ethics Board at McMaster University and the Research Ethics Committees of the School Boards involved in the study. The selection of schools was based on the sampling design of a companion study- the 2014 Ontario Child Health Study (OCHS) (Boyle et al., 2019), resulting in a representative sample of schools in Ontario (excluding schools on First Nations reserves). In total, 359 elementary and secondary schools were selected to participate and 248 agreed (69% response rate), with no notable differences between participating versus non-participating schools on key school variables (data available from the author). This analysis focused on secondary schools. Within selected secondary schools, anonymous surveys were administered to a random sample of three classrooms per grade. In total, survey data was collected from 11,994 secondary school students (response rate=60.5%) within 68 schools.

Measures

See S2 and S3 for more item details.

Substance Use and Mental Health

Frequency of Heavy Episodic Drinking (HED) was measured along a frequency continuum of having 5 or more drinks on the same occasion over the previous month, from never to 5 or more times (0-5). Cannabis Involvement (CAN) was measured along a continuum including: never, tried once or twice, previous weekly use but not past month, less than weekly, and at least once a week (0-4). Tobacco Smoking (TOB) was measured

along a continuum including: never, once or twice, previous daily use but not past month, sometimes but not every day, and daily (0-4). Sensitivity analyses were done where previous regular cannabis and smoking were removed and treated as missing (recoded 0-3).

Mental health symptomatology was assessed using a modified subset of the OCHS Emotional and Behavioural Scales (Duncan et al., 2018) to measure frequency of symptoms over the preceding 6 months on a scale from never/not true to often/very true (0-2) for: Generalized Anxiety Disorder (GAD; 4 items), Major Depressive Episode (MDE; 5 items), Oppositional Defiant Disorder (ODD; 5 items), and Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD; 4 items). A series of confirmatory factor analyses suggested a 4-factor model where all subdomains were included separately (invariant across gender; see S2). Items were summed where higher scores reflect more symptoms.

School Climate, Belonging, and Safety

School climate was measured by summing the following subdomains: 1) Student-Student Relationships (4 items); 2) Teacher-Student Relationships and Fairness (6 items), 3) Academic Pressure and Expectations (3 items), and 4) Positive Behavioural Support and Social and Emotional Learning (7 items) (Bear et al., 2014). Response options were scored from disagree a lot to agree a lot (0-3) for a total score from 0-60. School belonging was measured by summing 3-items rated from strongly disagree to strongly agree (0-4): 1) *I feel close to people at this school*, 2) *I feel like I belong at this school*, and 3) *I am happy to be at this school* (total scores 0-12) (Harris & Udry, 2001). School safety was measured by summing 5 items rated from not safe to very safe (0-3), asking about safety in and around the school (total scores 0-15) (Consortium on Chicago School Research, 2009).

Student Covariates

Gender. Students were asked, "Are you.... Female? Male?" The question stem did not specify whether the question was referring to sex (which is typically associated

with the terms female, intersex, or male) or gender (which is typically associated with the terms girl/women, boy/man, or transgender or gender diverse). In this paper, this variable has been labeled as gender given students self-identified and no reference to biology of sex at birth was made. Given only binary response options were provided, and there was no explicit reference to sex or gender, some students were likely misclassified.

Age. Students were asked to indicate their age based on response options ranging from 9 to 22 years of age.

Family Assets. Items were adapted from the Health Behaviour in School Aged Children Survey (6). Students self-reported their family's assets, including how many vehicles, computers, cellphones, or electronic tablets their family owns. A standardized factor score (Z-score) was derived using Principal Component Analysis of the 4 items where higher scores indicate greater assets. A single factor emerged and accounted for 46.3% of the variance in secondary students.

Race. Students were asked to select the category that best described their "race or cultural group" with the following response options: White, East Asian (Chinese, Japanese, Korean), Southeast Asian (Vietnamese, Filipino, Cambodian, Malaysian, Laotian), South Asian (East Indian Pakistani, Sri Lankan, Afghan, Bangladeshi), West Asian or Arab (Iraqi, Syrian, Lebanese, Egyptian), Black, Latin, Aboriginal, and/or "other" race or cultural group. Though "race and culture" were included in the question stem, the variable is labelled as race as response options are more reflective of race (i.e., perceived differences based on physical appearance) than ethnicity (i.e., multidimensional construct related to cultural group membership). Response categories were combined based on frequencies in crosstabs, whereby groups with <20 individuals in any student-level profiles were combined. This resulted in the following coding: White (reference); East Asian/Southeast Asian/South Asian (ESA); Black; or Other (including options: West Asian or Arab, Latin, Aboriginal, Other), and Multiracial (~80% White + another racial group[s], ~20% non-white racial groups). White was used as the reference as it represented the largest group of adolescents.

Immigrant Background. Students were asked to indicate if they were born in Canada and whether 1 or both of their parents were born in Canada. Students were coded as either first generation immigrant (1st gen), second generation immigrant (2nd gen), or non-immigrant (reference).

Family Structure. Students were asked who lives with them in their home. Responses were collapsed into two-parents (1; 2 Parents) compared to 1 or no parents (0).

Parental Education. Students were asked about the highest level of education one of their parents had completed. Responses were collapsed into post-secondary education including graduate from college or university (1; Parent PS) compared to high school or less (0).

School Covariates

Median Family Income. School SES was determined through a combination of student postal codes and median family income in the neighbourhoods of attending students using the National Household Survey 2011 data (7). Median family income was converted into increments of \$10,000.

School Enrolment. School size was based on 2014/2015 school enrolment data from the Ontario Ministry of Education. Enrolment was analyzed in increments of 200 students.

Rural or Urban Designation. Each school was assigned to be either rural (1) or urban (0) through linking the school postal code with Statistics Canada's Postal Code Conversion File.

Statistical Methods

Regarding missingness, mean substitution was used within summative scale variables for those with <=30% missingness. Overall, 80.8% were complete on all variables with 98.3% and 97.7% having complete mental health and substance use data, respectively. Missingness was addressed using Full Information Maximum Likelihood (FIML) in cluster analyses. Given 17.3% of the sample had at least one socio-

demographic variable missing, Multilevel Multiple Imputation (MMI) using BLIMP (Keller & Enders, 2017) was applied to address missingness for regression models using Latent Fully Conditional Specification imputation with the Gibbs sampler (20 imputations). See S1 for more details.

Student-level substance use and mental health symptom profiles were identified through LPA using Mplus (version 7), with all indicators treated continuously. Random split halves were generated for sample cross-validation, with final models re-estimated in the full sample. Models were estimated for 1-k profiles when the model no longer converged or when Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) began to increase (Collins & Lanza, 2009; Masyn, 2013). Solutions were compared based on class enumeration and separation diagnostics, indicator specific class homogeneity and separation statistics, and theoretical clinical relevance of profiles (specifics in S4). Measurement invariance across gender was examined by stratifying the sample and using the multi-group function to compare the fit of models with constrained versus freed parameters (Collins & Lanza, 2009; Masyn, 2013).

Subsequently, multilevel latent profile analysis (MLPA) was conducted to estimate the distribution and structure of student profiles at the school-level following methods provided by Mäkikangas et al. (2018) and Henry and Muthén (2010). First, a parametric MLPA was conducted allowing the student profile probabilities to vary across schools. Second, non-parametric MLPA was conducted whereby school-level classes were identified based on the relative frequency of student profiles. Models were compared based on similar diagnostics as the student-level, with BIC being the primary model selection criterion. The posterior probabilities and most likely class memberships from the final MLPA for both student profiles and school classes were used for subsequent modeling.

All subsequent analyses were conducted in SAS ® Enterprise Guide 7.1. First, descriptive statistics were estimated across all student profiles and school classes pooled across imputations. Next, a series of multilevel (students within schools) multinomial regression models were conducted to predict most likely student-level profile

membership. Random intercept generalized linear mixed models were estimated using PROC GLIMMIX with the residual pseudo-likelihood (RSPL) method and applying the Satterthwaite adjustment. Regressions were estimated by imputation, pooling estimates and standard errors for final results utilizing Rubin's rules. Models were run separately for school climate, belonging, and safety and all models were adjusted for sociodemographics. Differential gender effects were explored through interaction terms followed by stratified models where indicated. A conservative p-value of <0.005 was used to denote statistical significance.

Results

Student-Level Profiles

A 5-profile model was selected. The final model estimated in the full sample had an entropy of 0.92 with average posterior probabilities all >0.9. The profiles identified included: low substance use (SU) and low mental health symptoms (MH) (n=6,855, 57.6%, 'Low-SU/MH'), high substance use and high mental health symptoms (n=772, 6.5%, 'High-SU/MH'), low substance use with high emotional and moderate behavioural symptoms (n=2,672, 22.5%, 'Low-SU/High-MH'), high heavy episodic drinking and cannabis use with moderate mental health symptoms (n=1,160, 9.7%, 'HEDCAN/Moderate-MH'), and high heavy episodic drinking and tobacco use with moderate mental health symptoms (n=443, 3.7%, 'HEDTOB/Moderate-MH'). See Figure 1. Final models were deemed invariant across genders. Sensitivity analyses converged on a similar 5-profile solution. See S4 for detailed results.

[Figure 1]

School-Level Classes

Adding random effects via the parametric MLPA approach improved model fit compared to the student-level only (i.e., fixed effects) model, maintained entropy, and yielded significant variances in the probability of student profiles at the school-level

(BIC= 287715, Entropy= 0.916). This indicated that, depending on the school, the probability distributions of the 5 student-level profiles were different. Next, the nonparametric MLPA identified distinct school types, with a 3-class model fitting best; this model also improved model fit compared to the fixed-effects model (BIC=287791, Entropy=0.915). The 3-classes included a Type 1 School with low levels of student substance use and comorbid mental health symptoms (n=19 schools, 28%), Type 2 School with moderate levels of student substance use and comorbidity (n=39 schools, 57%), and a Type 3 School with high levels of student substance use and comorbidity (n=10 schools, 15%). All classes had average posterior probabilities >0.85 (See Figure 3). Compared to Type 1 Schools (low), for students in Type 2 (moderate) and Type 3 (high) schools respectively, the odds of being assigned to the: HEDCAN/Moderate-MH profile was 2.4 and 2.8 times greater; HEDTOB/Moderate-MH was 2.1 and 7.0 times greater; and High-SU/MH profile was 2.8 and 8.2 times greater. There were no significant schooltype differences for students in the Low-SU/High-MH profile and thus school differences were mainly driven by the prevalence of student substance use with varying levels of comorbid mental health symptoms. See S5 for detailed results.

[Figure 2]

Characterizing and Predicting Student Profiles

See Table 1 for descriptives and Table 2 for regression results. In the adjusted demographic only model, all student-level covariates were significantly related to student substance use and mental health profile membership. Older students, compared to younger students, had greater odds of being in all profiles with elevated substance use and mental health symptoms. Females were more likely than males to be in the Low-SU/High-MH profile compared to the Low-SU/MH profile. No school-level sociodemographics were significantly related to student profile membership in adjusted models.

Students reporting higher school climate, belonging, and safety had greater odds of being in the Low-SU/MH profile compared to all other profiles. Several differential gender effects emerged, most consistently where belonging had more pronounced protective effects among female students. When analyses were stratified, females endorsing higher school belonging had lower odds compared to males of being in the HEDCAN/Moderate-MH ($OR_{fem}=0.78[0.76-0.81]$; $OR_{male}=0.87[0.84-0.9]$), HEDTOB/Moderate-MH ($OR_{fem}=0.73[0.70-0.77]$; $OR_{male}=0.87[0.83-0.92]$), and High-SU/MH ($OR_{fem}=0.71[0.68-0.74]$; $OR_{male}=0.76[0.73-0.79]$; $p_{fem*belong}=0.006$) profiles compared to the Low-SU/MH profile. There was also a significant gender interaction for safety, though only apparent for the HEDTOB/Moderate-MH profile ($OR_{fem*safe}=.91[0.86-0.96]$; p=0.001).

[Table 1 and Table 2]

Predictors of School Types

School size, rural neighbourhoods, and average student endorsements of school climate were correlated with school classes. Type 2 and 3 schools were smaller in size, more often in rural neighbourhoods, and had lower climate scores than Type 1 schools (See Table 3). Median family income and average student endorsements of safety and belonging were not significantly different across types. Notably, 0% of Type 1 (low) schools were rural while 50% (5/10) of Type 3 (high) schools were rural.

[Table 3]

Discussion

In a representative sample of 11,994 secondary students and 68 schools, five substance use and mental health student profiles and three school substance use types were identified. These findings reflect the largest epidemiological MLPA to date that provides a population-level characterization of the overlap and separation of common

substance use and mental health symptoms among adolescents and across schools. Specifically, 4 in 10 adolescents exhibited elevations in substance use or mental health symptoms, of which half demonstrated high levels of mental health symptoms (predominantly anxiety and depression) with low substance use and the other half had comorbid elevations in both substance use and mental health symptoms. Perceptions of positive school climate, belonging, and safety increased the odds of students being in the low substance use and mental health symptom profile, with school belonging yielding larger protective effects for females. At the school-level, mean levels of students' perceptions of school climate were higher in schools with low substance use and comorbid mental health symptoms (28% of schools) compared to schools with moderate (57%) and high (15%) proportions of comorbidity. Thus, school climate, belonging, and safety may provide promising targets for future universal school-based prevention and interventions to address both substance use and mental health concerns simultaneously.

Across student substance use and mental health profiles, symptom overlap was a common theme with no profile principally defined by a single indicator. Regarding substance use, we found profiles similar to the prior review (Halladay et al., 2020) including: 1) a low substance use group, 2) dual substance use groups (e.g., alcohol/cannabis, alcohol/tobacco), and 3) a high multiple use group. These profiles all had concurrent elevations in mental health symptoms, though differed in severity based on the patterns of substance use, which mapped onto the fourth quadrant of the concurrent disorders model (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, 2020). Thus, we did not find a high substance use and low mental health profile (third quadrant). We also found a high mental health only profile, similar to the second quadrant, where there were elevations across all mental health symptoms – high levels of depression and anxiety symptoms and moderate levels of ADHD and ODD symptoms. Overall, these patterns suggest that combined approaches are critical for preventing and addressing substance use and mental health symptoms among adolescents.

Substantial variability was present in student profiles across schools, predominantly regarding substance use profiles with varying levels of comorbidity. This

is consistent with prior research demonstrating that schools explain a small proportion of the variability in student mental health while explaining larger proportions of substance use (Hale et al., 2014; Shackleton et al., 2016). These findings indicate that patterns of substance use and comorbid mental health concerns are, in part, context specific. Select schools, such as those with elevated substance use and comorbid mental health symptoms, may benefit from more intensive, targeted prevention and early intervention efforts. Similar to the prior school MLCAs (Gohari et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2021), we did not find significant school differences based on median family income. Our study examined a broader range of school characteristics and found that school size, rurality, and school climate were significantly related to school types. Notably, rural schools were disproportionately represented in the types of schools with the highest prevalence of student substance use and comorbidity. This is consistent with national reports indicating higher rates of substance use among rural youth (McInnis et al., 2015). Although perceived need for mental health care has increased among rural Ontarian youth (Comeau et al., 2019), higher rates of stigma, greater socioeconomic issues, and disparities in access to care in rural settings persist (Friesen, 2019). School social environmental factors have the potential to buffer some of these risks (Nguyen et al., 2021). This highlights the critical need to support schools with higher risk students, particularly rural schools, to develop, implement, and sustain substance use prevention and intervention efforts. Special considerations are needed when designing interventions for rural settings (McInnis et al., 2015).

Improving school climate, belonging, and safety may help schools improve student substance use and mental health outcomes concurrently. We found that as positive student perceptions of climate, belonging, and safety increased, students were more likely to be in the low profile compared to all other profiles. School belonging conferred larger protective effects for females, compared to males. Our findings are consistent with prior research indicating these aspects of a school's social environment are associated with lower psychiatric symptoms (Durlak et al., 2011; Ford et al., 2021; Taylor et al., 2017; Thapa et al., 2013), lower substance use (Daily et al., 2020; Faggiano et al., 2014;

Faulkner et al., 2009; Fletcher et al., 2008; Taylor et al., 2017), and may provide more robust protective effects among females (Faulkner et al., 2009; Langille et al., 2015). Further, these findings support recent recommendations for a comprehensive school health approach (e.g., (Public Health Agency of Canada, 2021), which promotes strategies to improve interpersonal relationships and help build social and emotional skills, increase student feelings of school belonging, and design spaces to promote safety.

Strengths of this study include a large, representative sample and both individualand school-based data, but a number of considerations apply. The data are cross-sectional in nature, and thus temporal directionality or causality cannot be inferred. Although we did control for known student and school-level confounders, it is possible that not all confounders were incorporated. All measures were self-reported and, though mental health measures yielded good psychometric properties, there are no clinical cut-points for these measures and should be interpreted as clinical indicators but not diagnoses. The LPA model was selected through a rigorous global review of objective fit and theoretical considerations, though fit indices did not unanimously converge on one solution, a common circumstance in cluster-based studies (Halladay et al., 2020). The questions related to gender did not explicitly ask about gender or sex, and only included binary response options. Thus, some students were likely misclassified and there is a risk that sex and gender were conflated. Similarly, race and culture were combined into a single question, and thus unable to differentiate the potential pathways giving rise to between group differences. Lastly, the sample was limited to students attending school in Ontario, Canada (Canada's most populous province), though representative and likely applicable to other provinces and contexts. Future studies should consider oversampling schools in rural areas given known disparities.

Conclusion

Using a comprehensive multilevel latent profile approach, this study identified five unique substance use and mental health profiles in a large representative sample of secondary students, and subsequently identified three types of schools based on the

distributions of these student profiles within them. These results support interventions for overlapping patterns of substance use and mental health, and pursuing school interventions targeting school climate, belonging, and safety, particularly in rural areas. Collectively, this study identified: 1) adolescent substance use and mental health symptom profiles that can serve as *targets* for prevention and early intervention efforts; and 2) school settings as important *contexts* for these interventions, and suggests that improving school climate, belonging, and safety may represent key mechanisms of change in future prevention and interventions programs.

Acknowledgments: The School Mental Health Surveys (SMHS) study was supported by the Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR; MOP-136939). Authors were supported by a CIHR Doctoral Research Training Award (JH), the Peter Boris Chair in Addictions Research (JM), and the David R. (Dan) Offord Chair in Child studies (KG).

References

- Aldridge, J.M., & McChesney, K. (2018). The relationships between school climate and adolescent mental health and wellbeing: A systematic literature review.

 International Journal of Educational Research, 88, 121-145.
- Bear, G., Yang, C., Mantz, L., Pasipanodya, E., Hearn, S., & Boyer, D. (2014). *Technical manual for Delaware school survey: Scales of school climate, bullying, victimization, student engagement, positive, punitive, and social emotional learning techniques.* Newark, DE: Center for Disabilities Studies.
- Boak, A., Elton-Marshall, T., Mann, R. E., & Hamilton, H. A. (2020). *Drug use among Ontario students, 1977-2019: Detailed findings from the Ontario Student Drug Use and Health Survey (OSDUHS)*. Toronto, ON: Centre for Addiction and Mental Health.
- Boyle, M.H., Georgiades, K., Duncan, L., Comeau, J., Wang, L., & OCHS Team (2019). The 2014 Ontario Child Health Study—methodology. *The Canadian Journal of Psychiatry*, 64(4), 237-245.
- Casey, B.J., Jones, R.M., & Hare, T.A. (2008). The adolescent brain. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 1124, 111-126
- Collins, L.M., & Lanza, S.T. (2009). Latent class and latent transition analysis: With applications in the social, behavioral, and health sciences (Vol. 718). John Wiley & Sons.
- Comeau, J., Georgiades, K., Duncan, L., Wang, L., Boyle, M.H., & OCHS Team (2019). Changes in the prevalence of child and youth mental disorders and perceived need for professional help between 1983 and 2014: Evidence from the Ontario Child Health Study. *The Canadian Journal of Psychiatry*, 64(4), 256-264.
- Consortium on Chicago School Research. (2009). Survey of Chicago public schools elementary school student edition.
- Daily, S.M., Mann, M.J., Lilly, C.L., Bias, T.K., Smith, M.L., & Kristjansson, A.L. (2020). School climate as a universal intervention to prevent substance use

- initiation in early adolescence: A longitudinal study. *Health Education & Behavior*, 47(3), 402-411.
- Duncan, L., Georgiades, K., Wang, L., Comeau, J., Ferro, M.A., Van Lieshout, R.J., et al. (2018). The 2014 Ontario Child Health Study Emotional Behavioural Scales (OCHS-EBS) Part I: A checklist for dimensional measurement of selected DSM-5 disorders. *The Canadian Journal of Psychiatry*, 64(6), 423-433.
- Durlak, J.A., Weissberg, R.P., Dymnicki, A.B., Taylor, R.D., & Schellinger, K.B. (2011). The impact of enhancing students' social and emotional learning: A meta-analysis of school-based universal interventions. *Child Development*, 82(1), 405-432.
- Faggiano, F., Minozzi, S., Versino, E., & Buscemi, D. (2014). Universal school-based prevention for illicit drug use. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*, (12).
- Faulkner, G.E., Adlaf, E.M., Irving, H.M., Allison, K.R., & Dwyer, J. (2009). School disconnectedness: Identifying adolescents at risk in Ontario, Canada. *Journal of School Health*, 79(7), 312-318.
- Fletcher, A., Bonell, C., & Hargreaves, J. (2008). School effects on young people's drug use: a systematic review of intervention and observational studies. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 42(3), 209-220.
- Ford, T., Degli Esposti, M., Crane, C., Taylor, L., Montero-Marín, J., Blakemore, S.J., et al. (2021). The role of schools in early adolescents' mental health: Findings from the MYRIAD study. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry*, 60(12), 1467-1478.
- Friesen, E. (2019). The landscape of mental health services in rural Canada. *University of Toronto Medical Journal*, 96(2), 47–52.
- Georgiades, K., Duncan, L., Wang, L., Comeau, J., Boyle, M.H., & OCHS Team (2019). Six-month prevalence of mental disorders and service contacts among children and youth in Ontario: Evidence from the 2014 Ontario Child Health Study. *The Canadian Journal of Psychiatry*, 64(4), 246-255.

- Greaves, L. & Hemsing, N. (2020). Sex and gender interactions on the use and impact of recreational cannabis. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, <u>17</u>(2), 509. doi: 10.3390/ijerph17020509
- Gohari, M.R., Cook, R.J., Dubin, J.A., & Leatherdale, S.T. (2020). Identifying patterns of alcohol use among secondary school students in Canada: A multilevel latent class analysis. *Addictive Behaviors*, 100, 106120.
- Hale, D.R., Patalay, P., Fitzgerald-Yau, N., Hargreaves, D.S., Bond, L., Gorzig, A., et al. (2014). School-level variation in health outcomes in adolescence: Analysis of three longitudinal studies in England. *Prevention Science*, 15(4), 600-610.
- Halladay, J., Woock, R., El-Khechen, H., Munn, C., MacKillop, J., Amlung, M., et al. (2020). Patterns of substance use among adolescents: A systematic review. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*, 216, 108222.
- Hamilton, H.A., Owusu-Bempah, A., Boak, A., & Mann, R.E. (2018). Ethnoracial differences in cannabis use among native-born and foreign-born high school students in Ontario. *Journal of Ethnicity in Substance Abuse*, 17(2), 123-134.
- Harris, K.M., & Udry, J.R. (2001). National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent to Adult
 Health (Add Health), 1994-2008 [Public Use]. Carolina Population Center,
 University of North Carolina-Chapel Hill, Inter-university Consortium for
 Political and Social Research, 2021-08-25.
- Henneberger, A.K., Mushonga, D.R., & Preston, A.M. (2021). Peer influence and adolescent substance use: A systematic review of dynamic social network research. *Adolescent Research Review*, 6, 57-73.
- Henry, K.L., & Muthén, B. (2010). Multilevel latent class analysis: An application of adolescent smoking typologies with individual and contextual predictors. Structural Equation Modeling, 17(2), 193-215.
- Hoffmann, J.P. (2017). Family structure and adolescent substance use: an international perspective. *Substance Use & Misuse*, *52*(13), 1667-1683.
- Keller, B.T., & Enders, C.K. (2017). Blimp User's Guide Version 1.0. Los Angeles, CA.

- Keyes, K.M., Vo, T., Wall, M.M., Caetano, R., Suglia, S.F., Martins, S.S., et al. (2015).
 Racial/ethnic differences in use of alcohol, tobacco, and marijuana: Is there a cross-over from adolescence to adulthood? *Social Science & Medicine*, 124, 132-141.
- Langille, D.B., Asbridge, M., Cragg, A., & Rasic, D. (2015). Associations of school connectedness with adolescent suicidality: Gender differences and the role of risk of depression. *The Canadian Journal of Psychiatry*, 60(6), 258-267.
- Lee, J.O., Cho, J., Yoon, Y., Bello, M.S., Khoddam, R., & Leventhal, A.M. (2018).

 Developmental pathways from parental socioeconomic status to adolescent substance use: Alternative and complementary reinforcement. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 47(2), 334-348.
- Lee, Y., Kim, Y., Leatherdale, S.T., & Chung, H. (2021). Multilevel latent class profile analysis: An application to stage-sequential patterns of alcohol use in a sample of Canadian youth. *Evaluation & the Health Professions*, 44(1), 50-60.
- Mäkikangas, A., Tolvanen, A., Aunola, K., Feldt, T., Mauno, S., & Kinnunen, U. (2018). Multilevel latent profile analysis with covariates: Identifying job characteristics profiles in hierarchical data as an example. *Organizational Research Methods*, 21(4), 931-954.
- Marraccini, M.E., Fang, Y., Levine, S.P., Chin, A.J., & Pittleman, C. (2020). Measuring student perceptions of school climate: A systematic review and ecological content analysis. *School Mental Health*, *12*(2), 195-221.
- Masyn, K.E. (2013). 25 latent class analysis and finite mixture modeling. *The Oxford Handbook of Quantitative Methods*, 2, 551.
- McInnis, O.A., Young, M.M., Saewyc, E., Jahrig, J., Adlaf, E., Lemaire, J., et al. (2015). *Urban and Rural Student Substance Use*. Ottawa, ON: Canadian Centre on Substance Abuse.
- Nguyen, A.J., McDaniel, H., Braun, S.S., Chen, L., & Bradshaw, C.P. (2021).

 Contextualizing the association between school climate and student well-being:

 The moderating role of rurality. *Journal of School Health*, 91(6), 463-472.

- Public Health Agency of Canada. (2021). Blueprint for action: Preventing substancerelated harms among youth through a comprehensive school health approach. Ottawa, ON.
- Shackleton, N., Hale, D., Bonell, C., & Viner, R.M. (2016). Intraclass correlation values for adolescent health outcomes in secondary schools in 21 European countries. SSM-Population Health, 2, 217-225.
- Solmi, M., Radua, J., Olivola, M., Croce, E., Soardo, L., de Pablo, G.S., et al. (2021). Age at onset of mental disorders worldwide: Large-scale meta-analysis of 192 epidemiological studies. *Molecular Psychiatry*, 1-15.
- Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. (2020). Substance use disorder treatment for people with co-occurring disorders. Treatment Improvement Protocol (TIP) Series, No. 42. SAMHSA Publication No. PEP20-02-01-004., Rockville, MD: Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration.
- Taylor, R.D., Oberle, E., Durlak, J.A., & Weissberg, R.P. (2017). Promoting positive youth development through school-based social and emotional learning interventions: A meta-analysis of follow-up effects. *Child Development*, 88(4), 1156-1171.
- Thapa, A., Cohen, J., Guffey, S., & Higgins-D'Alessandro, A. (2013). A review of school climate research. *Review of Educational Research*, 83(3), 357-385.
- World Health Organization. (2018). *Child and adolescent mental health*. http://www.who.int/mental_health/maternal-child/child_adolescent/en/

6.0 5.0 4.0 Indicator Means 3.0 2.0 1.0 0.0 GAD MDE ADHD ODD HED CAN TOB High SU/MH (6.5%) 3.0 3.6 3.5 3.8 4.9 4.4 4.3 High HED/TOB, Moderate MH 1.9 1.1 3.0 3.4 4.3 3.9 3.5 (3.7%)High HED/CAN, Moderate MH

Figure 1 Student-Level 5 Profile Model (Single Level)

(9.7%)

Low SU/High MH (22.5%)

◆ - • Low SU/MH (57.6%)

Note: The mean (range; 40%/80% percentiles) for the indicators in the full sample for the LPA were: HED 0.8(0-5;1/2), CAN 0.7(0-4;0/1), TOB 0.5(0-4;0/1), GAD 2.7(0-8;1/5), MDE 3.1(0-10;2/5), ADHD 3.1(0-8;2/5), ODD 2.3(0-10;1/4).

3.1

0.2

0.1

0.7

0.1

0.1

2.8

5.5

1.4

3.6

5.8

1.7

3.8

4.2

2.3

3.0

3.5

1.4

2.0

0.6

0.4

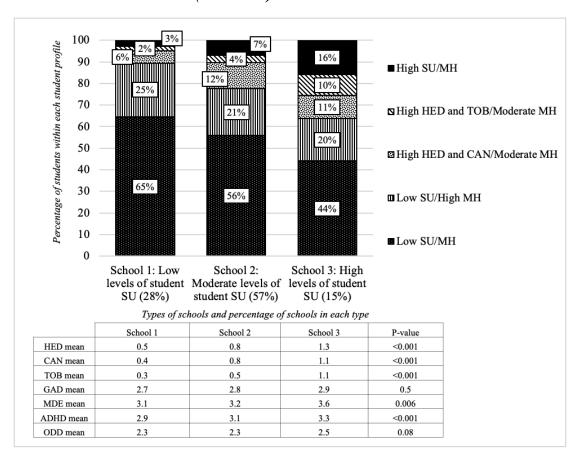


Figure 2
School-Level 3-Class Model (Multilevel)

Note: The within-school means(SD) of the student-level indicators in the full sample were: HED 0.8 (0.4), CAN 0.7(0.3), TOB 0.5(0.3), GAD 2.8(0.3), MDE 3.2(0.4), ADHD 3.1(0.3), ODD 2.3(0.3). P-values are based on univariable pooled ANOVA's.

Student-Level Descriptives

				Student Profiles		
	Total	Low-SU/MH (57.6%)	Low-SU/High-MH (22.5%)	HEDCAN/ Moderate-MH (9.7%)	HEDTOB/ Moderate-MH (3.7%)	High-SU/MH (6.5%)
Female	51.4%	48.1%	65.1%	45.0%	48.8%	44.9%
Age	15.6 (1.5)	15.4 (1.4)	15.5 (1.4)	16.2 (1.3)	16.2 (1.4)	16.2 (1.6)
Assets	0.07 (1.0)	0.11 (0.9)	0.05 (1.0)	0.10 (1.0)	-0.05 (1.2)	-0.22 (1.4)
1st gen	16.3%	18.0%	17.5%	10.0%	12.1%	9.2%
2 nd gen	28.3%	30.2%	29.2%	26.5%	18.1%	17.2%
2 parents	77.2%	81.5%	75.8%	%6.89	65.5%	63.7%
Parents PS	80.2%	83.6%	79.2%	75.1%	73.0%	65.0%
White	60.1%	58.3%	57.9%	66.2%	%8.69	%9.89
ESA	16.0%	18.9%	18.2%	6.1%	5.0%	5.1%
Black	6.2%	%8.9	4.8%	7.0%	4.6%	4.8%
Other	8.9%	8.3%	9.1%	10.7%	9.3%	11.0%
Multiracial	8.8%	7.7%	10.0%	10.1%	11.3%	10.5%
Climate	37.0 (7.9)	39.0 (7.1)	35.2 (7.4)	34.3 (7.1)	34.6 (7.8)	30.6 (10.1)
Belonging	7.7 (2.8)	8.4 (2.4)	6.7 (2.9)	7.1 (3.0)	6.7 (3.1)	6.0 (3.4)
Safety	11.3 (3.3)	11.7 (2.9)	10.3 (3.3)	11.7 (3.4)	10.7 (3.7)	10.3 (4.4)

Multilevel Multinomial Regressions Predicting Student Profile Membership

TI VIIIO TI O G	T OTTATE J. AATT	HEDCAN/	HEDTOB/	TI STILL I
Kererence: Low SU/MIH	Low-SU/High-IVIH	Moderate-MH	Moderate-MH	High-SO/MH
		School Climate Model		
Climate	$0.93(0.92 0.93); < .0001^a$	$0.92 (0.91-0.93);<.0001^{a}$	$0.93 (0.91 - 0.94); < .0001^a$	$0.88 (0.87 - 0.89); < .0001^{a}$
		School Belonging Model		
Belonging	0.79 (0.76-0.81);<.0001**	0.87 (0.84-0.9);<.0001**	0.87 (0.83-0.91);<.0001**	0.76 (0.73-0.79);<.0001**
Female*Belonging	0.99 (0.95-1.03);0.5664	0.9 (0.86-0.95);<.0001**	0.84 (0.78-0.9);<.0001**	0.93 (0.88-0.98);0.0064*
		School Safety Model		
Safety	0.86 (0.85-0.88);<.0001**	0.97 (0.95-0.99);0.002**	0.89 (0.86-0.91);<.0001**	0.86 (0.84-0.88);<.0001**
		Demographic Only Model		
Female	1.99 (1.81-2.19);<.0001**	0.87 (0.77-1);0.0445	1.04 (0.85-1.27);0.7026	0.88 (0.75-1.03);0.1051
Age	1.1 (1.06-1.14);<.0001**	1.56 (1.49-1.64);<.0001**	1.52 (1.41-1.63);<.0001**	1.45 (1.37-1.54);<.0001**
Family Assets	0.95 (0.9-1);0.0609	1.04 (0.97-1.12);0.2484	0.93 (0.84-1.04);0.1956	0.82 (0.76-0.89);<.0001**
1st gen	0.92 (0.78-1.08);0.3019	0.49 (0.38-0.64);<.0001**	0.78 (0.53-1.14);0.1987	0.45 (0.32-0.63);<.0001**
2 nd gen	0.91 (0.8-1.04);0.1699	0.78 (0.66-0.94);0.0069*	0.63 (0.47-0.85);0.0025**	0.48 (0.38-0.61);<.0001**

2 parents	0.73 (0.65-0.82);<.0001**	0.52 (0.44-0.6);<.0001**	0.49 (0.39-0.62);<.0001**	0.5 (0.42-0.6);<.0001**
Parents PS	0.81 (0.71-0.91);0.0008**	0.63 (0.53-0.74);<.0001**	0.65 (0.51-0.84);0.0008**	0.43 (0.35-0.52);<.0001**
ESA	0.99 (0.84-1.18);0.9529	0.4 (0.3-0.54);<.0001**	0.3 (0.17-0.5);<.0001**	0.51 (0.34-0.78);0.0015**
Black	0.71 (0.56-0.9);0.0041**	1.14 (0.85-1.54);0.3769	0.64 (0.37-1.1);0.1047	0.96 (0.64-1.44);0.8369
Other	1.15 (0.96-1.38);0.134	1.43 (1.12-1.81);0.0035**	1.18 (0.81-1.74);0.3858	1.84 (1.39-2.45);<.0001**
Multiracial	1.31 (1.11-1.56);0.0016**	1.34 (1.06-1.7);0.0141	1.47 (1.04-2.07);0.0284	1.59 (1.21-2.08);0.0009**
School Size	0.98 (0.94-1.02);0.2879	1.03 (0.96-1.11);0.446	0.91 (0.82-0.99);0.0388	0.93 (0.84-1.02);0.1041
(increments of 200)				
Median Income	1.02 (0.99-1.05);0.1343	1.05 (0.99-1.11);0.1153	0.93 (0.86-1);0.0662	1.04 (0.96-1.12);0.3314
(increments of \$10,000)				
Rural	0.98 (0.83-1.15);0.7895	1.01 (0.74-1.39);0.9288	1.41 (0.98-2.03);0.0605	1.5 (1.04-2.17);0.0305
*				

**Significant p<0.005

*Near significant p<0.01

Note. Reported as pooled Odds Ratios (95% Confidence Interval); p-value. All models are adjusted for all socio-demographics. Only

significant interaction effects were retained/reported in this table. Detailed results in S6.

rable 3 School-Level Descriptives

	Total	LOW (n=19)	MOD (n=39)	HIGH (n=10)	P-value ^a
	1		mean(SD) or n(%)		
School Size	980 (320)	1,140 (340)	1,000 (280)	640 (200)	0.0002
Median	\$86,000 (\$19,00)	\$91,000 (\$22,00)	\$88,000 (\$18,000)	\$73,000 (\$13,000)	0.04
Rural	10 (14.7%)	0	5 (12.8%)	5 (50%)	0.002
Climate (mean)	37.0 (1.6)	37.9 (0.9)	36.8 (1.5)	35.7 (1.9)	0.0007
Belonging (mean)	7.7 (0.6)	7.9 (0.5)	7.8 (0.6)	7.4 (0.4)	0.07
Safety (mean)	11.4 (0.7)	11.2 (0.8)	11.5 (0.7)	11.3 (0.6)	0.3

^aP-values based on pooled ANOVA or Fisher's Exact tests.

Chapter 3: Supplementary Material

S1. Missingness

Prior to examining missingness, mean substitution was used within summative scale variables for those with <=30% missingness. There were 178 missing data patterns where about 80.8% were complete cases (See table 1.1 for detailed results). Specifically, 98.3% had complete mental health related data and 97.7% had complete substance use responses. Missingness was addressed using Full Information Maximum Likelihood (FIML) in cluster analyses. However, 17.3% of the sample had at least one demographic variable missing, with the highest missing on parental education (12.1%) followed by family assets (3.2%), family structure (2.3%), school size (1.7%), then race (1.5%). Notably, no other variables were missing >=1% with no missing for median family income.

To explore missingness, a series of logistic regressions were performed to evaluate predictors of missingness for any variable. Any missing was coded as a 1 and those with complete data were coded as 0. Missingness was significantly more likely among students who were male, younger, Black, 'other' racial minority, non-immigrants (compared to 2nd generation), and came from families with lower family assets, <2 parents, and parents without post-secondary education (other demographics not significant). Regarding main variables of interest, tobacco use, higher ADHD symptoms, higher ODD symptoms, and lower school climate, belongingness, and safety were related to missingness. Further, clustering in schools accounted for about 22% of the variability in missing. See Table 1.2 for detailed results.

Table 1.1 Proportion of Item Missingess.

Variables	N (%)
GAD	186 (1.55%)
MDE	166 (1.38%)
ADHD	143 (1.19%)
ODD	158 (1.32%)
HED	181 (1.51%)
CAN	217 (1.81%)
TOB	212 (1.77%)
Female	89 (0.74%)
Age	46 (0.38%)
Assets	387 (3.23%)
Immigrant Status	89 (0.74%)
Family Structure	273 (2.28%)
Parental Education	1456 (12.14%)
Race	185 (1.54%)
School Size	203 (1.69%)
Median Family Income	0
Rural/Urban Status	0*
School Climate	85 (0.71%)
School Belonging	81 (0.68%)
School Safety	63 (0.53%)
Any missing	2307 (19.23%)
Any SU missing	275 (2.29%)
Any MH missing	202 (1.68%)
Any DEMO missing	2078 (17.33%)

^{*1} missing (as postal code did not have a Statistics Canada designation) but imputed with the Probability Sampling Unit Designation

Table 1.2 Logistic Regressions Predicting Missingness for Multinomial Regression

Any substance or mental health missing	Missing OR (95% CI) p-value
Female	0.71 (0.64-0.78); < .0001
Age	0.86 (0.83-0.89); <.0001
Family Assets	0.8 (0.76-0.84); <.0001
1 st gen	0.92 (0.79-1.08); 0.3255
2 nd gen	0.82 (0.72-0.94); 0.0033
2 parents	0.65 (0.58-0.73); <.0001
Parents PS	0.7 (0.57-0.86); 0.0006
ESA	1.14 (0.95-1.36); 0.1589
Black	1.78 (1.47-2.16); <.0001
Other	1.35 (1.13-1.6); 0.0007
Multiracial	1.13 (0.93-1.36); 0.2127
School Size	1 (1-1); 0.0697
Median Family Income	1 (1-1); 0.1199
Rural	0.87 (0.47-1.61); 0.6598
Climate	0.99 (0.98-0.99); <.0001
Belonging	0.93 (0.92-0.95); <.0001
Safety	0.92 (0.91-0.94); <.0001
HED	1.03 (0.99-1.07); 0.1368
CAN	1.03 (0.99-1.07); 0.1993
TOB	1.1 (1.04-1.15); 0.0002
GAD	1 (0.98-1.02); 0.8378
MDE	1.02 (1-1.03); 0.1215
ADHD	1.08 (1.06-1.11); <.0001
ODD	1.1 (1.07-1.12); <.0001

S2. Detailed CFA Results

A psychometric evaluation of the SMHS OCHS:EBS item subset was tested for use across the full SMHS sample, including both elementary and secondary students (measurement invariance was confirmed). Note, the SMHS Conduct Disorder (CD) items have minimal overlap with the complete OCHS (i.e., less than 40% of SMHS CD items included in the OCHS, with all other subscales having >75% coverage) and the sum score was heavily skewed (4.4) and kurtotic (23.3). Thus, CD was not included.

Summary: The 4-factor mental health structure consistently produced the best model fit estimates when compared to the 2- and 3-factor models (See Table 2.1). The 4-factor model was the only CFA to surpass all *a priori* model thresholds including CFI>0.95 and RMSEA <0.06 and had the lowest WRMR. Using standardized effects coded loadings, all indicators loaded >0.6 on their respective pre-specified factors including GAD (0.85 to 0.92), MDE (0.71 to 0.88), ADHD (0.66 to 0.83), ODD (0.63 to 0.91) (See Table 2.2). Mental health latent variables were moderately-strongly positively correlated (r=0.5 to 0.8; stronger within than between domain correlations) and all AVE's were above 0.5, demonstrating convergent validity. Discriminant validity was established for 5/6 comparisons whereby the square root of AVE was larger than inter-factor correlations. Discriminant validity 'failures' occurred for MDE(GAD); however, this was expected due to high comorbidity of these disorders (See Table 2.3). Measurement invariance across gender and school level for each factor separately and the full 4-factor mental health measurement model was established (See Table 2.4).

Table 2.1 Model fit

Model	$X^2(df)$	CFI	TLI	RMSEA (90% CI)	WRMR
2 Factor (INT, EXT)	36746 (134)	0.924	0.913	0.095 (0.094, 0.095)	12.78
3 Factor (INT, ODD,	26113 (132)	0.946	0.938	0.080 (0.079, 0.081)	10.06
ADHD)	20113 (132)	0.940	0.936	0.000 (0.079, 0.001)	10.00
4 Factor (GAD,	12755 (129)	0.974	0.969	0.057 (0.056, 0.057)	6.7
MDE, ADHD, ODD)	12/33 (129)	0.9/4	0.909	0.037 (0.030, 0.037)	0.7
4 Factor (2-level)	13425 (276)	0.933	0.926	0.039	n/a

Table 2.2 Single Level Standardized Factor Loadings Using the Fixed Factor Method

Variable	Question	Standardized	School ICC
name		loading	
Generalized	Anxiety Disorder (GAD); Cronbach's alpl	ha 0.882	
SD515	I am too fearful or anxious	0.905	2.1%
SD516	I find it hard to stop worrying	0.848	2.1%
SD517	I am anxious or on edge	0.924	2.3%
SD518	I am nervous or tense	0.876	1.3%
Major Depre	essive Episode (MDE); Cronbach's alpha (0.826	
SD510	I am unhappy, sad or depressed	0.851	1.8%
SD511	I am moody or irritable	0.820	3.0%
SD512	I get no pleasure from usual activities	0.722	1.9%
SD513	I feel overtired or lack energy	0.709	6.5%
SD514	I feel worthless or inferior	0.876	1.8%
ADHD; Cro	nbach's alpha 0.76		
SD51	I have trouble concentrating or paying	0.834	3.5%
	attention		
SD52	I am easily distracted, have difficulty	0.815	2.5%
	sticking to any activity		
SD53	I have trouble sitting still	0.658	2.9%
SD54	I fail to finish things I start	0.756	1.9%
Oppositiona	l Defiant Disorder (ODD); Cronbach's alp	ha 0.802	
SD55	I lose my temper	0.790	2.0%
SD56	I argue a lot with adults	0.765	1.6%
SD57	I am defiant and talk back to people	0.763	2.1%
SD58	I am angry and resentful	0.910	1.7%
SD59	I get back at people	0.628	1.6% (factor
			loading
			negative at
			school level)

^{*}bolded/strongest factor used as marker for invariance testing

Table 2.3 Single Level Latent Correlations and Internal Convergent and Discriminant Validity

Domain	AVE(√AVE)	Interfactor C	orrelations		
		GAD	MDE	ADHD	ODD
GAD	0.790 (0.889)	1			
MDE	0.638 (0.798)	0.833	1		
ADHD	0.591 (0.769)	0.465	0.593	1	
ODD	0.635 (0.776)	0.477	0.668	0.630	1

<u>Note</u>: Although there was a discriminant validity failure between GAD and MDE, given differential associations between substance use and anxiety versus depression exist and the overall model fit pointed towards a 4-factor model, subscales were kept separate in subsequent models

Table 2.4 Measurement invariance for the 4-factor model across gender and school level.

Model	$X^2(df)$	CFI	RMSEA (90% CI)	WRMR Model ΔX^2	Model	ΔX^2	ΔCFI	ARMSEA AWRMR Decision	Δ WRMR	Decision
					Comp					
Gender (n=3(Gender (n=30362; fem=15805; male=14557)	nale=1455	7)							
M1:	12225 (258)	0.974	0.974 0.055 (0.054, 0.056)	6.5	none					
Configural										
M2: Metric	14015 (272)	0.970	0.058 (0.057, 0.059)	6.9	M1	1891 (14)	-0.004	0.003	0.1	passed
						p<0.0001				
M3: Scalar	13950 (286)	0.971	0.056 (0.055, 0.057)	7.1	M2	363 (14)	0.001	-0.002	0.2	passed
						p<0.0001				
School Level	School Level (n=30536; elem=18665; sec=11871)	665; sec=	11871)							
M1:	13000 (258)	0.973	0.973 0.057 (0.056, 0.058)	8.9	none					
Configural										
M2: Metric	14084 (272)	0.971	0.058 (0.057, 0.058)	7.1	M1	1156 (14)	-0.002	0.001	0.3	passed
						p<0.0001				
M3: Scalar	14375 (286)	0.970	0.057 (0.056, 0.058)	7.3	M2	590 (14)	-0.001	-0.001	0.2	passed
						p<0.0001				

S3. Detailed List of Variables

3.1 Substance Use

All substance use items came from the National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth (1).

Frequency of Heavy Episodic Drinking (HED). Students were identified as having engaged in past month HED if they reported having 5 or more drinks of alcohol on the same occasion at any point within the past 4 weeks. Response options regarding frequency of HED over the previous month went from never (0) to 5 or more times (5).

Level of Cannabis Involvement (CAN). Cannabis was measured along a continuum of current involvement including: I have never tried marijuana (0); I have tried marijuana, but only once or twice (1; experimental); I used to smoke marijuana once a week, but have not done so in the last month (2; previous regular); I smoke sometimes, but not every week (3; occasional); and I usually smoke marijuana at least once a week (4; regular). Responses represent a stepped increase in use, except for previous regular use; therefore, a sensitivity analysis was performed removing and treating the previous regular option as missing and recoding the continuum from 0 to 3.

Tobacco Smoking (TOB). Smoking was measured along a continuum of current involvement including: I have never tried smoking, not even a few puffs (0); I have tried smoking, but only once or twice (1; experimental); I used to smoke every day, but have not smoked a cigarette in the last month (2; previous regular); I smoke sometimes, but not every day (3; occasional); and I usually smoke at least 1 cigarette a day (4; regular). Similar to cannabis, a sensitivity analysis was done where previous regular smoking was removed and treated as missing.

3.2 Mental Health Symptomatology

Mental health symptomatology was assessed using a modified subset of the 2014 OCHS-EBS (2) to measure frequency of symptoms over the preceding 6 months on a 3-point adjectival scale from no or not true (0) to often or very true (2). Scores are summed

where higher scores reflect more symptoms. The OCHS:EBS has undergone psychometric testing (2) demonstrating good internal consistency and test-retest reliability, and internal and external convergent and discriminant validity (2). This study included a modified subset of the OCHS:EBS scales for Generalized Anxiety Disorder (GAD; 4 items), Major Depressive Episode (MDE; 5 items), Oppositional Defiant Disorder (ODD; 5 items), and Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD; 4 items). We included MDE, GAD, ODD, and ADHD as separate indicators due to results from the Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA; See Supplementary Materials Section 2).

3.3 School Environment and Experience

School Climate. All school climate items came from the Delaware School Survey (3). Our school climate score is derived from summing the following subdomains: 1) Student to Student Relationships, including 4 items asking if students in the school are friendly, care about each other, respectful, and get along; 2) Teacher Student Relationships and Fairness, including 6 items asking if teachers treat students with respect, care about their students, listen to students when they have problems and whether adults treat students fairly, school rules are fair, and consequences of breaking rules are fair; 3) Academic Pressure and Expectations, including 3 items asking whether teachers expect students to work hard, require students to work hard to get good grades, and expect students to do their best at all times; and 4) Positive Behavioural Support and Social and Emotional Learning, including 5 items specifically related to SEL strategies implemented within their schools (e.g., whether students are taught to feel responsible for how they act, understand how others think and feel, that they can control their own behaviour, solve conflicts with others, and that they should care about how others feel) and 2 items related to the PBS concept of clarity of rules (e.g., whether students know how they are expected to act and know what the rules are). All items are worded to reflect student perceptions of how the student body feels (i.e., "students feel..." vs. "I feel...") and had response options scored from disagree a lot (1) to agree a lot (4).

School Belonging. This measure came from the Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health Wave 1 In-School Survey (4). Participants rated 3-items items from strongly disagree (0) to strongly agree (4): 1) *I feel close to people at this school*, 2) *I feel like I belong at this school*, and 3) *I am happy to be at this school*.'

School Safety. This measure includes 5 items adapted from the Chicago Public Schools Survey (5) asking about safety in the school hallways or stairwells, bathrooms or change rooms, classes as well as safety outside or around your school and on your way to school. Items were scored from not safe (0) to very safe (3).

S4. Detailed Student LPA Results

Detailed Methods

Substance use and mental health profiles were identified through LPA using Mplus (version 7). Random split halves were generated to perform sample crossvalidation. All substance use and mental health indicators were treated continuously, and different variance-covariance matrices were estimated (8). Using the first split half, models were estimated for 1 profile up until k profiles when the model no longer converged with up to 500 random starts or when Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) began to increase (8-10). The following class enumeration diagnostics were compared across models: convergence, BIC and Corrected Akaike's Information Criterion (CAIC), Approximate Weight of Evidence Criterion (AWE), Lo-Mendell-Rubin adjusted likelihood ratio test (LMR-LRT), bootstrapped likelihood ratio test (BLRT), and Relative Improvement (RI) (8). Models were also compared quantitatively and qualitatively based on clinical relevance of latent class separation, with quantitative class separation diagnostics including: posterior class probability (p), modal class assignment proportion (mcaP), average posterior probability (AvePP > 0.9), odds of correct classification (OCC>5), and overall entropy (>0.9) for the k-profile model (8). Models containing only substance use indicators were also explored and compared with the best fitting combined models to visualize whether any meaningful independent substance use profiles were lost when combining mental health and substance use indicators into one model. Lastly, indicator specific class homogeneity and separation were also explored. Class homogeneity was examined by comparing within class indicator variance to the overall sample variance whereby ratios of >0.9 indicate low homogeneity and <0.6 indicate high homogeneity. Class indicator separation was examined using standardized mean differences (SMDs) whereby SMDs >2 indicated high separation and <0.85 reflect low separation. Using the second split half, the best model was replicated by fixing parameter estimates based on the first split half estimates (8). The same k-class models, but now with freed parameters, were also estimated and compared using the same diagnostics as above. Subsequently, all models examined within split half one were re-estimated in split half two to see if all model estimates converged on the same final model selection. The best fitting model was re-estimated in the full sample. Measurement invariance across gender was then examined by: 1) stratifying the sample into males and females and reestimating best fitting models, and 2) using multi-group functioning where groups were i) constrained to have equal parameter estimates versus ii) freed parameter estimates (8, 10). Models were compared based on BIC and CAIC, AWE. Models were also compared quantitatively and qualitatively based on clinical relevance of latent class separation.

Detailed Results

- Table 4.1 Model enumeration fit statistics
- Table 4.2 Class diagnostics
- Table 4.3 Class homogeneity statistics
- Table 4.4 Class separation statistics
- Figure 4.1 Plots of model fit indices
- Figure 4.2 Plots of competing models
- Figure 4.3 Plots of models testing for gender invariance

In the first random split half, the 4 and 5 class invariant diagonal models fit best based on a combination of convergence, relative model fit indices (e.g., lowest BIC and significant LRTs), class diagnostics, and indicator specific homogeneity. The 4 and 5 profile models shared 4 qualitatively and quantitatively similar profiles – low across all, high across all, low substance but high internalizing, and high alcohol and cannabis and moderate mental health. The 5-profile model had a small additional distinct profile characterized by high alcohol and tobacco smoking and moderate mental health (3.6%). When examining substance use indicators alone (without mental health symptoms), a 4-profile model suggested high across all, low across all, high alcohol and cannabis only, and alcohol and tobacco smoking only. Thus, the 5-profile combined substance use and mental health model was retained as the additional profile (alcohol and tobacco smoking) was qualitatively distinct and important in the context of adolescent substance use

patterns. A 5-profile model was then fit to the second split half sample and both freed and fixed models yielded good model fit and similar class diagnostics. When re-estimating all models in split half 2, model fit, class homogeneity, and separation statistics were similar to split half 1. Thus, a 5-profile model was selected and re-estimated in the full sample to be used in subsequent school level profile estimation and regression modelling.

The final 5-profile substance use and mental health model in the full sample had an entropy of 0.92 identifying a low substance use and mental health profile (n=6,855, 57.6%, 'LOW'), a high substance use and mental health profile (n=772, 6.5%, 'HIGH'), a low substance use with high internalizing and moderate externalizing mental health symptom profile (n=2,672, 22.5%, 'HIGH MH'), a heavy episodic drinking and cannabis use with moderate mental health symptoms profile (n=1,160, 9.7%, 'HED/CAN'), and a heavy episodic drinking and tobacco use with moderate mental health symptoms profile (n=443, 3.7%, 'HED/TOB'). Average posterior probabilities were all >=0.9, OCCs all >5, and all mcaP were contained in the 90% CI for the model-estimated class proportion. Profile homogeneity was high for CAN, TOB, GAD, and MDE and moderate for HED, ADHD, and ODD. In general, there was high substance indicator separation between profiles in expected directions and mental health indicators were consistently moderately to highly separated between low and both high groups (i.e., HIGH and HIGH MH). See Figure 1 for a visual representation of the profiles. Sensitivity analyses revealed similar profiles and converged on a similar 5-profile solution.

Regarding gender invariance, although the free model had a lower BIC, CAIC, and AWE, both the fixed and freed models had high entropy (0.942 vs 0.943) and high posterior probabilities (all >0.88). Upon visual inspection (See Figure 4.3), males had slightly higher means of substance use whereas females had higher means of anxiety and depression scores – the differences in internalizing symptoms explained most of the difference in model fit as identified by a partially constrained model. Since the general qualitative pattern of profiles were similar, subsequent models and analyses were not stratified by gender to favour parsimony, interpretability, and chance of conversion in upper level.

Table 4.1 Model enumeration fit statistics (class-invariant diagonal)

k-classes	LL	Npar	BIC	CAIC	AWE	LMR-		Relative
		•				LRT p-	BLRT p-	Improvement
						value	value	
Secondary	Secondary Split Half 1 (n=5908)	(8065=1						
1	-82650.21	14	165421.99	165367.21	165374.21	n/a	n/a	n/a
2	-76641.62	22	153474.28	153388.204	153399.204	0.0000	0.0000	n/a
3	-74744.72	30	149749.97	149632.591	149647.591	0.0000	0.0000	0.315697
4	-72521.52	38	145373.04	145224.359	145243.359	0.0000	0.0000	0.370004
5	-71206.14	46	142811.75	142631.768	142654.768	0.0000	0.0000	0.218917
9	-70282.07	54	141033.49	140821.804	140848.804	0.0000	not replicated	0.153791
7	-69764.98	62	140068.38	139825.793	139856.793	0.6764	1.0000	0.086059
Secondary	Secondary Split Half 2 (n=5994)	1=5994)						
	-83977.969	14	168077.717	168022.826	168029.826	n/a	n/a	n/a
2	-77985.165	22	156161.695	156075.44	156086.44	0.0000	0.0000	n/a
3	-75761.599	30	151784.197	151666.53	151681.53	0.0000	0.0000	0.37103933
4	-74019.498	38	148369.54	148220.549	148239.549	0.0000	0.0000	0.29069881
5 - freed	-72619.174	46	145638.48	145458.123	145481.123	0.0000	0.0000	0.62976498
5 - fixed	-72683.593	4	145401.979	145386.2969	145388.297	0.0000	0.0000	n/a
9	-71665.746	54	143082.11	143589.489	143616.489	0.0000	0.0000	0.15909548
7	-71038.314	62	142615.936	142372.846	142403.846	0.0000	0.0000	0.10469757
8	Not replicated	р						
Secondary	Secondary Full Sample (n=11902)	n=11902)						
5	-143857.68	46	288147.053	287948.847	287971.847	0.0000	0.0000	n/a
Gender Inv	Gender Invariance Testing (n=11817)	ng (n=11817)						
5 - fixed	-150738.34	51	301954.928	301735.384	301760.884			
5 - free	-149742.15	98	300290.753	299920.542	299963.542			
5 - partial	-149916.31	61	300404.631	300142.039	300172.539			
M - 1	-79932.609	14	159986.347	159931.824	159938.824			
M - 2	-74275.737	22	148741.82	148656.14	148667.14	0.0000	0.0000	
M - 3	-72390.526	30	145040.613	144923.778	144938.778	0.0000	0.0000	0.33326032
M - 4	-70373.891	38	141076.561	140928.569	140947.569	0.0000	0.0000	0.35649295

M - 5	-69057.728	46	138513.451	138334.303	138357.303	0.0000	0.0000	0.23266622
9 - M	-68151.217 54	54	136769.646	136769.646 136559.342	136586.342	0.0005	90000	0.16024952
M - 7	-67441.396 62	62	135419.221	135419.221 135177.76	135208.76	0.0046	0.0049	0.12547942
M - 8	-66957.855 70	70	134298.355	134298.355 134248.738	134283.738	0.6935	0.6941	0.08547851
F - 1	-84272.621 14	14	168667.255	168612.232	168619.232			
F-2	-77996.294	22	156184.323	156097.857	156108.857	0.0000	0.0000	
F - 3	-75869.172 30	30	151999.8	151881.893	151896.893	0.0000	0.0000	0.33891191
F-4	-73777.55	38	147886.279	147736.929	147755.929	0.0000	0.0000	0.33325574
F - 5	-72373.875 46	46	145148.651	145148.651 144967.859	144990.859	0.0000	0.0000	0.22364593
F-6	not replicated							
Sensitivity	Sensitivity Analysis (n=11902)	1902)						
1	-158614.63 14	14	317360.64	317300.317	317307.317			
2	-147627	22	295462.455	295462.455 295365.66	295376.66	0.0000	0.0000	
3	-143845.14	30	287971.82	287842.555	287857.555	0.0000	0.0000	0.34419203
4	-140985.01	38	282326.624	282162.888	282181.888	0.0000	0.0000	0.26030506
5	-137977.07	46	276385.827	276187.621	276210.621	0.0008	0.0009	0.27375655
9	not replicated							

Split half 1 Split half 2 Relative Improvement 0.7 0.6 0.5 0.4 0.3 0.1 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Split half 1 Split half 2 AWE 160000 130000 170000 1234567 Split half 2 Split half 1 Figures 4.1 Elbow plots of model fit indices CAIC 160000 130000 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Split half 1 Split half 2 BIC 160000 140000 130000 170000

Table 4.2 Class diagnostics (class-invariant diagonal)

	n assigned	Posterior class	mcaPK	AvePP _K	OCCK	Entropy
	ii assigned	probability (90% CI*)	ilicar K	AVEFFE	OCCK	Еппору
Split half	f 1	productinty (5070 CT)				
4 profile						
1	3419	0.574 (0.564, 0.585)	0.579	0.952	14.7	
2	585	0.099 (0.093, 0.106)	0.099	0.966	257.3	
3	1381	0.237 (0.228, 0.246)	0.234	0.896	27.8	
4	523	0.090 (0.083, 0.096)	0.089	0.993	1443.0	0.902
5 profile						
1	206	0.034 (0.031, 0.038)	0.035	0.964	751.4	
2	1353	0.233 (0.224, 0.242)	0.229	0.899	29.3	
3	3400	0.571 (0.560, 0.582)	0.575	0.952	14.9	
4	374	0.064 (0.059, 0.069)	0.063	0.987	1110.9	
5	575	0.098 (0.091, 0.104)	0.097	0.983	534.3	0.919
6 profile	model			•	-	•
1	3069	0.517 (0.506, 0.528)	0.519	0.95	17.7	
2	1091	0.189 (0.181, 0.198)	0.185	0.885	32.9	
3	723	0.120 (0.113, 0.127)	0.122	0.957	163.5	
4	453	0.077 (0.071, 0.083)	0.077	0.992	1486.6	
5	205	0.034 (0.030, 0.038)	0.035	0.975	1097.7	
6	367	0.063 (0.057, 0.068)	0.062	0.992	1858.7	0.926
Split half	f 2					
4 profile	model					
1	569	0.096 (0.089, 0.102)	0.095	0.959	221.0	
2	1357	0.232 (0.223, 0.241)	0.226	0.894	28.0	
3	598	0.100 (0.094, 0.107)	0.100	0.983	518.2	
4	3470	0.572 (0.562, 0.583)	0.579	0.947	13.4	0.897
5 profile	model (freed)					
1	236	0.038 (0.034, 0.042)	0.039	0.954	520.2	
2	584	0.097 (0.091, 0.104)	0.097	0.977	393.9	
3	3443	0.569 (0.558, 0.579_	0.574	0.949	14.1	
4	401	0.068 (0.062, 0.073)	0.067	0.984	845.7	
5	1330	0.228 (0.219, 0.237)	0.222	0.894	28.6	0.914
6 profile	model					
1	716	0.116 (0.109, 0.123)	0.119	0.950	144.4	
2	1160	0.201 (0.192, 0.209)	0.194	0.888	31.6	
3	3035	0.502 (0.491, 0.513)	0.506	0.946	17.4	
4	464	0.078 (0.072, 0.083)	0.077	0.985	781.3	
5	224	0.037 (0.033, 0.041)	0.037	0.978	1143.2	
6	395	0.066 (0.061, 0.071)	0.066	0.986	995.1	0.922
	model (fixed)			1	1	
1	233	0.038 (0.034, 0.043)	0.039	0.966	709.9	
2	1321	0.225 (0.216, 0.234)	0.220	0.893	28.7	
3	3460	0.572 (0.561, 0.582)	0.577	0.95	14.2	
4	396	0.067 (0.062, 0.072)	0.066	0.986	981.1	
5	584	0.098 (0.091, 0.104)	0.097	0.979	431.1	0.916
Full Sam						
5 profile				T	1	Т
1	443	0.036 (0.032, 0.040)	0.037	0.957	590.2	_
2	1160	0.098 (0.091, 0.104)	0.097	0.979	431.1	
3	6855	0.570 (0.559,0.581)	0.576	0.95	14.3	
4	772	0.066 (0.061, 0.071)	0.065	0.987	1075.5	0.916

Ph.D. Thesis – J. Halladay; McMaster University – Health Research Methodology

5	2672	0.230 (0.221, 0.239)	0.225	0.897	29.1					
Gender	fixed									
Male – 5	profile model									
1	842	0.074 (0.068, 0.079)	0.071	0.880	91.9					
2	221	0.018 (0.015, 0.021)	0.019	0.950	1026.7					
3	630	0.054 (0.049, 0.058)	0.053	0.980	866.9					
4	3608	0.302 (0.293, 0.312)	0.305	0.962	58.4					
5	421	0.036 (0.032, 0.040)	0.036	0.988	2184.6	0.942				
Female -	5 profile model									
1	1860	0.160 (0.152, 0.167)	0.157	0.908	52.0					
2	216	0.018 (0.015, 0.021)	0.018	0.969	1691.9					
3	519	0.044 (0.039, 0.048)	0.044	0.978	969.6					
4	3157	0.265 (0.256, 0.274)	0.267	0.939	42.7					
5	343	0.029 (0.026, 0.033)	0.029	0.983	1917.7					
Gender	Freed									
Male - 5	profile model									
1	222	0.019 (0.016, 0.021)	0.019	0.970	1706.0					
2	3400	0.285 (0.275, 0.295)	0.288	0.956	54.5					
3	1054	0.092 (0.086, 0.098)	0.089	0.891	80.7					
4	422	0.036 (0.032, 0.040)	0.036	0.986	1885.9					
5	624	0.053 (0.048, 0.058)	0.053	0.981	926.4	0.943				
Female -	- 5 profile model									
1	3367	0.283 (0.274, 0.293)	0.285	0.947	45.2					
2	529	0.045 (0.040, 0.049)	0.045	0.981	1100.1					
3	1642	0.141 (0.133, 0.148)	0.139	0.903	56.9					
4	210	0.017 (0.014, 0.020)	0.018	0.950	1085.7					
5	347	0.030 (0.026, 0.034)	0.029	0.986	2283.5					
Gender partially constrained (all but internalizing)										
Male – 5	profile model	-				-				
1	3303	0.275 (0.266, 0.285)	0.280	0.948	48.0					
2	428	0.037 (0.033, 0.041)	0.036	0.984	1617.9					
3	218	0.018 (0.015, 0.021)	0.018	0.956	1176.0					
4	625	0.053 (0.048, 0.058)	0.053	0.982	974.6					
5	1148	0.101 (0.095, 0.108)	0.097	0.894	74.9	0.941				
Female -	5 profile model									
1	3497	0.295 (0.285, 0.305)	0.296	0.953	48.5					
2	337	0.029 (0.025, 0.033)	0.029	0.988	2761.7					
3	219	0.018 (0.015, 0.021)	0.019	0.966	1531.8					
4	530	0.044 (0.040, 0.049)	0.045	0.977	912.7					
5	1512	0.129 (0.122, 0.137)	0.128	0.899	59.9					

^{*90%} confidence interval based on calculations for proportions.

Table 4.3 Class homogeneity comparing within class variance for each indicator to the overall sample variance, where ≥0.9 indicates low homogeneity and <0.6 indicates high homogeneity.

	HED		CAN		TOB		GAD		MDE		ADHD		ODD		
	Var	Ratio	Var	Ratio	Var	Ratio	Var	Ratio	Var	Ratio	Var	Ratio	Var	Ratio	
Random Split Half 1	Half 1														
Comparison															
(Full)	2.04	2.04 n/a	1.55	n/a	1.09	n/a	68.9	n/a	7.15	n/a	4.29	n/a	5.70	n/a	
4 LPA	1.41	69.0	0.33	0.21	0.16	0.14	4.00	0.58	4.06	0.57	3.50	0.82	4.54	08.0	
5 LPA	1.41	69.0	0.19	0.12	0.15	0.14	4.03	0.59	4.09	0.57	3.50	0.82	4.52	0.79	
6 LPA	1.35	99.0	80.0	0.05	0.14	0.13	4.49	0.65	4.44	0.62	3.52	0.82	4.58	08.0	
Random Split Half 2	Half 2														
Comparison															
(Fuli)	2.03	n/a	1.54	n/a	0.50	n/a	6.79	n/a	2.06	n/a	4.44	n/a	5.71	n/a	
4 LPA	1.40	69.0	0.34	0.22	0.16	0.33	4.00	0.59	4.00	0.57	3.63	0.82	4.54	0.79	
5 LPA	1.41	0.70	0.18	0.12	0.16	0.31	4.07	09.0	4.06	0.58	3.64	0.82	4.54	08.0	
6 LPA	1.34	99.0	80.0	0.05	0.15	0.29	4.38	0.65	4.31	0.61	3.63	0.82	4.57	08.0	
Full sample															
Comparison															
(Full)	2.04	2.04 n/a	1.55	n/a	1.10	n/a	6.84	n/a	7.10	n/a	4.37	n/a	5.71	n/a	
5 I D A final 1 /1 0 60 0 19	1 / 1	090	0.18	0.10	0.15	0.17	7 0 6	05 0	4 08	250	L5 E	68.0	1 53	0.70	

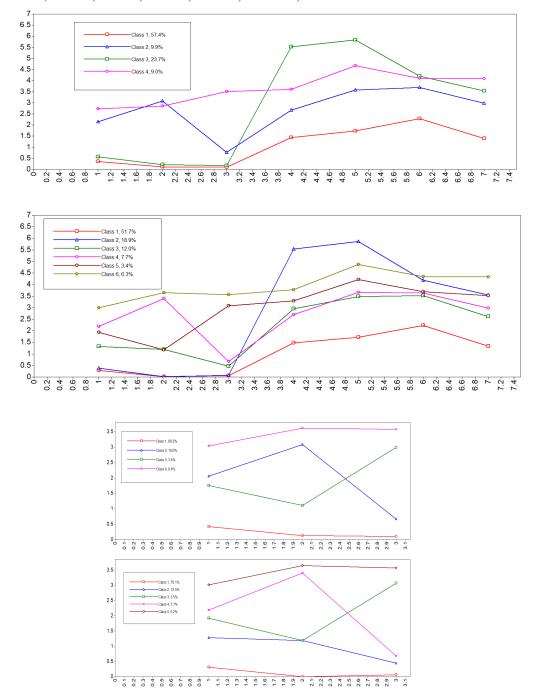


Figure 4.2 Plots of competing models and substance-use only models (random split half 1) where 1=HED, 2=CAN, 3=TOB, 4=GAD, 5=MDE, 6=ADHD, 7=ODD.

Table 4.4 Class separation, comparing standardized mean differences (via cohen's d) between classes where d<0.85 is a low degree of class separation and d>2 is high in the final 5-LPA.

HED Summary:

- HED&TOB and HED&CAN are poorly separated
- HIGH MH is poorly separated from LOW and both HIGH MH and LOW are highly separated from HIGH

	HED/TOB	HED/CAN	Low	High	Low SU, High
					MH
HED/TOB (3.7%)	0	-0.12	1.27	-0.93	1.11
HED/CAN (9.7%)	0.12	0.00	1.39	-0.81	1.23
Low (57.6%)	-1.27	-1.39	0.00	-2.20	-0.16
High (6.5%)	0.93	0.81	2.20	0.00	2.05
Low SU, High MH (22.5%)	-1.11	-1.23	0.16	-2.05	0.00

CAN Summary:

 Cannabis use is highly separated between the classes with the exception of the low separation between LOW and HIGH MH and moderate separation between HIGH and HED/CAN

	HED/TOB	HED/CAN	Low	High	Low SU, High
					MH
HED/TOB (3.7%)	0	-4.66	2.27	-5.84	2.13
HED/CAN (9.7%)	4.66	0.00	6.92	-1.18	6.78
Low (57.6%)	-2.27	-6.92	0.00	-8.10	-0.14
High (6.5%)	5.84	1.18	8.10	0.00	7.96
Low SU, High MH (22.5%)	-2.13	-6.78	0.14	-7.96	0.00

TOB Summary:

 Smoking is highly separated between the classes with the exception of the low separation between LOW and HIGH MH and moderate separation between LOW and HED/CAN and HIGH and HED/TOB

	HED/TOB	HED/CAN	Low	High	Low SU, High
					MH
HED/TOB (3.7%)	0	6.10	7.52	-1.27	7.40
HED/CAN (9.7%)	-6.10	0.00	1.42	-7.36	1.31
Low (57.6%)	-7.52	-1.42	0.00	-8.79	-0.12
High (6.5%)	1.27	7.36	8.79	0.00	8.67
Low SU, High MH (22.5%)	-7.40	-1.31	0.12	-8.67	0.00

GAD Summary:

- High separation between the LOW and HIGH MH group
- $\bullet \hspace{0.4cm}$ Low separation between HED/TOB, HED/CAN, and HIGH as well as LOW and HED/CAN
- Moderate separation between LOW with HED/TOB and HIGH as well as HIGH MH with HED/TOB and HED/CAN

	HED/TOB	HED/CAN	Low	High	Low SU, High
					MH
HED/TOB (3.7%)	0	0.29	0.96	-0.20	-1.04
HED/CAN (9.7%)	-0.29	0.00	0.67	-0.49	-1.33
Low (57.6%)	-0.96	-0.67	0.00	-1.17	-2.01
High (6.5%)	0.20	0.49	1.17	0.00	-0.84

Low SU, High MH (22.5%)	1.04	1.33	2.01	0.84	0.00
MDF Summary:					

- High separation between the LOW and HIGH MH group
- Low separation between HED/TOB, HED/CAN, and HIGH
- Moderate separation between LOW all substance use profiles. And HIGH MH with HED/CAN

	HED/TOB	HED/CAN	Low	High	Low SU, High
					MH
HED/TOB (3.7%)	0	0.37	1.28	-0.30	-0.73
HED/CAN (9.7%)	-0.37	0.00	0.91	-0.67	-1.10
Low (57.6%)	-1.28	-0.91	0.00	-1.58	-2.01
High (6.5%)	0.30	0.67	1.58	0.00	-0.43
Low SU, High MH (22.5%)	0.73	1.10	2.01	0.43	0.00

ADHD Summary:

- Low separation between most classes of note, high variance in the sample
- Moderate separation between LOW with HIGH and HIGH MH

	HED/TOB	HED/CAN	Low	High	Low SU, High
					MH
HED/TOB (3.7%)	0	0.04	0.82	-0.25	-0.17
HED/CAN (9.7%)	-0.04	0.00	0.78	-0.30	-0.21
Low (57.6%)	-0.82	-0.78	0.00	-1.08	-0.99
High (6.5%)	0.25	0.30	1.08	0.00	0.09
Low SU, High MH (22.5%)	0.17	0.21	0.99	-0.09	0.00

ODD Summary:

- Low separation between most classes of note, high variance in the sample
- Moderate separation between LOW with HIGH and HIGH MH

*					
	HED/TOB	HED/CAN	Low	High	Low SU, High
					MH
HED/TOB (3.7%)	0	0.25	0.98	-0.38	-0.03
HED/CAN (9.7%)	-0.25	0.00	0.73	-0.63	-0.28
Low (57.6%)	-0.98	-0.73	0.00	-1.36	-1.01
High (6.5%)	0.38	0.63	1.36	0.00	0.36
Low SU, High MH (22.5%)	0.03	0.28	1.01	-0.36	0.00

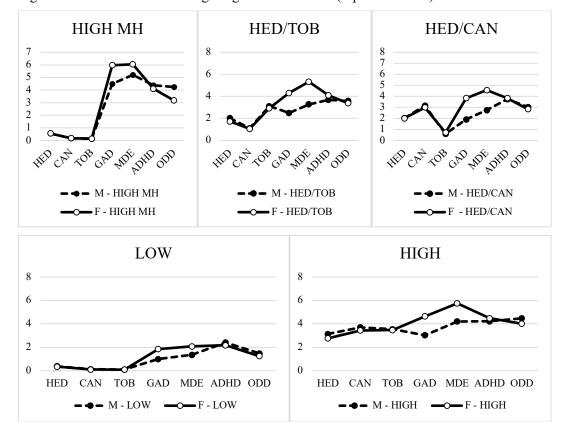


Figure 4.3 Plots of models testing for gender invariance (5-profile model)

S5. Detailed school MLPA results

Models were compared based on AIC, BIC, LRT-LMR, BLRT, statistical convergence, and theoretical interpretation; BIC was the primary criterion for model selection. Student profiles were then regressed on school classes using multinomial regression to determine if there were statistically significant differences between student latent profile proportions for school latent classes. Once a final model was selected, the posterior probabilities and most likely class memberships for both student level profiles and school level classes from the MLPA were used for subsequent modeling.

Table 5.1 Model enumeration fit statistics (n=11902)

k-classes	LL	Npar	BIC	CAIC	AWE	Entropy
School random effects only	-143595	56	287715	287474	287502	0.916
school 1	-143858	46	288147	287949	287972	0.916
school 2	-143694	51	287866	287646	287672	0.903
school 3	-143633	56	287791	287550	287578	0.915
school 4*	-143603	61	287779	287516	287546	0.905

^{*}had to fix parameters to estimate resulting in invalid/untrustworthy SEs due to model

nonidentification

Table 5.2 Class diagnostics

	n assigned	Posterior class probability (90% CI*)	mcaPK	AvePP _K	OCC _K	Entropy
2-School cla	ss model	1 ()	1	1	1	1
School 1: Lo	OWER SUBSTA	NCE SCHOOL				
HIGH MH	1382 (24.0%)	0.113 (0.106, 0.120)	0.116	0.875	54.980	
LOW	3661 (63.6%)	0.312 (0.302, 0.322)	0.308	0.929	28.901	
HED/TOB	126 (2.2%)	0.011 (0.009, 0.013)	0.011	0.923	1094.847	
HED/CAN	384 (6.7%)	0.034 (0.030, 0.038)	0.032	0.949	525.004	
HIGH	204 (3.5%)	0.018 (0.015, 0.021)	0.017	0.956	1171.423	0.903
School 2: H	IGH SUBSTANG	CE USE SCHOOL				
HIGH MH	1300 (21.2%)	0.107 (0.101, 0.114)	0.109	0.850	47.199	
LOW	3185 (51.8%)	0.258 (0.249, 0.268)	0.268	0.904	27.030	
HED/TOB	317 (5.2%)	0.025 (0.022, 0.029)	0.027	0.931	515.842	
HED/CAN	773 (12.6%)	0.063 (0.058, 0.069)	0.065	0.938	223.725	
HIGH	570 (5.7%)	0.048 (0.043, 0.052)	0.048	0.959	466.458	
3-School cla	ss model					
School 1: Lo	OWER SUBSTA	NCE SCHOOL				
LOW	2650 (64.5%)	0.226 (0.217, 0.235)	0.223	0.916	37.349	
HIGH	117 (2.8%)	0.011 (0.008, 0.013)	0.010	0.949	1722.070	
HED/TOB	82 (2.0%)	0.007 (0.005, 0.009)	0.007	0.887	1126.480	
HIGH MH	1023 (24.9%)	0.091 (0.084, 0.097)	0.086	0.86	61.652	
HED/CAN	236 (5.7%)	0.021 (0.018, 0.024)	0.020	0.923	569.907	0.915
School 2: H	IGH SUBSTAN	CE USE SCHOOL				
LOW	593 (44.1%)	0.049 (0.045, 0.054)	0.050	0.929	253.023	
HIGH	215 (16.0%)	0.018 (0.015, 0.021)	0.018	0.964	1460.877	
HED/TOB	128 (9.5%)	0.010 (0.009, 0.013)	0.011	0.952	1878.093	
HIGH MH	264 (19.6%)	0.022 (0.019, 0.025)	0.022	0.873	304.308	
HED/CAN	146 (10.8%)	0.012 (0.010, 0.014)	0.012	0.947	1471.126	
School 3: M	ODERATE SUE	STANCE USE SCHOO	Ļ			
LOW	3611 (56.0%)	0.295 (0.285, 0.305)	0.303	0.908	23.598	
HIGH	445 (6.9%)	0.037 (0.033, 0.041)	0.037	0.951	501.197	
HED/TOB	232 (3.6%)	0.019 (0.016, 0.022)	0.019	0.913	546.230	
HIGH MH	1385 (21.5%)	0.117 (0.11, 0.0124)	0.116	0.854	43.953	
HED/CAN	775 (12.0%)	0.065 (0.060, 0.070)	0.065	0.954	298.275	

^{*90%} confidence interval based on calculations for proportions.

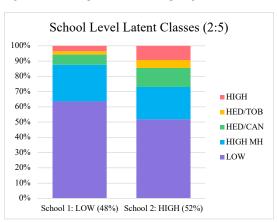


Figure 5.1 Visual representation of competing model

Table 5.3 Multilevel multinomial logistic regression using School Classes to predict individual Student Profile Membership, using the low school and low student profile as the references (n=11902). Results presented as ORs (95% CIs); p-values.

	LOW	HIGH MH	HED/CAN	HED/TOB	HIGH
Low-Use	reference	reference	reference	reference	reference
School					
Moderate-Use	reference	1.15 (0.98 to	2.41 (2.07 to	2.08 (1.61 to	2.79 (2.26 to
School		1.36); 0.0845	2.81); <.0001	2.68); < .0001	3.44); < .0001
High-Use	reference	0.99 (0.9 to	2.76 (2.21 to	6.98 (5.21 to	8.21 (6.45 to
School		1.09); 0.894	3.46); < .0001	9.33); <.0001	10.46); < .0001

Table 5.4 Multilevel linear regression using School Classes to predict individual student indicator mean, using the low school as the references (n=11835). Results presented as ORs (95% CIs); p-values.

	HED	CAN	TOB	GAD	MDE	ADHD	ODD
Low-Use School	reference						
Moderate- Use School	1.44 (1.27- 1.64); <.0001	1.49 (1.36- 1.62); <.0001	1.27 (1.19- 1.36); <.0001	1.05 (0.89- 1.25); 0.5538	1.03 (0.85- 1.26); 0.7392	1.25 (1.1- 1.41); 0.0006	0.96 (0.83- 1.12); 0.6137
High-Use School	2.38 (1.98- 2.87); <.0001	2.05 (1.81- 2.32); <.0001	2.27 (2.06- 2.5); <.0001	1.17 (0.91- 1.51); 0.2217	1.61 (1.2- 2.14); 0.0017*	1.55 (1.29- 1.86); <.0001	1.33 (1.07- 1.66); 0.0115

^{*}when reference group changed to moderate, no significant difference in MDE between high and moderate schools

Table 5.5 Pooled aggregate descriptive statistics for student substance use and mental health symptomatology across school types across imputations All estimates at the school level.

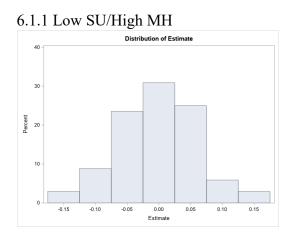
	Total	LOW	MOD	HIGH (n=10)	P-value*
		(n=19)	(n=39)		
HED mean	0.8 (0.4)	0.5 (0.2)	0.8 (0.2)	1.3 (0.4)	<0.001
CAN mean	0.7 (0.3)	0.4 (0.1)	0.8 (0.2)	1.1 (0.2)	<0.001
TOB mean	0.5 (0.3)	0.3 (0.1)	0.5 (0.1)	1.1 (0.2)	<0.001
GAD mean	2.8 (0.3)	2.7 (0.3)	2.8 (0.4)	2.9 (0.3)	0.5
MDE mean	3.2 (0.4)	3.1 (0.3)	3.2 (0.4)	3.6 (0.5)	0.006
ADHD mean	3.1 (0.3)	2.9 (0.2)	3.1 (0.2)	3.3 (0.2)	<0.001
ODD mean	2.3 (0.3)	2.3 (0.2)	2.3 (0.3)	2.5 (0.4)	0.08

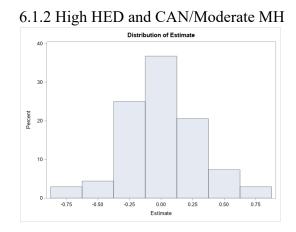
^{*} from univariable pooled ANOVA or Fisher's Exact

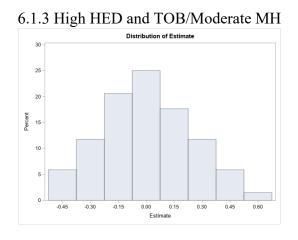
S6. Detailed Model Fit and Multinomial Regression Results

Model Fit: Given the parametric random effects MLPA fit well (with a slightly lower/better BIC and entropy than the nonparametric approach), a random intercept model was appropriate for controlling for school clustering in regression analysis of student level profiles. The appropriateness of this approach was confirmed by examining the distribution of random intercepts, ensuring a normal distribution across models (See figures below). To note, the variance inflation factor was <2 for all models.

Figure 6.1 Random intercept distributions (example, belonging fully adjusted model using imputation 1, reference group=LOW)







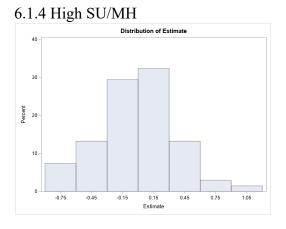
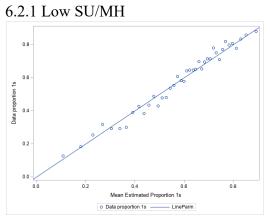
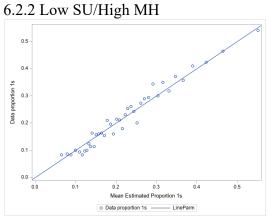
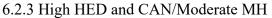
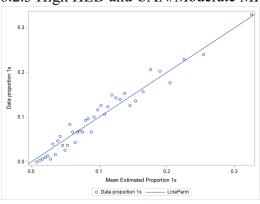


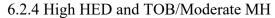
Figure 5.2 Predicted probabilities versus observed profile membership (example, belonging fully adjusted model using imputation 1, reference group = LOW). Note, observations ordered based on predicted probability and then grouped into 40 ~equal group to be able to visualize.

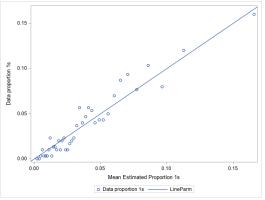


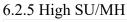


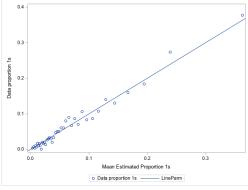












Full Multinomial Regression Results.

Table 6.1A School Climate Model (reference=Low SU/MH). Reported as Odds Ratios (95% Confidence Interval); p-value.

Reference Group: Low	Low SU/High MH	High HEDCAN/	High HEDTOB/	High SU/MH
SU/MH		Moderate MH	Moderate MH	
Climate	0.93 (0.92-0.93); <.0001	0.92 (0.91-0.93); <.0001	0.93 (0.91-0.94); <.0001	0.88 (0.87-0.89); <.0001
Female	2.13 (1.93-2.34); <.0001	0.93 (0.81-1.06); 0.2791	1.1 (0.9-1.35); 0.3537	1.02 (0.86-1.2); 0.8536
Age	1.09 (1.05-1.13); <.0001	1.55 (1.48-1.63); <.0001	1.51 (1.4-1.63); <.0001	1.46 (1.37-1.55); <.0001
Family Assets	0.95 (0.91-1.01); 0.0861	1.04 (0.97-1.12); 0.2437	0.94 (0.84-1.04); 0.2021	0.86 (0.79-0.93); 0.0001
1st gen	0.99 (0.84-1.17); 0.9257	0.54 (0.41-0.69); <.0001	0.84 (0.57-1.24); 0.374	0.48 (0.34-0.67); <.0001
2 nd gen	0.94 (0.82-1.07); 0.3548	0.81 (0.68-0.97); 0.0241	0.66 (0.49-0.88); 0.0054	0.52 (0.41-0.67); <.0001
2 parents	0.76 (0.68-0.86); <.0001	0.54 (0.46-0.63); <.0001	0.51 (0.41-0.64); <.0001	0.54 (0.45-0.65); <.0001
Parents PS	0.83 (0.73-0.95); 0.0059	0.65 (0.55-0.77); <.0001	0.67 (0.52-0.87); 0.0022	0.47 (0.38-0.57); <.0001
ESA	1.04 (0.87-1.23); 0.6719	0.41 (0.3-0.56); <.0001	0.31 (0.18-0.53); <.0001	0.54 (0.36-0.82); 0.0038
Black	0.62 (0.49-0.79); 0.0001	1 (0.74-1.35); 0.9984	0.58 (0.33-1); 0.0488	0.65 (0.42-1.02); 0.0589
Other	1.05 (0.88-1.27); 0.5728	1.31 (1.03-1.67); 0.0266	1.09 (0.74-1.6); 0.661	1.57 (1.17-2.1); 0.0029
Multiracial	1.26 (1.06-1.5); 0.0084	1.28 (1.01-1.63); 0.0414	1.41 (1-2); 0.0488	1.39 (1.05-1.85); 0.0231
School Size				
(increments of 200)	0.99 (0.95-1.02); 0.4949	1.04 (0.96-1.12); 0.3288	0.91 (0.83-1); 0.0584	0.94 (0.86-1.04); 0.2243
Median Income				
(increments of \$10,000)	1.03 (1-1.06); 0.0628	1.05 (0.99-1.12); 0.1012	0.93 (0.86-1.01); 0.0906	1.04 (0.96-1.12); 0.3067
Rural	0.94 (0.8-1.1); 0.4522	0.97 (0.71-1.33); 0.8546	1.36 (0.94-1.96); 0.1025	1.42 (0.98-2.06); 0.0659

Table 6.1B School Climate Model (reference=Low SU/High MH). Reported as Odds Ratios (95% Confidence Interval); p-value.

i adie 0.1D School Chimate	Model (reference—Low SU/II	Labre 0.1D School Chillate Mouet (reference-Low SU/High MH). Reported as Odds Katios (92%) Colliderice Intervaly, p-vatue.	atios (93% Cominence mierva	ai); p-vaiue.
Reference Group: Low	Low SU/ MH	High HEDCAN/	High HEDTOB/	High SU/MH
SU/High MH		Moderate MH	Moderate MH	
Climate	1.08 (1.07-1.09); <.0001	0.99 (0.98-1); 0.1448	1 (0.99-1.01); 0.9347	0.95 (0.94-0.96); <.0001
Female	0.47 (0.43-0.52); <.0001	0.44 (0.38-0.51); <.0001	0.52 (0.42-0.64); <.0001	0.48 (0.4-0.57); <.0001
Age	0.92 (0.89-0.95); <.0001	1.43 (1.35-1.51); <.0001	1.39 (1.29-1.5); <.0001	1.34 (1.26-1.42); <.0001
Family Assets	1.05 (0.99-1.1); 0.0829	1.09 (1.01-1.18); 0.0224	0.98 (0.88-1.09); 0.7229	0.9 (0.83-0.97); 0.009
1st gen	1 (0.85-1.19); 0.9688	0.54 (0.41-0.71); <.0001	0.84 (0.56-1.25); 0.3874	0.48 (0.33-0.68); <.0001
2 nd gen	1.06 (0.93-1.21); 0.3912	0.86 (0.71-1.05); 0.1427	0.7 (0.51-0.95); 0.0212	0.56 (0.43-0.72); <.0001
2 parents	1.31 (1.16-1.48); <.0001	0.71 (0.6-0.84); <.0001	0.67 (0.53-0.85); 0.0011	0.71 (0.58-0.86); 0.0005
Parents PS	1.2 (1.06-1.37); 0.0049	0.78 (0.65-0.94); 0.0078	0.81 (0.62-1.05); 0.1112	0.56 (0.46-0.69); <.0001
ESA	0.94 (0.79-1.12); 0.4909	0.39 (0.28-0.54); <.0001	0.29 (0.17-0.5); <.0001	0.51 (0.33-0.78); 0.0019
Black	1.59 (1.25-2.02); 0.0002	1.59 (1.13-2.24); 0.0081	0.92 (0.52-1.63); 0.7658	1.04 (0.65-1.65); 0.8688
Other	0.94 (0.78-1.14); 0.5441	1.24 (0.95-1.62); 0.11	1.03 (0.69-1.53); 0.8952	1.48 (1.08-2.02); 0.0141
Multiracial	0.79 (0.66-0.94); 0.008	1.01 (0.79-1.31); 0.9182	1.12 (0.78-1.59); 0.5439	1.1 (0.82-1.47); 0.5358
School Size				
(increments of 200)	1.02 (0.98-1.05); 0.3985	1.05 (0.98-1.14); 0.1826	0.93 (0.84-1.02); 0.1152	0.96 (0.87-1.05); 0.3722
Median Income				
(increments of \$10,000)	0.97 (0.94-1); 0.0612	1.02 (0.96-1.09); 0.4948	0.91 (0.84-0.98); 0.0152	1.01 (0.94-1.09); 0.7815
Rural	1.06 (0.9-1.25); 0.5016	1.03 (0.74-1.42); 0.8749	1.43 (0.99-2.07); 0.0561	1.5 (1.03-2.18); 0.0344

Table 6.1C School Climate Gender Interaction Model. Reported as Odds Ratios (95% Confidence Interval); p-value.

Reference: Low	Low SU/High MH	HEDCAN/Moderate MH	HEDTOB/Moderate MH	High SU/MH
Climate	0.93 (0.92-0.94); <.0001	0.92 (0.91-0.93); <.0001	0.94 (0.92-0.96); <.0001	0.88 (0.87-0.89); <.0001
Female	2.03 (1.23-3.34); 0.0053	1.02 (0.52-2); 0.9507	3.22 (1.23-8.43); 0.0173	1.61 (0.78-3.29); 0.1956
Climate*Female	1 (0.99-1.02); 0.824	1 (0.98-1.02); 0.7962	0.97 (0.94-1); 0.025	0.99 (0.97-1.01); 0.1998
Age	1.09 (1.05-1.13); <.0001	1.55 (1.48-1.63); <.0001	1.51 (1.4-1.63); <.0001	1.46 (1.37-1.54); <.0001
Family Assets	0.95 (0.91-1.01); 0.086	1.04 (0.97-1.12); 0.2461	0.94 (0.84-1.04); 0.2037	0.86 (0.79-0.93); 0.0001
l st gen	0.99 (0.84-1.17); 0.9341	0.53 (0.41-0.69); <.0001	0.84 (0.57-1.24); 0.3745	0.48 (0.34-0.67); <.0001
2 nd gen	0.94 (0.82-1.07); 0.3578	0.81 (0.68-0.97); 0.024	0.65 (0.49-0.88); 0.0052	0.52 (0.41-0.67); <.0001
2 parents	0.76 (0.68-0.86); <.0001	0.54 (0.46-0.64); <.0001	0.51 (0.41-0.64); <.0001	0.54 (0.45-0.65); <.0001
Parents PS	0.83 (0.73-0.95); 0.0058	0.65 (0.55-0.77); <.0001	0.67 (0.52-0.87); 0.0022	0.47 (0.38-0.57); <.0001
ESA	1.04 (0.87-1.23); 0.6815	0.41 (0.3-0.56); <.0001	0.31 (0.19-0.53); <.0001	0.55 (0.36-0.83); 0.0044
Black	0.62 (0.49-0.79); 0.0001	1 (0.74-1.35); 0.9984	0.57 (0.33-0.99); 0.0468	0.65 (0.42-1.02); 0.0591
Other	1.05 (0.88-1.27); 0.5738	1.31 (1.03-1.67); 0.0265	1.09 (0.74-1.6); 0.6643	1.56 (1.17-2.1); 0.0029
Multiracial	1.26 (1.06-1.5); 0.0085	1.28 (1.01-1.63); 0.0422	1.42 (1.01-2.01); 0.0454	1.39 (1.05-1.85); 0.0224
School Size	0.99 (0.95-1.02); 0.4941	1.04 (0.96-1.12); 0.3292	0.91 (0.83-1); 0.0576	0.94 (0.86-1.04); 0.2222
Median Income	1.03 (1-1.06); 0.0628	1.05 (0.99-1.12); 0.1005	0.94 (0.87-1.01); 0.0952	1.04 (0.96-1.12); 0.3041
Rural	0.94 (0.8-1.1); 0.4469	0.97 (0.71-1.33); 0.8541	1.37 (0.95-1.98); 0.0947	1.42 (0.98-2.07); 0.0636

Table 6.2A School Belonging Model (reference=Low SU/MH). Reported as Odds Ratios (95% Confidence Interval); p-value.

i adie 6.2A School Belonging	LADIE O.ZA SCHOOL BEIOUGIIIG MOUEL (FEIFFEIRCE-LOW SUMILI). REPOITED AS OUDS KAUOS (32%) COMMENCE INCIVAL), P-VAIUE,	win). Keported as Odds Kallos	s (93% Conndence interval); p	-value.
Reference Group: Low SU/MH	Low SU/High MH	High HEDCAN/ Moderate MH	High HEDTOB/ Moderate MH	High SU/MH
Belonging	0.78 (0.77-0.8); <.0001	0.83 (0.81-0.85); <.0001	0.8 (0.77-0.82); <.0001	0.74 (0.72-0.76); <.0001
Female	1.84 (1.67-2.03); <.0001	0.81 (0.71-0.92); 0.0016	0.94 (0.77-1.16); 0.5806	0.76 (0.64-0.89); 0.0008
Age	1.09 (1.05-1.12); <.0001	1.55 (1.47-1.62); <.0001	1.5 (1.39-1.61); <.0001	1.43 (1.34-1.51); <.0001
Family Assets	0.98 (0.93-1.03); 0.4126	1.07 (0.99-1.15); 0.0863	0.96 (0.87-1.06); 0.4467	0.86 (0.8-0.93); 0.0002
1st gen	0.87 (0.73-1.03); 0.1031	0.47 (0.36-0.61); <.0001	0.72 (0.49-1.07); 0.1038	0.41 (0.3-0.58); <.0001
2 nd gen	0.92 (0.8-1.05); 0.2032	0.79 (0.66-0.94); 0.0083	0.64 (0.47-0.86); 0.0031	0.5 (0.39-0.63); <.0001
2 parents	0.82 (0.72-0.92); 0.0011	0.56 (0.48-0.65); <.0001	0.54 (0.43-0.68); <.0001	0.56 (0.47-0.68); <.0001
Parents PS	0.88 (0.77-1); 0.045	0.67 (0.56-0.79); <.0001	0.7 (0.54-0.9); 0.006	0.47 (0.39-0.57); <.0001
ESA	1.02 (0.85-1.21); 0.8504	0.4 (0.29-0.54); <.0001	0.3 (0.18-0.51); <.0001	0.53 (0.35-0.8); 0.0024
Black	0.59 (0.46-0.76); <.0001	1.02 (0.76-1.38); 0.8901	0.56 (0.32-0.97); 0.0378	0.78 (0.51-1.18); 0.2411
Other	1.02 (0.85-1.23); 0.8359	1.32 (1.04-1.68); 0.0233	1.08 (0.73-1.58); 0.7048	1.63 (1.22-2.17); 0.001
Multiracial	1.24 (1.04-1.48); 0.0164	1.3 (1.02-1.65); 0.032	1.41 (0.99-1.99); 0.0534	1.48 (1.12-1.96); 0.0065
School Size				
(increments of 200)	1.01 (0.97-1.04); 0.7968	1.05 (0.97-1.13); 0.2431	0.93 (0.84-1.02); 0.1189	0.95 (0.86-1.05); 0.3073
Median Income				
(increments of \$10,000)	1.02 (0.99-1.05); 0.3023	1.05 (0.98-1.11); 0.151	0.93 (0.86-1); 0.0578	1.03 (0.95-1.12); 0.4177
Rural	0.95 (0.8-1.13); 0.5626	0.99 (0.72-1.37); 0.9632	1.38 (0.95-2); 0.0907	1.46 (0.99-2.17); 0.058

Table 6.2B School Belonging Model (reference=Low SU/High MH). Reported as Odds Ratios (95% Confidence Interval); p-value.

Reference Group: Low	Low SU/ MH	High HEDCAN/	High HEDTOB/	High SU/MH
SU/High MH		Moderate MH	Moderate MH	
Belonging	1.28 (1.25-1.3); <.0001	1.06 (1.03-1.08); <.0001	1.01 (0.98-1.05); 0.4299	0.94 (0.91-0.96); <.0001
Female	0.54 (0.49-0.6); <.0001	0.44 (0.38-0.51); <.0001	0.51 (0.42-0.63); <.0001	0.41 (0.35-0.49); <.0001
Age	0.93 (0.89-0.96); <.0001	1.43 (1.36-1.51); <.0001	1.39 (1.28-1.5); <.0001	1.32 (1.24-1.4); <.0001
Family Assets	1.02 (0.97-1.08); 0.3947	1.09 (1.01-1.18); 0.0286	0.98 (0.89-1.09); 0.7709	0.88 (0.82-0.96); 0.003
1st gen	1.15 (0.97-1.36); 0.1164	0.54 (0.41-0.71); <.0001	0.83 (0.55-1.23); 0.3495	0.47 (0.33-0.67); <.0001
2 nd gen	1.08 (0.95-1.24); 0.2353	0.85 (0.7-1.04); 0.1173	0.69 (0.51-0.94); 0.0194	0.54 (0.42-0.69); <.0001
2 parents	1.22 (1.08-1.38); 0.0012	0.68 (0.58-0.81); <.0001	0.66 (0.52-0.84); 0.0007	0.69 (0.57-0.83); 0.0001
Parents PS	1.15 (1.01-1.31); 0.036	0.76 (0.64-0.91); 0.0033	0.8 (0.61-1.04); 0.0991	0.54 (0.44-0.66); <.0001
ESA	0.95 (0.8-1.13); 0.5834	0.38 (0.27-0.53); <.0001	0.29 (0.17-0.49); <.0001	0.5 (0.33-0.76); 0.0013
Black	1.64 (1.28-2.1); <.0001	1.7 (1.2-2.39); 0.0026	0.93 (0.52-1.66); 0.8116	1.29 (0.82-2.01); 0.2655
Other	0.97 (0.8-1.17); 0.7534	1.29 (0.99-1.68); 0.0615	1.05 (0.71-1.56); 0.8082	1.58 (1.16-2.15); 0.0036
Multiracial	0.8 (0.67-0.96); 0.0146	1.04 (0.81-1.34); 0.7571	1.13 (0.79-1.61); 0.5027	1.18 (0.88-1.58); 0.2576
School Size				
(increments of 200)	1 (0.96-1.04); 0.9606	1.04 (0.97-1.13); 0.2668	0.92 (0.84-1.02); 0.1009	0.95 (0.86-1.05); 0.2885
Median Income				
(increments of \$10,000)	0.98 (0.95-1.01); 0.2627	1.03 (0.97-1.09); 0.3982	0.91 (0.84-0.98); 0.0174	1.01 (0.94-1.1); 0.72
Rural	1.05 (0.88-1.25); 0.5973	1.03 (0.75-1.43); 0.8393	1.43 (0.99-2.07); 0.0536	1.53 (1.04-2.25); 0.0323

Table 6.2C School Belonging Model Gender Interaction Model. Reported as Odds Ratios (95% Confidence Interval); p-value.

TABLE 0.2C SCHOOL DEIOUGH	ig mouel Genuel Intel action	TABLE O.L.C. SCHOOL DEROUGING FROMET CHILCT ACTION PROMET. INCPORTED BY CALLS INARIOS (23.70 COMMUNICE MINISTRAL), P-VAINE,		al), p-value.
Reference: Low SU/MH	Low SU/High MH	HEDCAN/Moderate MH	HEDTOB/Moderate MH	High SU/MH
Belonging	0.79 (0.76-0.81); <.0001	0.87 (0.84-0.9); <.0001	0.87 (0.83-0.91); <.0001	0.76 (0.73-0.79); <.0001
Female	2.07 (1.56-2.76); <.0001	1.75 (1.19-2.58); 0.0046	3.19 (1.89-5.38); <.0001	1.32 (0.89-1.96); 0.1743
Belonging*Female	0.99 (0.95-1.03); 0.5664	0.9 (0.86-0.95); <.0001	0.84 (0.78-0.9); <.0001	0.93 (0.88-0.98); 0.0064
Age	1.09 (1.05-1.12); <.0001	1.54 (1.47-1.62); <.0001	1.5 (1.39-1.61); <.0001	1.42 (1.34-1.51); <.0001
Family Assets	0.98 (0.93-1.03); 0.4095	1.06 (0.99-1.14); 0.1011	0.96 (0.87-1.06); 0.4238	0.86 (0.8-0.93); 0.0002
1st gen	0.87 (0.73-1.03); 0.098	0.47 (0.36-0.61); <.0001	0.73 (0.5-1.08); 0.1191	0.42 (0.3-0.58); <.0001
2 nd gen	0.92 (0.8-1.05); 0.193	0.79 (0.66-0.94); 0.0083	0.64 (0.47-0.86); 0.0033	0.5 (0.39-0.63); <.0001
2 parents	0.82 (0.72-0.92); 0.0012	0.56 (0.48-0.65); <.0001	0.54 (0.43-0.68); <.0001	0.56 (0.47-0.68); <.0001
Parents PS	0.87 (0.77-1); 0.044	0.67 (0.57-0.79); <.0001	0.7 (0.54-0.9); 0.0064	0.47 (0.39-0.58); <.0001
ESA	1.02 (0.85-1.21); 0.8455	0.4 (0.3-0.55); <.0001	0.31 (0.18-0.52); <.0001	0.53 (0.35-0.8); 0.0028
Black	0.59 (0.46-0.76); <.0001	1.02 (0.76-1.38); 0.8921	0.56 (0.32-0.96); 0.0365	0.78 (0.51-1.18); 0.2391
Other	1.02 (0.85-1.23); 0.8336	1.32 (1.04-1.68); 0.0237	1.08 (0.73-1.59); 0.6977	1.62 (1.22-2.17); 0.0011
Multiracial	1.24 (1.04-1.48); 0.0183	1.3 (1.02-1.65); 0.0311	1.42 (1.01-2.02); 0.0462	1.48 (1.12-1.96); 0.0063
School Size	1.01 (0.97-1.04); 0.7965	1.05 (0.97-1.13); 0.2308	0.93 (0.84-1.02); 0.1272	0.95 (0.86-1.05); 0.306
Median Income	1.02 (0.99-1.05); 0.3025	1.04 (0.98-1.11); 0.1649	0.92 (0.85-1); 0.053	1.03 (0.95-1.12); 0.4283
Rural	0.95 (0.8-1.12); 0.5481	0.99 (0.72-1.37); 0.9709	1.39 (0.95-2.01); 0.0871	1.47 (0.99-2.17); 0.0572

Table 6.2D School Belonging Model Female Model (reference=Low SU/MH). Reported as Odds Ratios (95% Confidence Interval); p-value.

	4 (1)			
Reference Group: Low	Low SU/High MH	High HEDCAN/	High HEDTOB/	High SU/MH
Belonging	0.77 (0.76-0.79); <.0001	0.78 (0.76-0.81); <.0001	0.73 (0.7-0.77); <.0001	0.71 (0.68-0.74); <.0001
Age	1.05 (1.01-1.1); 0.0294	1.54 (1.43-1.66); <.0001	1.36 (1.22-1.52); <.0001	1.27 (1.16-1.39); <.0001
Family Assets	1 (0.93-1.07); 0.9288	1.03 (0.92-1.16); 0.5633	0.93 (0.79-1.08); 0.3225	0.78 (0.69-0.89); 0.0001
1st gen	0.89 (0.71-1.12); 0.3238	0.47 (0.31-0.7); 0.0002	0.84 (0.48-1.47); 0.5403	0.52 (0.31-0.87); 0.0118
2 nd gen	0.98 (0.82-1.16); 0.8113	0.84 (0.65-1.1); 0.2075	0.71 (0.48-1.07); 0.0998	0.51 (0.36-0.73); 0.0002
2 parents	0.8 (0.68-0.93); 0.0051	0.54 (0.43-0.68); <.0001	0.69 (0.49-0.97); 0.0304	0.51 (0.39-0.67); <.0001
Parents PS	0.93 (0.79-1.1); 0.4034	0.77 (0.6-0.98); 0.0321	0.53 (0.38-0.74); 0.0002	0.47 (0.36-0.62); <.0001
ESA	0.86 (0.68-1.08); 0.1992	0.3 (0.18-0.48); <.0001	0.19 (0.08-0.44); 0.0001	0.13 (0.05-0.33); <.0001
Black	0.47 (0.34-0.65); <.0001	0.69 (0.43-1.11); 0.1303	0.54 (0.26-1.1); 0.09	0.38 (0.19-0.76); 0.0065
Other	0.89 (0.69-1.15); 0.3844	1.26 (0.88-1.81); 0.2145	0.8 (0.44-1.46); 0.4653	1.33 (0.85-2.06); 0.2093
Multiracial	1.26 (1-1.57); 0.0464	1.2 (0.85-1.69); 0.3009	1.43 (0.89-2.29); 0.1411	1.48 (0.99-2.19); 0.0545
School Size	1 (0 05-1 05): 0 878	1.07 (0.97-1.16): 0.1656	0.03 (0.82-1.06): 0.2607	0 07 (0 86-1 09): 0 6304
(increments of 200)	1 (0.22-1.02), 0.878	1:07 (0:27-1:10); 0:1030	0.53 (0.82-1.00), 0.2057	0.57 (0.80-1.05), 0.8201
Median Income				
(increments of \$10,000)	1.01 (0.97-1.05); 0.5535	1.02 (0.95-1.1); 0.6153	0.94 (0.85-1.05); 0.2781	1.03 (0.94-1.14); 0.5385
Rural	0.91 (0.73-1.13); 0.3825	0.98 (0.67-1.43); 0.9121	0.92 (0.55-1.52); 0.7394	1.17 (0.73-1.88); 0.5102

Table 6.2E School Belonging Model Male Model (reference=Low SU/MH). Reported as Odds Ratios (95% Confidence Interval); p-value.

)		•	,	•
Reference Group: Low	Low SU/High MH	High HEDCAN/	High HEDTOB/	High SU/MH
SU/MH		Moderate MH	Moderate MH	
Belonging	0.79 (0.77-0.81); <.0001	0.87 (0.84-0.9); <.0001	0.87 (0.83-0.92); <.0001	0.76 (0.73-0.79); <.0001
Age	1.12 (1.06-1.18); <.0001	1.56 (1.46-1.67); <.0001	1.63 (1.47-1.8); <.0001	1.59 (1.46-1.72); <.0001
Family Assets	0.95 (0.88-1.03); 0.2002	1.09 (0.99-1.2); 0.0758	0.99 (0.87-1.14); 0.9381	0.9 (0.82-1); 0.0556
l st gen	0.85 (0.66-1.11); 0.2359	0.47 (0.33-0.67); <.0001	0.63 (0.37-1.07); 0.0901	0.33 (0.21-0.52); <.0001
2 nd gen	0.84 (0.68-1.04); 0.1124	0.74 (0.58-0.95); 0.0159	0.56 (0.36-0.87); 0.0096	0.46 (0.33-0.65); <.0001
2 parents	0.84 (0.69-1.02); 0.0757	0.56 (0.45-0.7); <.0001	0.43 (0.32-0.59); <.0001	0.63 (0.49-0.82); 0.0005
Parents PS	0.77 (0.62-0.95); 0.0166	0.6 (0.47-0.75); <.0001	1 (0.67-1.5); 0.9984	0.47 (0.36-0.62); <.0001
ESA	1.24 (0.96-1.62); 0.1052	0.48 (0.32-0.72); 0.0003	0.44 (0.22-0.86); 0.016	0.98 (0.61-1.59); 0.9429
Black	0.75 (0.51-1.1); 0.1446	1.32 (0.89-1.95); 0.166	0.51 (0.21-1.23); 0.135	1.25 (0.73-2.12); 0.4157
Other	1.21 (0.91-1.6); 0.1935	1.36 (0.98-1.89); 0.0664	1.35 (0.81-2.24); 0.2492	1.87 (1.27-2.77); 0.0016
Multiracial	1.16 (0.86-1.56); 0.3295	1.37 (0.98-1.9); 0.0644	1.36 (0.82-2.24); 0.2343	1.36 (0.91-2.03); 0.1379
School Size				
(increments of 200)	1.02 (0.97-1.08); 0.4797	1.03 (0.94-1.14); 0.4845	0.91 (0.81-1.03); 0.1404	0.94 (0.83-1.05); 0.2565
Median Income				
(increments of \$10,000)	1.02 (0.98-1.07); 0.301	1.06 (0.98-1.15); 0.1169	0.9 (0.82-0.99); 0.0361	1.02 (0.93-1.12); 0.651
Rural	0.98 (0.77-1.25); 0.864	0.99 (0.67-1.48); 0.9793	1.92 (1.27-2.89); 0.0019	1.7 (1.1-2.62); 0.0165

Table 6.3A School Safety Model (reference=Low SU/MH). Reported as Odds Ratios (95% Confidence Interval); p-value.

Reference Group:	Low SU/ High MH	High HEDCAN/	High HEDTOB/	High SU/MH
Low SU/ MH		Moderate MH	Moderate MH	
Safety	0.86 (0.85-0.88); <.0001	0.97 (0.95-0.99); 0.002	0.89 (0.86-0.91); <.0001	0.86 (0.84-0.88); <.0001
Female	1.94 (1.76-2.13); <.0001	0.87 (0.76-0.99); 0.0341	1 (0.82-1.23); 0.9674	0.85 (0.72-0.99); 0.043
Age	1.16 (1.12-1.2); <.0001	1.59 (1.51-1.67); <.0001	1.57 (1.46-1.69); <.0001	1.52 (1.43-1.61); <.0001
Family Assets	0.97 (0.92-1.02); 0.2995	1.05 (0.97-1.12); 0.2184	0.95 (0.86-1.05); 0.3237	0.85 (0.79-0.92); <.0001
1st gen	0.94 (0.8-1.12); 0.492	0.5 (0.38-0.65); <.0001	0.79 (0.53-1.16); 0.2255	0.46 (0.33-0.64); <.0001
2 nd gen	0.94 (0.83-1.07); 0.3614	0.79 (0.66-0.94); 0.0083	0.65 (0.48-0.87); 0.0044	0.5 (0.39-0.64); <.0001
2 parents	0.76 (0.67-0.86); <.0001	0.52 (0.44-0.61); <.0001	0.51 (0.4-0.64); <.0001	0.52 (0.43-0.62); <.0001
Parents PS	0.85 (0.75-0.97); 0.0155	0.64 (0.54-0.75); <.0001	0.68 (0.53-0.88); 0.0028	0.45 (0.37-0.55); <.0001
ESA	0.91 (0.77-1.08); 0.2757	0.39 (0.29-0.53); <.0001	0.27 (0.16-0.46); <.0001	0.47 (0.31-0.71); 0.0003
Black	0.6 (0.47-0.76); <.0001	1.11 (0.83-1.5); 0.4837	0.56 (0.32-0.97); 0.0385	0.78 (0.51-1.19); 0.2522
Other	1.02 (0.85-1.23); 0.8222	1.39 (1.09-1.76); 0.0075	1.08 (0.73-1.59); 0.6969	1.65 (1.24-2.2); 0.0006
Multiracial	1.22 (1.02-1.44); 0.027	1.33 (1.05-1.69); 0.0173	1.37 (0.97-1.94); 0.0741	1.45 (1.1-1.92); 0.0078
School Size				
(increments of 200)	0.99 (0.96-1.03); 0.643	1.03 (0.96-1.11); 0.3844	0.91 (0.83-1); 0.0624	0.93 (0.85-1.03); 0.1505
Median Income				
(increments of \$10,000)	1.04 (1.01-1.07); 0.0082	1.05 (0.99-1.12); 0.0841	0.94 (0.87-1.02); 0.1212	1.05 (0.97-1.13); 0.2125
Rural	0.98 (0.84-1.14); 0.7914	1.01 (0.74-1.39); 0.937	1.41 (0.97-2.04); 0.0706	1.51 (1.03-2.2); 0.0357

Table 6.3B School Safety M	Table 6.3B School Safety Model (reference=Low SU/High MH). Reported as Odds Rattos (95% Confidence Interval); p-value.	gh MH). Reported as Odds Ra	tios (95% Contidence Interval); p-value.
Reference Group: Low	Low SU/MH	High HEDCAN/	High HEDTOB/	High SU/MH
SU/High MH		Moderate MH	Moderate MH	
Safety	1.16 (1.14-1.18); <.0001	1.12 (1.1-1.15); <.0001	1.03 (1-1.06); 0.0853	1 (0.97-1.02); 0.7431
Female	0.52 (0.47-0.57); <.0001	0.45 (0.39-0.52); <.0001	0.52 (0.42-0.64); <.0001	0.44 (0.37-0.52); <.0001
Age	0.87 (0.84-0.9); <.0001	1.38 (1.31-1.45); <.0001	1.36 (1.27-1.47); <.0001	1.32 (1.24-1.4); <.0001
Family Assets	1.03 (0.98-1.08); 0.289	1.08 (0.99-1.16); 0.0667	0.98 (0.88-1.09); 0.669	0.87 (0.81-0.95); 0.0011
1st gen	1.06 (0.89-1.25); 0.5224	0.53 (0.4-0.7); <.0001	0.83 (0.55-1.24); 0.3572	0.48 (0.34-0.69); <.0001
2 nd gen	1.06 (0.93-1.2); 0.4145	0.83 (0.68-1.02); 0.0734	0.69 (0.51-0.94); 0.0178	0.53 (0.41-0.68); <.0001
2 parents	1.31 (1.16-1.48); <.0001	0.68 (0.57-0.81); <.0001	0.67 (0.53-0.85); 0.0009	0.68 (0.56-0.82); <.0001
Parents PS	1.18 (1.04-1.34); 0.0118	0.75 (0.62-0.9); 0.0017	0.8 (0.61-1.04); 0.0922	0.53 (0.44-0.65); <.0001
ESA	1.07 (0.9-1.28); 0.4135	0.42 (0.3-0.59); <.0001	0.29 (0.17-0.5); <.0001	0.5 (0.33-0.77); 0.0016
Black	1.64 (1.28-2.08); <.0001	1.84 (1.3-2.6); 0.0005	0.93 (0.52-1.66); 0.806	1.29 (0.83-2.02); 0.2627
Other	0.97 (0.81-1.17); 0.746	1.35 (1.03-1.76); 0.0273	1.05 (0.71-1.57); 0.7984	1.61 (1.18-2.19); 0.0026
Multiracial	0.82 (0.69-0.98); 0.0258	1.09 (0.85-1.41); 0.494	1.13 (0.79-1.6); 0.5127	1.19 (0.89-1.6); 0.233
School Size				
(increments of 200)	1.01 (0.98-1.05); 0.4744	1.04 (0.97-1.13); 0.2538	0.92 (0.84-1.01); 0.0979	0.94 (0.86-1.04); 0.2306
Median Income				
(increments of \$10,000)	0.96 (0.93-0.99); 0.0105	1.01 (0.95-1.08); 0.652	0.91 (0.84-0.98); 0.0121	1.01 (0.94-1.09); 0.792
Rural	1.02 (0.86-1.2); 0.8207	1.03 (0.75-1.42); 0.8573	1.43 (0.99-2.07); 0.0587	1.53 (1.05-2.23); 0.0285

Reference: Low	Low SU/High MH	HEDCAN/Moderate MH	HEDTOB/Moderate MH	High SU/MH
Safety	0.85 (0.83-0.87); <.0001	0.98 (0.95-1.01); 0.1777	0.92 (0.89-0.96); 0.0001	0.88 (0.85-0.9); <.0001
Female	1.6 (1.16-2.22); 0.0044	1.29 (0.77-2.15); 0.3365	2.89 (1.49-5.61); 0.0017	1.45 (0.88-2.42); 0.1483
Safety *Female	1.02 (0.99-1.05); 0.1889	0.97 (0.93-1.01); 0.1198	0.91 (0.86-0.96); 0.001	0.95 (0.91-0.99); 0.0292
Age	1.16 (1.12-1.2); <.0001	1.59 (1.51-1.67); <.0001	1.57 (1.46-1.69); <.0001	1.52 (1.43-1.61); <.0001
Family Assets	0.97 (0.92-1.02); 0.2938	1.05 (0.97-1.12); 0.225	0.95 (0.86-1.05); 0.3375	0.85 (0.79-0.92); <.0001
1st gen	0.95 (0.8-1.12); 0.5086	0.5 (0.38-0.64); <.0001	0.78 (0.53-1.15); 0.2126	0.46 (0.32-0.64); <.0001
2 nd gen	0.94 (0.83-1.07); 0.372	0.79 (0.66-0.94); 0.0082	0.65 (0.48-0.87); 0.004	0.5 (0.39-0.64); <.0001
2 parents	0.76 (0.68-0.86); <.0001	0.52 (0.44-0.6); <.0001	0.51 (0.4-0.64); <.0001	0.52 (0.43-0.62); <.0001
Parents PS	0.85 (0.75-0.97); 0.0154	0.64 (0.54-0.75); <.0001	0.68 (0.53-0.88); 0.0028	0.45 (0.37-0.55); <.0001
ESA	0.91 (0.76-1.07); 0.2528	0.39 (0.29-0.53); <.0001	0.27 (0.16-0.47); <.0001	0.47 (0.31-0.72); 0.0004
Black	0.59 (0.47-0.76); <.0001	1.12 (0.83-1.5); 0.4712	0.57 (0.33-0.98); 0.044	0.79 (0.52-1.21); 0.2839
Other	1.02 (0.85-1.23); 0.8331	1.39 (1.09-1.76); 0.0074	1.08 (0.74-1.59); 0.6934	1.66 (1.24-2.21); 0.0006
Multiracial	1.21 (1.02-1.44); 0.029	1.33 (1.05-1.68); 0.0179	1.38 (0.97-1.94); 0.071	1.46 (1.11-1.92); 0.0074
School Size	0.99 (0.96-1.03); 0.6476	1.03 (0.96-1.11); 0.3877	0.91 (0.83-1); 0.0596	0.93 (0.84-1.03); 0.147
Median Income	1.04 (1.01-1.07); 0.0096	1.05 (0.99-1.12); 0.0809	0.94 (0.87-1.02); 0.1368	1.05 (0.97-1.14); 0.1968
Rural	0.98 (0.84-1.14); 0.7774	1.01 (0.74-1.39); 0.9335	1.42 (0.98-2.05); 0.0659	1.51 (1.03-2.21); 0.0353

7. Methodological Recommendations from Halladay, J., et al. (2020). Patterns of substance use among adolescents: A systematic review. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*, 108222.

Clear reporting of	Statistical fit across 3 domains:	yes
cluster-based	absolute, relative, and predictive	
methodological	probabilities	
decisions	Evaluation of local independence	N/A traditional LPA
	Transparent discussion regarding final	yes
	model selection and competing models	
	(including presenting patterns for	
	competing models).	
Substance use	Separate indicators for alcohol,	yes
indicator	cannabis, and tobacco should be	
decisions	included	
	Using continuous indicators, as	yes
	opposed to dichotomous or categorical	
	Indicators related to mental health	yes
	symptomatology	
	Maximizing consistency and	1 – no (not available)
	comparability across studies: 1)	2 – yes – split half
	standardized substance use measures,	sample cross-replication
	2) cross-replication (across samples	
	and clustering techniques)	
Additional	Statistical software used	yes - Mplus & SAS
relevant items	Are alternate shape/functional forms	yes
from Guidelines	described?	
for Reporting on	If covariates have been used, can	yes
Latent Trajectory	analyses still be replicated?	
Studies		

(GRoLTS)	Is information reported about the	yes	
Checklist	number of random start values and		
	final iterations included?		
	Are model comparison and selection	yes	
	tools described from a statistical		
	perspective?		
	Are the total number of fitted models	yes	
	reported, including a one-class		
	solution?		
	Is entropy reported?	yes	
	Is a plot of the final model/means	yes	
	included?		
	Are characteristics of the final class	yes	
	solution numerically described?		
	(means, SD/SE, n, CI, etc.)?		
	Are syntax files available (either in	yes, upon request	
	appendix, supplementary materials, or		
	from the authors)?		
Follow STROBE	Note: Ensure clear and comprehensive	yes	
guidelines (See	reporting of response rates and		
full checklist)	missingness, including approaches for		
www.strobe-	dealing with missing data		
statement.org			

References in Chapter 3 Supplementary Materials

- Statistics Canada. National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth: Cycle 8
 Survey Instruments 2008/2009 Book 2 Youth Questionnaires. Ottawa, ON:
 Statistics Canada; 2009.
- Duncan L, Georgiades K, Wang L, Comeau J, Ferro MA, Van Lieshout RJ, et al. The 2014 Ontario Child Health Study Emotional Behavioural Scales (OCHS-EBS) Part I: A Checklist for Dimensional Measurement of Selected DSM-5 Disorders. The Canadian Journal of Psychiatry. 2018:0706743718808250.
- 3. Bear G, Yang C, Mantz L, Pasipanodya E, Hearn S, Boyer D. Technical manual for Delaware school survey: scales of school climate, bullying, victimization, student engagement, positive, punitive, and social emotional learning techniques. 2014.
- 4. National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent to Adult Health (Add Health), 1994-2008 [Public Use]. Carolina Population Center, University of North Carolina-Chapel Hill. 2001. http://www.icpsr.umich.edu/icpsrweb/DSDR/studies/21600.
- Consortium on Chicago School Research. Survey of Chicago Public Schools
 Elementary School Student Edition Chicago, IL: Consortium on Chicago School
 Research, Urban Education Istitute, University of Chicago; 2009.
- 6. Ottova-Jordan V, Smith OR, Augustine L, Gobina I, Rathmann K, Torsheim T, et al. Trends in health complaints from 2002 to 2010 in 34 countries and their association with health behaviours and social context factors at individual and macro-level. Eur J Public Health. 2015;25 Suppl 2:83-9.
- 7. Statistics Canada. National Household Survey. 2011.
- 8. Masyn KE. 25 latent class analysis and finite mixture modeling. The Oxford handbook of quantitative methods. 2013:551.
- 9. Geiser C. Data analysis with Mplus: Guilford press; 2012.
- Collins LM, Lanza ST. Latent class and latent transition analysis: With applications in the social, behavioral, and health sciences: John Wiley & Sons; 2009.

Chapter 4: The CAMP Study: Feasibility and Clinical Correlates of Standardized Assessments of Substance Use in a Youth Psychiatric Inpatient Sample

Halladay, J., Horricks, L., Amlung, M., MacKillop, J., Munn, C., Nasir, Z., Woock, R., Georgiades, K. (2021). The CAMP study: Feasibility and clinical correlates of standardized assessments of substance use in a youth psychiatric inpatient sample. *Child and Adolescent Psychiatry and Mental Health*, 14, 48. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13034-021-00403-4

Highlights:

- This study provides preliminary evidence that use of standardized substance use and mental health assessments during youth psychiatric hospitalization is both feasible and acceptable to youth and staff.
- Substance use is common among youth experiencing psychiatric hospitalization and is associated with increased severity and complexity of presentation and repeat hospital visits.
- Frontline staff support the need for standardized comprehensive assessments of substance use to improve clinical conceptualization and quality of care.
- Integrating routine, standardized electronic self-reported substance use and mental
 health assessments into care can enhance clinical practice and promote quality
 assurance and research in clinical settings.

Copyright Information. This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. To view a copy of this licence, visit http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/.

Halladay et al.
Child Adolesc Psychiatry Ment Health (2021) 15:48
https://doi.org/10.1186/s13034-021-00403-4

Child and Adolescent Psychiatry and Mental Health

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Open Access

The CAMP study: feasibility and clinical correlates of standardized assessments of substance use in a youth psychiatric inpatient sample

Jillian Halladay 1,2 * $^{\circ}$ 0, Laurie Horricks 2 , Michael Amlung 3,4 , James MacKillop 4,5,6 , Catharine Munn 1,4,5,7 , Zil Nasir 1,8 , Rachel Woock 8 and Katholiki Georgiades 1,4,9

Abstract

Background: To determine: (a) the feasibility and acceptability of administering a standardized electronic assessment of substance use and other mental health concerns to youth admitted to an inpatient psychiatric unit, and (b) the prevalence and clinical correlates of substance use in this sample.

Methods: The sample included 100 youth between the ages of 13 to 17 years admitted to an inpatient psychiatric unit in Ontario, Canada between September and November 2019 (78% response rate). Youth data were comprised of electronic self-reported assessments (during hospitalization and 6-months following) and chart reviews (99% consented; historical and prospective). Frontline staff completed a self-report survey assessing their perceptions of the need for standardized substance use assessments, training, and interventions on the unit (n = 38 Registered Nurses and Child and Youth Workers; 86% response rate). Analyses included descriptive statistics, correlations, regression, and qualitative content analysis.

Results: Feasibility of standardized youth self-reported mental health and substance use assessments was evident by high response rates, little missing data, and variability in responses. 79% of youth had used at least one substance in their lifetime; 69% reported use in the last 3 months. Substance use was positively correlated with severity of psychiatric symptoms (tb 0.17 to 0.45) and number of psychiatric diagnoses (tb 0.17 to 0.54) at index. Based on prospective and retrospective data, substance use was also positively related to mental health symptom severity at follow-up and repeat mental health related hospital visits. Frontline staff reported a need for standardized assessment, training, and interventions on the unit, indicative of acceptability.

Conclusions: This study demonstrated the feasibility, acceptability and clinical importance of administering a standardized mental health and substance use assessment among youth experiencing psychiatric hospitalization.

Keywords: Adolescent, Cannabis, Alcohol drinking, Substance-related disorder, Psychiatric Hospitals

Most mental illnesses emerge in childhood and adolescence, and suicide is the second leading cause of death during adolescence [1, 2]. Although substance use disorders (SUDs) often emerge later than other mental illnesses, most individuals who use substances initiate

Full list of author information is available at the end of the article



©The Author(s) 2021. **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, wish thtp://creativeccommons.org/licenses/by/40.7 the Creative Commons Public Domain Dedication waiver (http://creativecommons.org/localidecomain/zero/10/) applies to the data made available in this article, unless otherwise stated in a click line to the data.

^{*}Correspondence: halladje@mcmaster.ca

¹ Department of Health Research Methods, Evidence, and Impact, McMaster University, 1280 Main Street West, ON L8S 4S4 Hamilton, Canada

use prior to age 20 [3]. Cannabis and alcohol are two of the most commonly used substances [4], and accumulating evidence suggests use of cannabis and alcohol may precede the onset or worsening of psychiatric and suicide-related outcomes [5–7]. Regardless of temporal sequencing, co-occurrence of mental health and substance use problems is common [8]. Although help-seeking among adolescents with substance use concerns is low, many engage with psychiatric services prior to substance use treatment [9, 10]. This presents a critical opportunity for prevention and early identification in psychiatric settings.

Assessing and addressing substance use may be particularly important during psychiatric hospitalizations given the acuity of youth presentations, access to multidisciplinary teams, and treatment recommendations and community referrals often facilitated upon discharge. However, standardized instruments, designed to assess substance use and mental health concerns, are not routinely administered in youth psychiatric settings [11–14]. There is emerging but limited evidence suggesting that individuals with mental illnesses who use cannabis or alcohol may experience more severe and complex symptoms, greater functional impairment, and poorer prognosis [7, 9, 15, 16]. This evidence is primarily drawn from work in outpatient settings and is not routinely collected as a means to provide robust insight.

When considering youth populations from the perspective of those presenting to health services with substance use concerns, there is data available on the co-occurrence of mental health problems. In Canada between 2017 and 2018, about 70% of youth hospitalizations for substance use involved concurrent psychiatric concerns [17]. Similarly, a majority of adolescents attending a large outpatient substance use program in Toronto, Ontario, endorsed high levels of internalizing (72%) and externalizing (83%) psychopathology [18]. These findings have been replicated among youth attending substance use treatment in the US [10, 19]. Of note, cannabis typically accounts for the largest proportion of substance use related service use among youth [17–19].

There are significant challenges navigating and securing services for youth that address both mental health and substance use in North America [9, 20]. Longstanding gaps in youth addiction services have been recognized by governments and there have been calls for increased capacity to treat SUDs and psychiatric disorders concurrently across all sectors of youth care [20]. Both Canadian and US governments have recognized the need to identify substance use problems early, especially among those with psychiatric concerns, and have indicated a need for integrated and coordinated treatments [21–23]. This is echoed in various clinical best practice guidelines (BPGs)

which recommend assessing for substance use prior to diagnosing mental illnesses and treating concurrently if co-presenting [24-27]. Despite the recognition of this problem, this gap in service persists. Common healthcare provider reported barriers to addressing substance use include time constraints, lack of training, stigma, and uncertainty about how to interpret and apply results of screening assessments [13, 28, 29]. Notably, a recent systematic review of concurrent disorder recommendations within existing BPGs found a lack of specificity and consistency regarding recommendations, as well as low levels of rigor and stakeholder input when developing the guidelines [30]. Further, no specific guidelines address the management of youth substance use on inpatient psychiatric units, which were not built or funded to address both issues. As such, further research and stakeholder input are critical to inform guidelines and advocate for funding and system changes where it is most needed.

The Cannabis, Alcohol, Mental Health, and Patterns of Service Use (CAMP) study was a pilot study to determine the feasibility and acceptability of collecting and integrating substance use, mental health, and hospitalization data among youth admitted to an inpatient psychiatric unit through both primary data collection methods (i.e., self-reported youth electronic clinical assessments, stakeholder surveys) and secondary linkages to medical records by research personnel. Our results can inform subsequent: (1) clinical research studies, designed to assess the feasibility, acceptability, utility and cost-effectiveness of integrating routine substance use and mental health assessments directly within clinical practice; and (2) methods for larger scale research studies within clinical programs. The specific feasibility objectives included [31]: (1) process outcomes, i.e., ability to recruit (patient willingness); (2) resource and management outcomes, i.e., youth and staff burden and extent of missing data, refusal, and retention; (3) scientific outcomes, including prevalence and variability in substance use and preliminary insight into correlates between substance use and psychiatric severity (i.e., intensity of symptoms), complexity (i.e., comorbidity), and health service use (i.e., length of stay and readmission); and (4) staff acceptability outcomes, including staff perceptions regarding substance use assessment and intervention on the inpatient unit, including its importance, facilitators, and barriers.

Methods

Design and setting

The CAMP study was a feasibility observational cohort study conducted on a large Child and Youth Mental Health Inpatient Unit in a large urban city in Ontario, Canada. The unit services youth up to the age of 18 years. The purpose of admission includes emergent psychiatric

assessments, crisis stabilization, acute treatment delivery including pharmacological and nonpharmacological approaches (e.g., daily structured individual and/or group psychotherapeutic programming), and coordinated postdischarge planning with community partners. In general, roughly 50% of beds on this unit are occupied by youth experiencing internalizing symptoms (e.g., depression, anxiety, trauma), 23% by youth with primary personality disorder related symptoms (e.g., borderline personality disorder, oppositional defiant disorder), and 27% by highly acute youth (e.g., psychotic and manic episodes). The average length of stay is 7-10 days, appreciating the vast majority of treatment provision occurs post-crisis in the community. Developed 12 years ago, the units focus has been on the acute stabilization of psychiatric presentations. Over the past 12 years, the unit has admitted youth with concurrent disorders, and openly acknowledges it is not a designated concurrent disorders unit and therefore does not provide specific treatments for SUDs.

The study consisted of 4 parts: (1) a self-reported electronic youth assessment during hospitalization; (2) a 6-month follow-up assessment; (3) retrospective (3 years) and prospective (6 months) chart reviews; and (4) frontline staff surveys. The staff component combined cross-sectional and qualitative description designs in survey format [29]. All study objectives and procedures were iteratively refined with feedback from frontline staff, unit leadership, and the Child and Youth Mental Health Research Advisory Committee. Of note, the selected clinical indicators related to severity, complexity, and health service utilization align with provincially defined clinical indicators for child and youth mental health services [32, 33].

Participants

The target population for the youth component was all youth 12–17 years of age admitted to the unit. The sample included 100 youth recruited on a rolling basis. Youth were excluded if they were: unable to provide informed consent, unable to complete a 30-min assessment (due to attention, cognitive, or safety concerns), or experiencing acute psychotic symptoms based on clinical staff evaluations. Substance use was not required. Recruitment occurred between September 9, 2019 and November 26, 2019. The target population for the staff component was all frontline full-time and part-time Registered Nurses (RNs) and Child and Youth Workers (CYWs) as of September 2020.

Measures

Youth self-report measures

The youth assessment was based on a clinical screening tool used on the adult Concurrent Disorders units in

Hamilton (St. Joseph's Healthcare Hamilton), adapted for youth. To facilitate comparisons, all measures were selected based on pre-piloted and/or psychometrically validated measures for youth used in large population surveys including the Ontario Student Drug Use and Health Survey (OSDUHS) [4] and the Ontario Child Health Study (OCHS) [34]. The assessment measured demographic characteristics, substance use with a particular focus on cannabis and alcohol use, psychiatric symptomatology, and mental health service utilization. The adapted interview tool was piloted and revised to ensure clarity and minimal burden. See Table 1 for a summary of measures (see Additional file 1 for a PDF of the assessment).

Youth chart reviews

Person-level, health service utilization data was collected on prior (past 3 years) and follow-up (6 months post-discharge) psychiatric and substance use related emergency department (ED) presentations and inpatient psychiatric admissions at the hospital. The hospital for data collection is the only pediatric hospital in the city but it is possible for youth in surrounding cities to present to EDs at other hospitals and then get transferred to this inpatient unit (i.e., direct admission). ED visits were identified in Canadian Institute for Health Information (CIHI) National Ambulatory Care Reporting System (NACRS) database using the Canadian Emergency Department Information System (CEDIS) presenting complaints alongside the most responsible diagnosis code for each ED encounter at the hospital site. Inpatient admissions and associated length of stay were identified in CIHI Discharge Abstract Database (DAD) by the most responsible discharge diagnosis code for each inpatient encounter. Substance use and mental health codes were included. Data on severity and complexity included documentation by clinicians on harm to self, harm to others, property damage, symptoms of psychosis, substance use, and discharge diagnoses (for a complete list of codes and extraction content, see Additional file 2). Substance use information came from existing semi-structured interviews documented in patient charts by either the nurse upon admission to the unit, or the psychiatrist during the psychiatric assessment. Interviews included openended questions related to substances used and patterns of use prior to the inpatient admission. However, these interviews were not standardized and did not utilize validated measures, consistent historical timelines, or systemized probes or response options. Additionally, the documentation system had sections with limited character counts.

Page 4 of 15

Table 1 Summary of key measures in the youth electronic assessment

General construct	Specific variables				
Demographics	Age, gender, sex, race/ethnicity, immigrant status, subjective social status [4, 48]				
Substance use variables					
Cannabis use	Frequency of use [4, 58] Symptoms of cannabis use disorder (CUDIT-R) [59] Age of onset [4, 58] Percentage of typical THC/CBD, grams per use day, cost per week/month Coping motives scores [60] Proportion of time spent using with others [61] Co-use with alcohol and co-use with tobacco [4]				
Alcohol use	 Frequency of any use [4, 58] Frequency of heavy episodic drinking (HED; 5+ drinks in a sitting) [4] Symptoms of alcohol use disorder (AUDIT) [62] Coping motives scores [63] Proportion of time spent using with others [61] 				
Smoking	 Frequency of smoking cigarettes/cigars [4, 58] Frequency of e-cigarette use and types of substances in e-cigarettes [4, 58] 				
Prescription drug misuse	Frequency of [4, 58, 64]:				
	Prescription stimulants				
	 Prescription opioids 				
	 Prescription sedatives 				
Other drug use	Frequency of [4, 58, 64]:				
	• Cocaine				
	Methamphetamine				
	• Solvents				
	• Hallucinogens				
	• Street opioids				
	• Steroids				
Psychiatric clinical severity and complexi	ty				
Severity of psychological distress	The Kessler 6 (K6) [65] provided a dimensional measure of non-specific psychological distress. Previously derived cut-offs of ≥ 13 which indicate serious mental illness were used				
Internalizing symptom severity	The OCHS Emotional Behavioral Scales (OCHS-EBS) [66] dimensional measure captured symptoms of internalizing disorders including:				
	 Major depressive episode (MDE; of note, suicide item removed) 				
	Generalized anxiety disorder (GAD)				
	Social phobia (SP)				
Externalizing symptom severity	The OCHS-EBS [66] dimensional measure captured symptoms of externalizing disorders including:				
	Oppositional defiant disorder (ODD)				
	Conduct disorder (CD)				
	Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD)				
Youth derived clinical complexity	Clinical cut-offs for OCHS-EBS disorder scores based on prevalence estimates derived from a diagnostic structured interview in the original OCHS general population sample were used to generate categorical prevalence of disorders [34]. The number of cut-offs youth exceeded were summed to derive number of internalizing, and total disorders as indicators of youth reported clinical complexity.				
Symptoms of psychosis	A pre-existing symptom scale adapted from the Diagnostic Interview Schedule [67] provided a dimensional measure of symptoms of psychosis				

Staff self-report measures

The staff survey was informed by previous research [13, 28, 29] alongside consultations with the CAMP study team, unit management and leadership, and senior front-line staff. The staff survey included 14 closed and openended questions related to standardized youth substance use assessment, treatment planning, training/education,

and potential barriers and facilitators to addressing these on the unit (see Additional file 3 for a PDF of the survey).

Recruitment and data collection

Youth

The study Research Assistants (RAs) were trained on general reasons for admission, unit staffing model,

common clinical presentations, and specific items about their role in the maintenance of environmental safety. Unit staff were informed about the study through emails and staff meetings beginning one month prior to recruitment through to completion of baseline data collection. Patients were recruited primarily through a one-on-one discussion with an RA. Alternative methods included RAs providing a brief study overview during morning group on a semi-weekly basis and study posters. The RAs consulted with nursing staff about eligible patients in advance of meeting with the patient, to ensure eligibility, safety, appropriate timing, and capacity to consent. Data was collected on an iPad using Qualtrics CoreXM, which is a secure online survey platform and database (Qualtrics, Provo, UT). The RA supervised the youth as they completed the assessments. For youth who consented, a 6-month followup assessment was sent to their phones and/or emails (with one reminder) and chart reviews were done to obtain information before, during, and after their index hospital admission. Youth were able to consent to partake in 1, 2 or all 3 parts of the study (i.e., baseline, follow-up, chart reviews), and received a \$10 gift card for each component (up to \$30).

Frontline staff

Staff were recruited through personalized cards in their staff mailbox, emails, posters, and reminders during morning rounds. Data was also collected using Qualtrics CoreXM. All staff received a \$20 gift card regardless of participation to keep responses anonymous.

Ethics and reporting guidelines

Ethics approval was obtained from the Hamilton Integrated Research Ethics Board (ID 7075) and study procedures were approved by the Child and Youth Mental Health Research Advisory Committee. Consent to participate was obtained directly from youth, and not parents, in order to mitigate bias in reporting substance use [35, 36], and to maintain parameters of confidentiality. Our focus on capacity rather than age, is consistent with the Tri-Council Policy Statement, Health Care Consent Act, and previous research demonstrating that youth 12 years of age or older are often capable of consent [37]. Methods and reporting follow pilot study guidelines [31], Strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology (STROBE) guidelines, and Reporting of Studies Conducted Using Observational Routinely-Collected Health Data (RECORD) guidelines (for reporting checklists, see Additional file 4).

Statistical analyses

Youth componen

This paper examines feasibility outcomes [31], predominantly operationalized as: (1) recruitment of 100 youth within 4 months with a response rate greater than 75%; (2) at least 80% of youth consenting to chart reviews and follow-up assessments; (3) over 80% of consenting youth completing their 6-month follow-up assessment; and (4) at least 20% of youth reporting monthly cannabis and/or heavy alcohol use. Thresholds for adequate response rates come from Risk of Bias tools [38]. Using representative general population data [39], we estimated the prevalence of monthly cannabis use to be 1.7 times greater and heavy drinking to be 1.5 times greater for youth experiencing high levels of psychiatric symptomatology, compared to those with no or few symptoms.

Descriptive statistics were used for feasibility outcomes and to characterize the sample including substance use prevalence estimates with 95% Confidence Intervals (CIs) calculated for proportions [31]. Bivariate Kendall's Tau (τb) correlations using a p < 0.05 to denote significance were used to examine associations between self-reported substance use variables and clinical severity and complexity. Logistic regressions were conducted to explore associations between substance use and any ED visit or inpatient admission, adjusted for type of index admission (e.g., whether patients were directly admitted or went through the local ED). Linear regressions were done to examine associations between self-reported substance use at index and psychiatric symptomatology at follow-up, adjusted for symptomatology at index. All analyses were done using complete cases, after pro-rating summative scales for up to 3 missing items.

Staff component

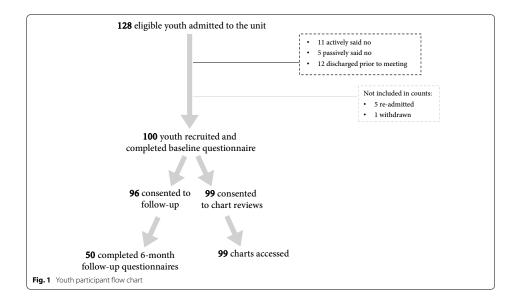
Descriptive statistics were used to provide frequencies and averages of closed-ended response options. Two researchers (JH and RW) used qualitative content analysis to code all open-ended data manually through adding index labels, which were then counted and inductively categorized based on regularities and patterns in the topic codes [40]. Final categories evolved through refinement of codes by re-reading, discussions, and consultations with the larger research team [41]. Results from the quantitative and qualitative items were deliberately integrated and merged during the analysis and interpretation phase to obtain a more complete picture of staff perspectives [42].

Results

Youth component

Response rates and retention

During the 3-month data collection period, of the 128 youth that met inclusion criteria, 111 were invited to



participate in the study, and 100 youth consented to be involved in the study (78% [95% CI 70% to 86%] response rate of all eligible youth, 90% response rate of those invited). For baseline assessments, 77% of youth completed all items with the remaining missing 3 or fewer items. Almost all youth consented to follow-up assessments (96% [CI 92% to 100%]) and chart reviews (99% [CI 97% to 100%]). 50 (52% [CI 42% to 62%]) youth responded to the follow-up assessments within 3 weeks of their 6-month follow-up date. At follow-up, 78% had complete data with the remaining missing 4 or fewer items. The study surpassed all a priori feasibility criteria, with the exception of the follow-up rate (52% vs. proposed >80%) which was likely influenced by the COVID19 pandemic. Of note, only higher psychological distress (Odds Ratio [OR] = 0.913, p = 0.034) and prior mental health ED visits (OR=0.420, p=0.036) were associated with a lower odds of missing at follow-up; no other indicators of severity, complexity, service use, substance use, or demographic characteristics predicted missingness. See Fig. 1 for a participant flow chart.

Recruitment and data collection strategy

Recruitment and data collection processes were efficient and acceptable. Interactions between RAs and staff took on average 5 min per interaction and staff did not express concerns about time taken away from clinical care. RAs typically took 30–40 min to discuss the study and thoroughly review the consent forms with youth. Baseline assessments took youth on average 13 min to complete, with a minimum of 5 and maximum of 33 min (variability due to skip patterns). Of youth included in follow-up assessments, 23 (47%) completed via email and 26 (53%) via smartphones, thus supporting the inclusion of both options.

Demographics

Youth were on average 15.4 years of age (age range, 13–17 years). Most youth were female gender (65%). With 2 outliers removed, the average length of stay for index admissions was 8.4 days (shortest 1 day, longest 21 days). In the 3 years prior to index, 44% of the sample had an ED visit for mental health concerns and 40% had a psychiatric admission at the data collection site. In the 6 months following index, 27% re-presented to ED and 24% were re-admitted for mental health concerns at the data collection site. See Table 2 for demographic characteristics.

 $[\]overline{1}$ 1 youth submitted 2 follow-up assessments with multiple discrepancies and another youth submitted 2 months after their follow-up time (not included in follow-up rates). Thus, the follow-up analyses were based on a sample size of n=49.

Mental health symptomatology

Using clinician-identified most responsible (one per youth) discharge diagnosis, depressive-related (29%), anxiety and obsessive-compulsive related (22%), and trauma and stressor related (21%) disorders were the most common. When using diagnoses taken from discharge summary notes, in which multiple diagnoses could be identified, the most common disorders were: anxiety and obsessive-compulsive related (64%), depressive related (43%), borderline personality, cluster B, and emotion dysregulation related (41%), and trauma and stressor related (31%). Of note, 10% of youth had a discharge diagnosis of a SUD, none of which were the most responsible diagnosis. Using self-reported symptom scores, 87% surpassed cut-offs for at least one mental health disorder. Specifically, 75% and 49% surpassed thresholds for at least 1 internalizing or externalizing disorder, respectively, with 37% meeting criteria for both. See Table 2 for mental health symptomatology and diagnostic characteristics.

Substance use

69% of youth had used at least one substance in the 3 months prior to their psychiatric admission. The most common substances used among youth in the 3 months prior to admission were alcohol, cannabis, tobacco, e-cigarettes, and opioids. Use of multiple substances was common, whereby 50% of youth were using more than one substance prior to admission. Co-use was common, with 24 youth (60%) combining alcohol and cannabis and 25 youth (63%) combining tobacco and cannabis. See Table 3 for prevalence of substance use at index. Self-reported substance use in assessments was higher than documented use in clinical notes-especially when compared to nursing assessments done on admission. These discrepancies could be due to differential reporting by the youth in confidential self-reported assessments versus clinical interviews, but it is more likely that discrepancies arise given differences in content coverage between assessments (i.e., specific questions, timelines, probing, response options, etc.). For example, the electronic self-reported assessment provided examples of each substance type and response options to aid with recall, which were not standardized in clinical interviews.

Cannabis The average age of initiation among all youth who reported lifetime cannabis use was 13.3 years. Of the 50% of youth who reported cannabis use in the 3 months prior to admission, 32 (64%) had CUDIT-R scores indicative of hazardous cannabis use (mean=12.4; SD=7.4) and 23 (46%) had recently thought about cutting down or stopping use. Of the 45% of youth who endorsed past month use, 25 (55%) reported using alone half of the time

or more, 35 (78%) reported using to cope most or all of the time, and 18 (40%) reported daily use. Notably, frequency of cannabis use and using for coping purposes accounted for 60% of the variance in CUDIT-R scores. Prevalence of monthly cannabis use was 3.2 times greater than prevalence in the general population of grade 7–12 students (14.1%) [4], surpassing a priori feasibility thresholds.

Alcohol Of the 51% who reported using alcohol in the 3 months prior to admission, 23 (47%) had AUDIT scores indicative of hazardous alcohol use (mean = 8.4, SD = 6.3). Of these youth, 12 (24%) reported someone being injured as a result of their drinking and 7 (14%) were currently concerned about their drinking. Of the 46% of youth who endorsed past month use, 11 (24%) reported using alone half of the time or more, 30 (65%) reported using to cope most or all of the time, and 29 (63%) reported heavy episodic drinking (HED). Questions regarding past month drinking and HED alongside drinking coping motives explained 58% of the variance in AUDIT scores. Prevalence of monthly HED was 1.9 times greater than the general population (15%) [4], surpassing a priori feasibility thresholds.

Cigarettes and E-cigarettes 14% endorsed daily use of tobacco cigarettes and 14% endorsed daily use of e-cigarettes. Types of e-cigarettes were clarified at follow-up, where most youth reported using e-cigarettes with nicotine (79%) and about a third (32%) reported use with canable

Other drug and prescription drug misuse When other drugs were used in the 3 months prior to admission, most youth endorsed using the substance 1 or 2 times with no more than 3% endorsing 10 or more times for any individual substance (3% cocaine, 2% solvents, 2% hallucinogens). Misuse of prescription drugs 10 or more times was more common with youth endorsing frequent use of prescription stimulants (4%), sedatives (5%), and/or opioids

Clinical correlates of substance use

The magnitude, significance, and precision of effects varied across different substance types (e.g., alcohol, cannabis, cigarettes, e-cigarettes, prescription, other) and substance-related variables (e.g., frequency, AUDIT/CUDIT-R, coping motives, using alone) for different clinical indicators. However, significant correlations emerged between at least one substance use variable and: (1) self-reported externalizing (all substances; significant tb from 0.17 to 0.45) and internalizing symptomatology (select substances; significant tb from 0.17 to 0.40); (2) clinician-reported aggressive behaviors

Page 8 of 15

Table 2 Demographic and clinical characteristics of youth participants

Sample characteristics	Mean (SD) or 9
Demographic characteristics	
Age	15.4 (1.2)
Perceived social status	5.5 (1.7)
Female sex	82%
Female gender	64%
Transgender and gender diverse	19%
White race/ethnicity	72%
Mixed race/ethnicity	17%
Lived in Canada whole life	91%
One or more parents born outside of Canada	25%
Positive screening on self-reported psychiatric symptom scales	
Generalized anxiety disorder (GAD)	69%
Social phobia (SP)	22%
Major depressive episode (MDE)	50%
Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD)	32%
Oppositional defiant disorder (ODD)	37%
Conduct disorder (CD)	32%
At least one internalizing disorder (GAD, SP, and/or MDE)	75%
At least one externalizing disorder (ADHD, ODD, and/or CD)	49%
At least one internalizing and one externalizing disorder	37%
Any internalizing or externalizing disorder	87%
Serious mental illness (K6)	85%
Most responsible physician discharge diagnosis (primary diagnosis, youth only have one)	
Depressive related disorders	29%
Anxiety and obsessive-compulsive related disorders	22%
Trauma and stressor related disorders	21%
Borderline, cluster B, and emotion dysregulation disorders	5%
ADHD and other neurodevelopmental disorders	5%
Other (for complete list, see Additional file 3, available online)	17%
Discharge summary diagnoses ^a	
Depressive related disorders	43%
Anxiety and obsessive-compulsive related disorders	64%
Trauma and stressor related disorders	31%
Borderline personality, cluster B, and emotion dysregulation disorders	41%
ADHD and other neurodevelopmental disorders	20%
Problems with family relations	17%
Eating disorders	12%
SUDs	10%
Other	14%
Number of any discharge diagnoses	2.9 (1.5)
Number of categories of discharge diagnoses (excluding other)	2.5 (1.2)
Hospital contacts prior to and following index	
Any ED visit in prior 3 years	44%
Any ED visit in prior 6 months	25%
Any ED re-presentations in following 6 months	27%
Any admission in prior 3 years	40%
Any admission in prior 6 months	21%
Any re-admission in following 6 months	24%

^a Discharge summary diagnoses are not mutually exclusive, and youth can have multiple

Page 9 of 15

Table 3 Prevalence of youth substance use prior to index admission

Substance	Time period or type of use	Total sample (n = 100	
Alcohol	Lifetime	73% (64 to 82)	
	Past 3 months	51% (41 to 61)	
	HED past month	29% (20 to 38)	
	AUDIT 8–15 "risky" ^a	17 (33% [20 to 46])	
	AUDIT ≥ 16 "harmful and high risk" ^a	6 (12% [3 to 21])	
Cannabis	Lifetime	66% (57 to 75)	
	Past 3 months	50% (40 to 60)	
	Daily past month	18% (10 to 26)	
	CUDIT 8–11 "hazardous" ^a	5 (10% [2 to 18])	
	CUDIT ≥ 12 "possible CUD" ^a	27 (54% [40 to 68])	
Tobacco	Lifetime	47% (37 to 57)	
	Past 3 months	33% (24 to 42)	
	Daily past month	14% (7 to 21)	
E-cigarettes	Lifetime	42% (32 to 52)	
	Past 3 months	34% (25 to 43)	
	Daily past month	14% (7 to 21)	
Prescription opioids	Lifetime	22% (14 to 30)	
	Past 3 months	18% (10 to 26)	
Sedatives	Lifetime	22% (14 to 30)	
	Past 3 months	14% (7 t 21)	
Prescription stimulants	Lifetime	21% (13 to 29)	
	Past 3 months	11% (5 to 17)	
Cocaine	Lifetime	18% (10 to 26)	
	Past 3 months	8% (3 to 13)	
Hallucinogens	Lifetime	22% (14 to 30)	
	Past 3 months	14% (7 to 21)	
Solvents	Lifetime	10% (4 to 16)	
	Past 3 months	4% (0 to 8)	
Any prescription drug	Lifetime	35% (26 to 44)	
	Past 3 months	24% (16 to 32)	
Any illicit substance use	Lifetime	34% (25 to 43)	
•	Past 3 months	17% (10 to 24)	
Any substance use	Lifetime	79% (71 to 87)	
•	Past 3 months	69% (60 to 78)	

 $Metham phetamines, street\ opioids,\ steroids,\ and\ synthetic\ cannabinoids\ were\ not\ included\ uniquely\ as\ prevalence\ was\ <4\%$

(most substances; significant rb from 0.21 to 0.32); (3) number of youth-reported psychiatric disorders (all substances; significant rb from 0.19 to 0.43); (4) number of physician-reported discharge diagnoses (select substances; significant rb from 0.17 to 0.54); (5) mental health related ED visits 3 years prior and 6 months after index (select substances); and (6) psychiatric admissions in the 3 years prior to index (all substances). Additionally, those who completed the 6-month follow-up who used cannabis, alcohol, cigarettes, or e-cigarettes prior to index endorsed significantly higher psychiatric symptoms at follow-up. This serves as preliminary exploratory

evidence of correlations between substance use and clinical severity, complexity, service use, and poorer prognosis. See Table 4 for select correlations between substance use and severity and complexity variables. More comprehensive details and results are presented in Additional file 5

Staff component

There was an 86% response rate (37/43) with roughly half RNs (49%) and half CYWs (51%). Over half (54%) of the staff participating in the survey had been working on the unit 5 years or longer with only 2 staff reporting less than

^a For those who endorsed use in the 3 months prior to index visit

Page 10 of 15

Table 4 Selected Kendall's tau correlations between substance variables and clinical severity and complexity outcomes

	Youth-reported psychiatric symptomatology as per OCHS-EBS						Physician-reported		
	SP	GAD	MDE	ADHD	ODD	CD	Total # surpassing clinical thresholds	Aggressive threats and behaviors	Total # of discharge diagnoses based on categories
Frequency									
Cannabis	-0.076	0.007	0.075	0.128	0.266 ^b	0.309 ^b	0.212 ^b	0.227 ^a	0.117
Alcohol	0.054	0.038	0.105	0.073	0.210 ^b	0.250 ^b	0.200 ^a	0.212 ^a	0.093
Cigarette	0.005	0.069	0.071	0.185 ^a	0.295 ^b	0.447 ^b	0.280 ^b	0.324 ^b	0.167
E-cigarette	-0.021	0.05	0.107	0.14	0.259 ^b	0.300 ^b	0.284 ^b	0.136	0.141
Prescription	0.208 ^a	0.245 ^b	0.279 ^b	0.168 ^a	0.230 ^b	0.319 ^b	0.360 ^b	0.262 ^b	0.197 ^a
Other	0.081	0.137	0.174 ^a	0.206 ^a	0.274 ^b	0.374 ^b	0.341 ^b	0.282 ^b	0.200 ^a
Coping motives									
Cannabis coping motives	0.293 ^b	0.398 ^b	0.206	0.001	0.052	0.04	0.229 ^a	- 0.068	0.358 ^a
Alcohol coping motives	0.128	0.302 ^b	0.236 ^a	0.320 ^b	0.299 ^b	0.316 ^b	0.412 ^b	0.159	0.540 ^b
Substance use disorder se	cores								
CUDIT total score	-0.094	0.015	0.072	-0.041	0.002	-0.005	0.005	0.039	0.116
AUDIT total score	0.02	0.123	0.186	0.289 ^b	0.336 ^b	0.444 ^b	0.396 ^b	0.281 ^a	0.442 ^b
Using substances with ot	hers								
Using cannabis with others	- 0.172	- 0.14	- 0.112	0.049	0.054	0.108	-0.043	- 0.085	0.049
Using alcohol with others	-0.103	-0.167	-0.067	-0.111	-0.143	-0.117	-0.187	- 0.113	- 0.205

More detailed results in Additional file 5, available online

1 year experience. The main findings were that: (1) staff believe substance use is important and common among youth on the unit and want to improve how they assess and address substance use; (2) staff have ideas about how to facilitate improvements in quality of care including greater standardization of assessments and interventions, separate cohorting and staffing for youth with more severe co-occurring problems, more direct substance related interventions, and more indirect facilitation of appropriate and supportive conversations; and (3) staff want more education and training to increase knowledge, confidence, and standardization of practices. Of note, lack of training (81%) and time pressures (64%) were the most commonly reported barriers to comprehensive assessment while facilitators included standardization, adding designated spaces in documentation, and training on conducting assessments and addressing positive screens.

Discussion

The CAMP study examined the feasibility of administering a standardized electronic assessment to measure mental health and substance use on an inpatient youth psychiatric unit and provides insight into the prevalence and correlates of substance use among youth in this acute setting. Collecting this data as part of a research study proved feasible, with high recruitment and response rates, and little participant and staff burden. The high prevalence of substance use provides evidence of the feasibility of general consecutive sampling and reinforces the importance of routine substance use assessments within this context.

Overall, comorbid substance use was the norm, not the exception. A majority of youth had used at least one substance prior to their admission, and substance use correlated with more severe psychiatric symptoms, greater complexity, and more mental health related hospital visits. Youth using substances were often using in ways that have been associated with higher risk of experiencing substance-related problems, including early age of initiation, frequent use, using multiple substances, using alone or for coping purposes, and co-using substances. Despite the unit not being designated as a concurrent disorders unit, youth with substance concerns are admitted. As such, frontline staff recommended adopting a comprehensive approach to substance use among youth admitted to hospital for psychiatric concerns, including adoption of standardized assessments, more training,

^a Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2 tailed)

^b Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

and enhanced patient conceptualization and intervention which include substance use considerations. Standardized screening and assessments can facilitate efficient identification of patients requiring more thorough SUD clinical assessments or immediate withdrawal management and can support comprehensive patient conceptualization, integrated treatment planning, and referral pathways.

Prevalence and frequency of substance use far surpassed that found in the general population of Ontario youth in grades 7-12. Not only were youth in this study more likely to use substances, but these youth also reported more frequent use, more co-use of substances, and more symptoms related to Alcohol Use Disorder and Cannabis Use Disorder compared to the general population. In particular, almost 1 in 5 youth in the present study reported using cannabis daily and 1 in 7 smoked tobacco products daily, frequencies which are roughly 8 to 9 times greater than general population estimates [4]. Further, this sample reported an age of initiation of cannabis about 2 years younger than the general population (13.3 CAMP vs. 15.4 OSDUHS) and similar to the age of initiation among youth who present to an outpatient concurrent disorders program in Toronto (13.6) [18]. Earlier age of cannabis initiation has been related to a greater likelihood of using multiple substances and developing a SUD [43, 44], experiencing cognitive impairment, lower academic achievement, and dropping out of school [43, 45, 46], having more criminal and legal involvement. and experiencing more concurrent mental health symptomatology [47]. Although there are differences in sampling strategies and characteristics, this provides general evidence of higher prevalence and risky use in clinical samples consistent with existing studies of youth with high levels of psychiatric symptomatology and suicidality [5-8, 48, 49]

Most clinical guidelines indicate the need to assess the role of substances prior to diagnosing and determining treatment for mental illnesses [24-27]. This study demonstrates it is feasible to collect self-reported substance use data electronically from youth experiencing acute psychiatric concerns. Electronic assessments have shown validity, acceptability, and greater efficiency as compared to clinical interviews [50]. Further, the high frequency of substance use seen in this sample demonstrate that a non-negligible proportion of youth admitted to the hospital for psychiatric concerns may be at risk of withdrawal during admission [51]. The most common withdrawal symptoms for cannabis and nicotine are behavioral and emotional, which may bias diagnostic assessments and interfere with care while on an inpatient unit if substance use is not assessed systematically and comprehensively [51]. Thus, screening and assessment should not be reserved only for research studies but rather must be integrated into routine clinical care and treatment planning.

Given neurodevelopmental vulnerability, any and all substance use among adolescents merits clinical intervention, especially among those with comorbid psychiatric concerns [26]. Early intervention has the potential to reduce the severity and persistence of substance use related problems [52]. The inpatient unit also provides a unique opportunity where motivation to change behavior may be higher and access to substances is limited, likely resulting in at least temporary cessation of use. Further, given there is evidence that youth present to mental health services before substance use services [9, 10], psychiatric hospitalizations may present a key opportunity for early intervention and/or referral to treatment. There is a critical need for further research of substance use on youth in psychiatric inpatient settings to inform the development of best practice guidelines and standardized clinical practices.

The existing study was a pilot study of 100 youth and 38 RNs and CYWs at a single institution. Generalizability of findings pertaining to youth is limited due to the small sample size, predominately female sex and White race, and data collection and visit history only obtained at one hospital site. While youth 12 years of age were eligible to participate, no 12 year olds were recruited into the study. This is likely due to the older age distribution of youth admitted to the inpatient units in Canada. where 15-17 year olds account for the highest rates of psychiatric hospitalizations (72%) [17]. Additionally, no youth with a diagnosis of psychosis or bipolar disorder were included in the final sample. In Canada and the US, depression is typically the most common reason for psychiatric hospitalization among adolescents [33, 53-56], which was also found in our sample. In 2019 across Canada, psychotic disorders represented a small proportion of psychiatric admissions for adolescents (<5%) [17]. Thus, we believe our sample is representative of the majority of adolescent psychiatric hospitalizations in Canada but does not generalize to a small proportion of youth unable to safely and cognitively consent or provide accurate histories, potentially due to young age (≤12) and altered mental status such as acute symptoms of mania and/or symptoms of psychosis (based on our study inclusion criteria). Future studies should consider developing and evaluating alternative assessments methods for patients who do not meet these criteria. Further, although we had high frontline staff response rates, generalizability of the staff results is also limited due to the small sample size at a single institution, in addition to only including regular full-time and part-time RNs and CYWs (to preserve anonymity). Future work should include staff feedback from the broader multidisciplinary and leadership team. Overall, recruitment rates were high among those meeting eligibility criteria, increasing confidence in the local representativeness of the sample.

Regarding measurement, gold standard urine drug screens, timeline follow-back, and clinical diagnostic interviews were not used to assess substance use and mental health concerns, but psychometrically validated measures were used alongside chart reviews providing multiple sources for information. Social desirability bias is of particular concern for self-reported data and may have resulted in underestimations of substance use [57]. Although we were unable to completely eliminate risk of social desirability bias, strategies to mitigate bias were used including exclusively requiring youth consent to participate (and not parent) [35, 36], using self-reported as opposed to interview-administered measures, and incorporating reminders about privacy and confidentiality during the consent process and embedded reminders throughout the assessment [12]. Of note, the willingness to complete may have been influenced by confidentiality and the provision of a \$10 incentive, which is not viable in routine clinical practice. However, information collected directly by clinical staff can support direct use of this data to inform treatment planning, referrals, and shared decision making with patients that may increase patient engagement without the need for an incentive. Additionally, clinical correlations should be interpreted as preliminary evidence and require further examination in larger samples with multivariable adjustments for potential confounders

Conclusions

In conclusion, the present study found that a majority of youth presenting to an inpatient psychiatric unit were engaging in recent substance use, often involving multiple substances, and provides preliminary evidence which supports the use of standardized substance use and mental health assessments during youth psychiatric hospitalizations. Subsequent studies should examine the feasibility and associated costs of having clinicians conduct standardized assessments, versus research assistants. Frontline staff in this study saw the need for standardized comprehensive assessments to improve clinical conceptualization and quality of care. By embedding standardized assessments directly into clinical practice, data becomes useful for: (1) direct patient care, by informing patient conceptualization, treatment pathways, and discharge planning; (2) program evaluation, by characterizing patients and providing insight into quality improvement strategies; and (3) enabling comprehensive and sustainable integration of research. Future work should include co-development and refinement of

standardized assessments and related clinical uses with youth, staff, and their families. Combining research and clinical practice will facilitate bridging current policy and clinical gaps while efficiently addressing and mitigating critical research gaps.

Abbreviations

ADHD: Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder; AUDIT: Alcohol Use Disorder Identification Test; BPG: Best Practice Guideline; CAMP: Cannabis, Alcohol, Mental health, and Patterns of service use; CD: Conduct Disorder; CEDIS: Canadian Emergency Department Information System; CIHI: Canadian Institute for Health Information; CYW: Child and Youth Worker; CUDIT-R: Cannabis Use Disorder Identification Test-Revised; DAD: Discharge Abstract Database; ED: Emergency Department; GAD: Generalized Anxiety Disorder; HED: Heavy Episodic Drinking; K6: Ressler-6; MDE: Major Depressive Episode; NACRS: National Ambulatory Care Reporting System; OCHS: Ontario Child Health Study; CCHS-EBS: Ontario Child Health Study-Emotional Behavioural Scales; ODD: Oppositional Defiant Disorder; OSDUHS: Ontario Student Drug Use and Health Survey; RA: Research Assistant; RECORD: REporting of studies Conducted using Observational Routinely-collected health Data; RN: Registered Nurse; SP: Social Phobia; STROBE: Strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology; SUD: Substance Use Disorder.

Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at https://doi org/10.1186/s13034-021-00403-4.

Additional file 1. Youth baseline survey

Additional file 2. Chart reviews

Additional file 3. Staff survey.

Additional file 4. Reporting guidelines.

Additional file 5. Detailed methods and results

Acknowledgements

Clinical staff and management on the Child and Youth Mental Health Inpatient Unit were involved in all stages of the study, including conceptualization, implementation, and interpretation. We cannot thank unit staff enough, particularly frontline Nurses and Child and Youth Workers, for their support of this study. In particular, thank you to Tammy Shaubel (a Child and Youth Worker) who came up with the study acronym "CAMP." A special thank you to the study Research Assistants: Jessica Hrymak (BA), Rachel Woock (BA), and Zil Nasir (BSC).

Authors' contributions

JH conceived of and designed the study. JH led the data collection, data analysis, and writing of the paper. RW assisted with youth and staff primary data collection and analysis. ZN assisted with chart reviews and descriptive analysis. LH, CM, JM, MA, and KG provided methodological and substantive support throughout the study design and manuscript process. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Funding

This study was funded by a Hamilton Health Sciences New Investigator Fund. The funders had no role in the design and conduct of the study; the collection, management, analysis, or interpretation of the data; preparation, review or approval of the manuscript; and decision to submit the manuscript for publication. JM is supported by the Peter Boris Chair in Addictions Research. KG holds the David R. (Dan) Offord Chair in Child Studies.

Availability of data and materials

The data used for this study are not publicly available due to its sensitive clinical nature. Data are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request and will be subject to further ethics approval.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Ethics approval was obtained from the Hamilton Integrated Research Ethics Board (ID 7075) and study procedures were approved by the Child and Youth Mental Health Research Advisory Committee. Informed consent was obtained directly from youth, and not parents, in order to mitigate bias in reporting substance use [31, 32], and to maintain parameters of confidentiality. Our focus on capacity rather than age, is consistent with the Tri-Council Policy Statement, Health Care Consent Act, and previous research demonstrating that youth 12 years of age or older are often capable of consent [33]. All methods were carried out in accordance with relevant guidelines and regulations.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

JM is a principal and senior scientist in BEAM Diagnostics, Inc; no BEAM products or services were used in the current work. JH, LH, MA, CM, ZN, RW, and KG have no competing interests to declare.

Author details

¹Department of Health Research Methods, Evidence, and Impact, McMaster University, 1280 Main Street West, ON L85 4S4 Hamilton, Canada. ²Child and Youth Mental Health Program, McMaster Children's Hospital, 1200 Main St W, ON L8N 3Z5 Hamilton, Canada. ³Department of Applied Behavioral Science, Coffin Logan Center for Addiction Research and Treatment, Addictions Lab at The University of Kansas, 1000 Sunnyside Avenue, KS 66045 Lawrence, United States. ⁴Department of Psychiatry and Behavioural Neurosciences, McMaster University, Hamilton, Canada. ⁵Peter Boris Centre for Addictions Research, McMaster University, 52 Peter Boris Centre for Addictions Research, McMaster University, Joseph's Healthcare Hamilton, 100 West 5th St, ON L8N 3K7 Hamilton, Canada. ⁶Michael G. DeGroote Centre for Medicinal Cannabis Research, McMaster University, Hamilton, Canada. ⁷Resident Affairs, Postgraduate Medical Education (PGME), McMaster University, 1280 Main Street West, ON L8S 4S4 Hamilton, Canada. ⁸Hamilton Health Sciences, 1200 Main St W, ON L8N 3Z5 Hamilton, Canada. ⁹Offord Centre for Child Studies, McMaster University, McMaster Innovation Park, Suite 201A, 1280 Main Street West, ON L8S 4K1 Hamilton, Canada.

Received: 21 May 2021 Accepted: 3 September 2021 Published online: 13 September 2021

References

- Kessler RC, Amminger GP, Aguilar-Gaxiola S, Alonso J, Lee S, Ustun TB. Age of onset of mental disorders: a review of recent literature. Curr Opin Psychiatry. 2007;20(4):359. https://doi.org/10.1097/vCO.0b013e32816ebc8c.
 Statistics Canada. Table 13-10-0394-01 leading causes of death, total
- Statistics Canada. Table 13-10-0394-01 leading causes of death, total population, by age group. 2020.
 Blanco C, Flórez-Salamanca L, Secades-Villa R, Wang S, Hasin DS. Predictions of the control of the cont
- Blanco C, Flórez-Śalamanca L, Secades-Villa R, Wang S, Hasin DS. Predictors of initiation of nicotine, alcohol, cannabis, and cocaine use: results of the National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions (NESARC). Am J Addict. 2018;27(6):477–84. https://doi.org/10.1111/ajad. 12764
- Boak A, Elton-Marshall T, Mann RE, Hamilton HA. Drug use among Ontario students, 1977–2019: detailed findings from the Ontario Student Drug Use and Health Survey (OSDUHS). Toronto: Centre for Addiction and Mental Health; 2020.
- Leadbeater BJ, Ames ME, Linden-Carmichael AN. Age-varying effects of cannabis use frequency and disorder on symptoms of psychosis, depression, and anxiety in adolescents and adults. Addiction. 2018. https://doi. org/10.1111/add.14459.
- Aseltine RH, Schilling EA, James A, Glanovsky JL, Jacobs D. Age variability in the association between heavy episodic drinking and adolescent suicide attempts: findings from a large-scale, school-based screening program. J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry. 2009;48(3):262–70. https:// doi.org/10.1097/CHI.0b013e318195bce8.
- Gobbi G, Atkin T, Zytynski T, Wang S, Askari S, Boruff J, et al. Association of cannabis use in adolescence and risk of depression, anxiety, and

- suicidality in young adulthood: a systematic review and meta-analysis. JAMA Psychiatry. 2019;76(4):426–34. https://doi.org/10.1001/jamapsychatry.2018.4500.
- Rush B, Urbanoski K, Bassani D, Castel S, Wild TC, Strike C, et al. Prevalence of co-occurring substance use and other mental disorders in the Canadian population. Can J Psychiatry. 2008;53(12):800–9. https://doi.org/10. 1177/070574370805301206.
- Hawkins EH. A tale of two systems: co-occurring mental health and substance abuse disorders treatment for adolescents. Annu Rev Psychol 2009;60:197–227. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.60.110707.
- Turner WC, Muck RD, Muck RJ, Stephens RL, Sukumar B. Co-occurring disorders in the adolescent mental health and substance abuse treatment systems. J Psychoact Drugs. 2004;36(4):455–62. https://doi.org/10.1080/0279107.2004.10524428.
- Boyle MH, Duncan L, Georgiades K, Comeau J, Reid GJ, O'Briain W, et al. Tracking children's mental health in the 21st century: lessons from the 2014 OCHS. Can J Psychiatry. 2019;64(4):232–6. https://doi.org/10.1177/ 0706743719830025
- Simon KM, Harris SK, Shrier LA, Bukstein OG. Measurement-based care in the treatment of adolescents with substance use disorders. Child Adolesc Psychiatr Clin N Am. 2020;29(4):675–90. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chc. 2020.06.006
- Harris B, Shaw B, Lawson H, Sherman B. Barriers to addressing adolescent substance use: perceptions of New York school-based health center providers. J Sch Health. 2016;86(2):96–104. https://doi.org/10.1111/josh. 13358
- Duncan L, Boyle MH, Abelson J, Waddell C. Measuring children's mental health in Ontario: policy issues and prospects for change. J Can Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry. 2018;27(2):88.
 Mammen G, Rueda S, Roerecke M, Bonato S, Lev-Ran S, Rehm J. Associa-
- Mammen G, Rueda S, Roerecke M, Bonato S, Lev-Ran S, Rehm J. Association of cannabis with long-term clinical symptoms in anxiety and mood disorders: a systematic review of prospective studies. J Clin Psychiatry. 2018. https://doi.org/10.4088/JCPI711839.
- Botsford SL, Yang S, George TP. Cannabis and cannabinoids in mood and anxiety disorders: impact on illness onset and course, and assessment of therapeutic potential. Am J Addict. 2020;29(1):9–26. https://doi.org/10. 1111/ajad.12963.
- 17. Canadian Institute for Health Information. Hospital stays for harm caused
- by substance use among youth age 10 to 24. Ottawa: CIHI; 2019.

 18. Hawke LD, Koyama E, Henderson J. Cannabis use, other substance use, and co-occurring mental health concerns among youth presenting for substance use treatment services: sex and age differences. J Subst Abuse Treat. 2018;91:12–9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsat.2018.05.001.
- Chan Y-F, Dennis ML, Funk RR. Prevalence and comorbidity of major internalizing and externalizing problems among adolescents and adults presenting to substance abuse treatment. J Subst Abuse Treat. 2008;34(1):14–24. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsat.2006.12.031.
- Ontario's Mental Health & Addictions Leadership Advisory Council. Mental health and addictions: realizing the vision—better mental health means better health. 2017. https://www.health.gov.on.ca/en/common/ ministry/publications/reports/bmhmbh_2017/vision_2017.pdf. Accessed 24 Apr 2021.
- Ontario Ministry of Health and Long-Term Care. Open minds, healthy minds: Ontario's comprehensive mental health and addictions strategy. 2011. https://www.health.gov.on.ca/en/common/ministry/publications/ reports/mental_health2011/mentalhealth_rep2011.pdf. Accessed 24 Apr 2021
- Mental Health Comission of Canada (MHCC). Changing directions, changing lives: the mental health strategy for Canada. 2019. https://www.mentalhealthcommission.ca/sites/default/files/MHStrategy_Strategy_ENCpdf. Accessed 24 Apr 2021.
- Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA). Strategic plan FY2019–FY2023. 2019. https://www.samhsa.gov/sites/default/files/samhsa_strategic_plan_fy19-fy23_final-508.pdf. Accessed 24 Apr 2021
- Pan L, Brent DA. BMJ best practice: depression in children. 2018. https:// bestpractice.bmj.com/topics/en-gb/785. Accessed 24 Apr 2021.
- Swinson RP. BMJ best practice guideline: generalized anxiety disorder. 2017. https://bestpractice.bmj.com/topics/en-us/120/pdf/120.pdf. Accessed 17 Mar 2021.

- National Institute on Drug Abuse. Principles of adolescents substance
 use disorder treatment a research-based guide. 2014. https://www.druga
 buse.gov/publications/principles-adolescent-substance-use-disordertreatment-research-based-guide/principles-adolescent-substance-usedisorder-treatment. Accessed 24 Apr 2021.
- Burkstein O. Substance use disorder in adolescents: epidemiology, pathogenesis, clinical manifestations and consequences, course, assessment, and diagnosis. UpToDate; 2020. https://www.uptodate.com/contents/substance-use-disorder-in-adolescents-epidemiology-pathogenesis-clinical-manifestations-and-consequences-course-assessment-and-diagnosis?search=adoelscent%20subsatnce%20use&source=search_result&selectedTitle=1~150&usage_type=default&display_rank=1#H2595582733. Accessed 24 Apr 2021.
- Sterling S, Kline-Simon AH, Wibbelsman C, Wong A, Weisner C. Screening for adolescent alcohol and drug use in pediatric health-care settings: predictors and implications for practice and policy. Addict Sci Clin Pract. 2012;7(1):13. https://doi.org/10.1186/1940-0640-7-13.
- McNeely J, Kumar PC, Rieckmann T, Sedlander E, Farkas S, Chollak C, et al. Barriers and facilitators affecting the implementation of substance use screening in primary care clinics: a qualitative study of patients, providers, and staff. Addict Sci Clin Pract. 2018;13(1):8. https://doi.org/10.1186/ s13722-018-0110-8.
- Alsuhaibani R, Smith DC, Lowrie R, Aljhani S, Paudyal V. How well do international clinical guidelines on mental health and substance misuse address their coexistence? A systematic review of scope, quality and inclusivity. BMC Psychiatry. 2021;21(1):209. https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3. rs-226664/V1.
- Thabane L, Ma J, Chu R, Cheng J, Ismaila A, Rios LP, et al. A tutorial on pilot studies: the what, why and how. BMC Med Res Methodol. 2010;10(1):1. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2288-10-1.
- Ministry of Children and Youth Services. Child and youth mental health: business intelligence solution data dictionary 2020. Ontario Ministry of Health; 2020. https://www.cymh.ca/en/projects/resources/cymh_bi_ solution_data_dictionary.pdfA_Accessed 2 Aug 2021.
- Mental Health and Addictions Scorecard and Evaluation Framework (MHASEP) Research Team. The mental health of children and youth in Ontario: 2017 scorecard. Chart pack. Toronto: Institute for Clinical Evalua tive Sciences; 2017. ISBN: 978-1-92-685074-0.
- Georgiades K, Duncan L, Wang L, Comeau J, Boyle MH, Team OCHS. Sixmonth prevalence of mental disorders and service contacts among children and youth in Ontario: evidence from the 2014 Ontario Child Health Study. Can J Psychiatry. 2019;64(4):246–55. https://doi.org/10.1177/0706743719830024
- White VM, Hill DJ, Effendi Y. How does active parental consent influence the findings of drug-use surveys in schools? Eval Rev. 2004;28(3):246–60. https://doi.org/10.1177/0193841X03259549.
- Rojas NL, Sherrit L, Harris S, Knight JR. The role of parental consent in adolescent substance use research. J Adolesc Health. 2008;42(2):192–7. https://doi.org/10.1016/i.jadohealth.2007.07.011.
- Hein IM, De Vries MC, Troost PW, Meynen G, Van Goudoever JB, Lindauer RJL. Informed consent instead of assent is appropriate in children from the age of twelve: policy implications of new findings on children's competence to consent to clinical research. BMC Med Ethics. 2015;16(1):76. https://doi.org/10.1186/s1.2910-015-0067-z.
- Evidence Partners. Methodological resources. 2021. https://www.evidencepartners.com/resources. Accessed 24 Apr 2021.
- Offord Centre for Child Studies. 2014 school mental health surveys (SMHS). 2014. https://ontariochildhealthstudy.ca/smhs/about/about-smhs/. Accessed 24 Apr 2021.
- Luciani M, Orr E, Campbell K, Nguyen L, Ausili D, Jack SM. How to design a qualitative health research study Part 2: data generation and analysis considerations. Prof Inferm. 2019;72(3):221–31.
- Bradshaw C, Atkinson S, Doody O. Employing a qualitative description approach in health care research. Glob Qual Nurs Res. 2017;4:1–8. https://doi.org/10.1177/2333393617742282.
- Creswell JW, Klassen AC, Plano Clark VL, KSmith KC. Best practices for mixed methods research in the health sciences. Bethesda (Maryland): National Institutes of Health. 2011;2013:541–5.
 Behrendt S, Wittchen HU, Höfler M, Lieb R, Beesdo K. Transitions from first
- Behrendt S, Wittchen HU, Höfler M, Lieb R, Beesdo K. Transitions from first substance use to substance use disorders in adolescence: is early onset

- associated with a rapid escalation? Drug Alcohol Depen. 2009;99(1):68-78. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2008.06.014. Rioux C, Castellanos-Ryan N, Parent S, Vitaro F, Tremblay RE, Séguin JR.
- Rioux C, Castellanos-Ryan N, Parent S, Vitaro F, Tremblay RE, Séguin JR. Age of cannabis use onset and adult drug abuse symptoms: a prospective study of common risk factors and indirect effects. Can J Psychiatry. 2018;63(7):457–64. https://doi.org/10.1177/0706743718760289.
- Arria AM, Garnier-Dykstra LM, Caldeira KM, Vincent KB, Winick ER, O'Grady KE. Drug use patterns and continuous enrollment in college: results from a longitudinal study. J Stud Alcohol Drugs. 2013;74(1):71–83. https://doi. org/10.15288/isad.2013.74.71
- Meda SA, Gueorguieva RV, Pittman B, Rosen RR, Aslanzadeh F, Tennen H, et al. Longitudinal Influence of alcohol and marijuana use on academic performance in college students. PLoS ONE. 2017;12(3): e0172213. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0172213.
- Hawke LD, Wilkins L, Henderson J. Early cannabis initiation: substance use and mental health profiles of service-seeking youth. J Adolesc. 2020;83:112–21. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2020.06.004.
- Weaver MF, Dupre MA, Cropsey KL, Koch JR, Sood BA, Wiley JL, et al. Addiction epidemiology in adolescents receiving inpatient psychiatric treatment. Addict Behav. 2007;32(12):3107–13. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. addiaba.2007.05.008
- Wang P-W, Yen C-F. Adolescent substance use behavior and suicidal behavior for boys and girls: a cross-sectional study by latent analysis approach. BMC Psychiatry. 2017;17(1):1–7. https://doi.org/10.1186/ s12888-017-1546-1
- Anderson KK, John-Baptiste A, MacDougall AG, Li L, Kurdyak P, Osuch EA. Access and health system impact of an early intervention treatment program for emerging adults with mood and anxiety disorders. Can J Psychiatry. 2019;64(7):492–500. https://doi.org/10.1177/0706743718809347.
- American Psychiatric Association. Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders (DSM-5). 5th ed. Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Pub. 2013
- De Girolamo G, Dagani J, Purcell R, Cocchi A, McGorry P. Age of onset of mental disorders and use of mental health services: needs, opportunities and obstacles. Epidemiol Psychiatr Sci. 2012;21(1):47. https://doi.org/10. 1017/5/2045/96/011000746
- Canadian Institute for Health Information. Care for children and youth with mental disorders—data tables. Ottawa: CIHI: 2020.
- Rosic T, Duncan L, Wang L, Eltorki M, Boyle M, Sassi R, et al. Trends and predictors of repeat mental health visits to a pediatric emergency Department in Hamilton, Ontario. J Can Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry 2019;28(2):82.
- Bardach NS, Coker TR, Zima BT, Murphy JM, Knapp P, Richardson LP, et al. Common and costly hospitalizations for pediatric mental health disorders. Pediatrics. 2014;133(4):602–9. https://doi.org/10.1542/peds
- Zima BT, Rodean J, Hall M, Bardach NS, Coker TR, Berry JG. Psychiatric dis orders and trends in resource use in pediatric hospitals. Pediatrics. 2016. https://doi.org/10.1542/peds.2016-0909.
- Williams RJ, Nowatzki N. Validity of adolescent self-report of substance use. Subs Use Misuse. 2005;40(3):299–311. https://doi.org/10.1081/JA-2000-2337
- Statistics Canada. Ontario child health study (OCHS) 2014. 2017. http:// www23.statcan.gc.ca/imdb/p25V;pl?Function=getSurvey&SDDS=3824 Acressed 10 lune 2019
- Accessed 10 June 2019.

 59. Adamson SJ, Kay-Lambkin FJ, Baker AL, Lewin TJ, Thornton L, Kelly BJ, et al. An improved brief measure of cannabis misuse: the cannabis use disorders identification test-revised (CUDIT-R). Drug Alcohol Depend. 2010.10(1–2):137–43. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dupalcdep.2010.02.017
- Simons J, Correia CJ, Carey KB, Borsari BE. Validating a five-factor marijuana motives measure: relations with use, problems, and alcohol motives. J Couns Psychol. 1998;45(3):265. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.45.3.265.
- Spinella TC, Stewart SH, Barrett SP. Context matters: characteristics of solitary versus social cannabis use. Drug Alcohol Rev. 2019;38(3):316–20. https://doi.org/10.1111/dax1.2012
- Babor TF, Higgins-Biddle J, Saunders J, Monteiro M. The alcohol use disorders identification test: guidelines for use in. World Health Organization. 2001. https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/67205. Accessed 17 Mar 2021.

(2021) 15:48

Page 15 of 15

- Cooper ML. Motivations for alcohol use among adolescents: development and validation of a four-factor model. Psychol Assess. 1994;6(2):117. https://doi.org/10.1037/1040-3590.6.2.117.
- 64. National Institute on Drug Abuse. NIDA quick screen V1.0. https://www. drugabuse.gov/sites/default/files/pdf/nmassist.pdf. Accessed 24 Apr
- 2021.
 65. Kessler RC, Andrews G, Colpe LJ, Hiripi E, et al. Short screening scales to monitor population prevalences and trends in non-specific psychologi-cal distress. Psychol Med. 2002;32(6):959. https://doi.org/10.1017/50033 291702006074.
 66. Duncan L, Georgiades K, Wang L, Comeau J, Ferro MA, Van Lieshout RJ, et al. The 2014 Ontario child health study emotional behavioural scales
- (OCHS-EBS) part I: a checklist for dimensional measurement of selected DSM-5 disorders. Can J Psychiatry. 2019;64(6):423–33. https://doi.org/10.1177/0706743718808250.
- 67. Bourque J, Afzali MH, O'Leary-Barrett M, Conrod P. Cannabis use and psychotic-like experiences trajectories during early adolescence: the coevolution and potential mediators. J Child Psychol Psychiatry. 2017;58(12):1360–9. https://doi.org/10.1111/jcpp.12765.

Publisher's Note

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Ready to submit your research? Choose BMC and benefit from:

- fast, convenient online submission
- thorough peer review by experienced researchers in your field
- rapid publication on acceptance
- support for research data, including large and complex data types
- gold Open Access which fosters wider collaboration and increased citations
- maximum visibility for your research: over 100M website views per year

At BMC, research is always in progress.

Learn more biomedcentral.com/submissions



Chapter 4: Select Supplementary Materials

All additional files available here: https://doi.org/10.1186/s13034-021-00403-4

Additional File 2: Chart Reviews

2.1 Summary of Visit History Methods

The list of 99 study participants provided by the researcher was linked, by chart number, to CIHI DAD (inpatient) and NACRS (ambulatory) databases to identify visits within 3 years prior and 6 months following the index visit, that met the following criteria:

- 1. **DAD**: 3-year prior visits = inpatient encounters where the index admit date prior admit date < 1096 days; 6-month readmissions = inpatient encounters where the index discharge date readmit date < 184 days. Include mental health and substance misuse encounters coded with any one of the following most responsible diagnoses (MRDx): Mental health codes (F*), Problems related to living in resd inst (Z593), Oth symptoms signs inv emotional state (R458), Probs relationship w parents & in laws (Z631), Poisoning by drugs, medications and biological substances (self-harm) (T36-T50), Stress not elsewhere classified (Z733).
- 2. NACRS: 3-year prior visits = ED visits where the index admit date ED triage date < 1096 days; 6 months revisits = ED visits where the index discharge date ED triage date < 184 days. Includes mental health and substance misuse ED visits coded with any one of following presenting complaint groupings, presenting complaints, or most responsible diagnoses (MRDx): Presenting complaint groupings related to Mental Health (351–400) and Substance Misuse (751–800); Presenting complaint of Anorexia; MRDx including Mental health codes (F*) and Oth symptoms signs inv emotional state (R458).

2.2 Summary of Data Extraction Content

Data type	Time	Content	
V		Mental health ED presentations	
		Psychiatric emergency admissions	
		Inpatient psychiatric admissions	
	Prior to	Any previous mental health	
	hospitalization	inpatient admission	
	1	If the youth was connected to an	
		outpatient mental health service or	
		family physician prior to their	
Service utilization	Q	admissions	
	Current hospitalizations	Length of stay	
		# of total ED presentations	
		# psychiatric emergency	
	6-month follow-up	admissions	
	·	# psychiatric inpatient admissions	
		For psychiatric emergency and	
		inpatient admits: length of stay	
		Suicidal ideation and/or attempt Medical instability from attempt	
		Non-suicidal self-harm	
		# of previous suicide attempts	
		Admission homicidal behaviours or	
	Current	thoughts	
Clinical severity and	hospitalization	Historical homicidal behaviours or	
complexity	(Clinical chart	thoughts	
•	review from	Aggressive behaviours	
	inpatient	Admission symptoms of psychosis	
	admission)	#/types/reasons for restraints	
		#/reasons egregious behavioural	
		analyses (EBA)	
		Substance use information	
		Working admission diagnosis	
		Discharge diagnoses	
		For mental health related	
	6-month follow-up	admissions: discharge diagnosis	

2.3 Discharge Diagnoses (Summary Note)

Discharge Diagnoses According to Discharge Summary Notes				
Category	# patients >= 1	Discharge Diagnosis		
	within category	g g		
Borderline	41	Borderline personality disorder;		
personality, Cluster		Borderline personality disorder		
B, and emotion		features/traits; Borderline personality		
dysregulation		traits (with dissociative symptoms);		
related diagnoses		Borderline personality disorder (with		
		significant emotional dysregulation and		
		poor impulse control); Emerging		
		borderline personality traits; Borderline		
		personality disorder with features of		
		PTSD; Cluster B/C traits or mixed		
		personality traits (Borderline, Obsessive		
		compulsive traits); Cluster B/C		
		traits(prominent OCP traits); Cluster B		
		traits/features; Cluster B (emotional		
		dysregulation); Cluster B (with gender		
		dysphoria); emotional dysregulation		
Depressive-related	43	[chronic] Major Depressive Disorder;		
diagnoses		Major depressive disorder; Major		
		depressive episode; Persistent depressive		
		disorder; Unspecified depressive disorder		
		vs. major depressive disorder;		
		[unspecified] depressive disorder;		
		Depression; Depressive symptoms		
Anxiety and OCD	64	Social anxiety disorder; [unspecified]		
Related Disorders		anxiety disorder; General anxiety		
		disorder; "high" anxiety; School phobia;		
		Anxiety; Social anxiety disorder (with		
		symptoms of GAD); Social anxiety		
		disorder (with panic attacks); General		
		anxiety disorder (with panic attacks);		
		Panic attacks; Panic disorder; Severe		
		obsessive compulsive disorder; Obsessive		
		compulsive disorder; body dysmorphic		
		disorder		

Trauma and stressor	31	(historic) PTSD; PTSD; PTSD features
related disorders		complex trauma; *borderline personality
		disorder with features of PTSD
		acute stress disorder; Unspecified trauma
		and stressor related disorder; Adjustment
		disorder; Chronic adjustment disorder;
		Adjustment disorder with disturbance of
		mood and conduct; Adjustment disorder
		with depressive symptoms/depressive
		symptoms; Adjustment disorder with
		depressed mood; Adjustment disorder
		secondary to unresolved grief;
		Adjustment disorder with depressed social
		anxiety disorder; [insecure] attachment
		disorder
ADHD and other	20	ADHD; ADHD (combined);
neurodevelopmental		Historic/previous ADHD; Learning
disorders		disorder; Learning disorders (areas of
		reading and math); Comorbid NVLD;
T	10	intellectual difficulties
Eating disorders	12	anorexia nervosa; anorexia nervosa
		(restrictive type); atypical anorexia
		nervosa; anorexia nervosa (binge/purge
		subtype); [unspecified] eating disorder; OFSED
Problems with	17	Parent-child relational
family relations	1 /	difficulties/conflict; Child conflict;
laminy relations		Significant Family stressors and conflict
SUDs	10	Substance use disorder; Poly-substance
		use disorder (cannabis and alcohol);
		Cannabis use disorder; Alcohol use
		disorder; Nicotine use disorder
Other	14	Gender dysphoria, Cluster C personality
		disorder, somatic symptom and related
		disorders disruptive, impulsive control,
		and conduct disorders, neurocognitive
		disorders, or no direct disorder.

2.4 Most Responsible Discharge Diagnosis

Collapsed Discharge Diagnoses	n	Specific Index discharge diagnosis	Fcode
		Depressive episode unspecified	F329
Depressive-related disorders	29	Sev. depressive episode wo psych symptoms	F322
disorders		Rec depressive disrd curr. episode mod	F331
		Anxiety disorder (unspecified)	F419
		Generalized anxiety disorder	F411
Anxiety and OCD		Panic disrd [ep paroxysmal anxiety]	F410
related disorders	22	Social anxiety disorder of childhood	F932
		Other specified anxiety disorders	F418
		Obsessive compulsive disorder NOS	F429
T 1 4		Adjustment disorder(s)	F432
Trauma and stressor disorder	21	Post-traumatic stress disorder	F431
disorder		Acute stress reaction	F430
Borderline personality, Cluster B, and emotion dysregulation related diagnoses	5	Emotionally unstable personality disrd	F603
ADHD and other	5	Disturbance of activity and attention	F900
neurodevelopmental disorders	5	Development disrd scholastic skills NOS	F819
Other	17	Feeding and eating disorders, substance use and addictive disorders, somatic symptoms and related disorders, disruptive, impulsive control and conduct disorders or other reasons that did not directly map on to a specific psychiatric disorder	F500, F501, F989, F949, K922, F649, F129, F129, R458, G9388, T432, F459, F452, F388, F913, F919

Additional File 5: Detailed Methods & Results

1. Pilot Sample Size Calculations

Pilots do not require sample size calculations and do not need to be adequately powered for a particular effect sizes⁴⁸. Therefore, we aimed to recruit a sample large enough to provide enough information to guide the methods and processes for a future full-scale study. Firstly, we considered prevalence of cannabis and alcohol use. Among a general population sample of grade 7-12 students in Ontario during the 2016/2017 academic year, 12.1% and 16.9% endorsed using cannabis and engaging in heavy drinking in the past month respectively⁵³. Cannabis and heavy drinking are even more common among individuals with mental health concerns⁷. Of note, prevalence of cannabis use has been increasing among Canadian youth in recent years 107. Further, using the School Mental Health Surveys - a similar representative sample of grade 6-12 students across Ontario during the 2014/2015 academic year - prevalence estimates of occasional or regular cannabis use and heavy drinking were, respectively, 1.7 and 1.5 times more compared to the general population among youth endorsing high levels of internalizing and externalizing symptoms (i.e., 1 SD or greater than the general sample). Given general population estimates, we anticipated that among 100 youth, a minimum of 20 and 25 youth would endorse at least monthly cannabis use and heavy drinking respectively. We anticipated these numbers would be higher given recent increasing trends in youth cannabis use alongside national cannabis legalization and the acuity of the sample. Secondly, we considered precision around feasibility estimates, basing success of the pilot around the 95% confidence interval (CI) of recruitment and follow-up⁴⁸.

Of note, using G*Power software¹⁰⁸, it was determined that a total sample size of 1230 will be required for the full study to analyze associations between substance use and clinical characteristics and service use, assuming a small difference in means (d=0.2), using a 2-sided independent t-test, with an a=0.05, B=0.2, and 4:1 difference in group membership (i.e. if n_{nouse} =80% and n_{use} =20%, the allocation ratio n_{nouse} / n_{use} =4). Estimates of effect sizes come from a recent meta-analysis of the general population which found point estimates between cannabis use and developing depression, anxiety and suicidal

ideation to be 1.37, 1.18, and 1.5 respectively¹⁰⁹. Therefore, our study represents less than 10% of the target sample size for an adequately powered analysis to find a small significantly difference between youth who use cannabis versus those that do not, although this may be an underestimation of prevalence of youth in this sample and effect estimates in the target acute population.

2. Follow-up Missingness Analysis

Univariable logistic regressions predicting 6-month follow-up missingness (missing=1).

	OR (SE)	P value
Mental Health Severity		
Total OCHS-EBS	1.00 (0.015)	0.989
Internalizing OCHS-EBS	0.948 (0.030)	0.079
Externalizing OCHS-EBS	1.03 (0.022)	0.180
Psychological distress (K6)	0.913 (0.043)	0.034
Psychosis symptoms	1.05 (0.047)	0.302
Nonsuicidal self-injury	0.605 (0.277)	0.070
Suicide attempt	0.775 (0.267)	0.388
Aggression	1.197 (0.239)	0.451
Mental Health Complexity		
OCHS diagnosis count (self-reported)	0.994 (0.12)	0.960
Physician reported diagnoses count (physician-reported)	1.066 (0.134)	0.635
Hospital Service Use History	,	
Prior psychiatric inpatient admission	0.690 (0.411)	0.368
Prior psychiatric ED visit	0.420 (0.414)	0.036
Substance Use Frequency		
Cannabis	0.914 (0.180)	0.617
Alcohol	0.755 (0.174)	0.108
Tobacco Cigarettes	1.021 (0.183)	0.908
E-cigarettes	0.928 (0.178)	0.676
Prescription Drug Misuse	0.796 (0.237)	0.337
Other Drug use	0.760 (0.264)	0.299
Demographics		
Female Gender (ref male)	0.684 (0.451)	0.401
Transgender or Gender Diverse (ref male)	0.353 (0.945)	0.270
Female Sex	0.606 (0.532)	0.346
Age	0.924 (0.166)	0.632
Self-Reported Social Status	0.971 (0.121)	0.808
White Race/ethnicity	0.579 (0.453)	0.228

3. Substance Use Disaggregated by Sex and Gender

Substance	Time Period (ref to index)	Total Sample (n=100)	Female Sex (n=82)	Male Sex (n=18)	Transgender or Gender Diverse (n=19)	Cisgender (n=81)
	lifetime	73%	61 (74%)	12 (67%)	16 (84%)	57 (70%)
	3 months	51%	42 (51%)	9 (50%)	12 (63%)	39 (48%)
Alcohol	HED past month	29%	24 (29.3%)	5 (27.8%)	4 (21.1%)	25 (30.9%)
	AUDIT>=8 (for those who used)	23 (47%)	21 (52.5%)	2 (22.2%)	5 (45.5%)	18 (47.4%)
	lifetime	66%	53 (65%)	13 (72%)	13 (68%)	53 (65%)
	3 months	50%	39 (48%)	11 (61%)	9 (47%)	41 (51%)
Cannabis	daily past month	18%	14 (17.1%)	4 (22.2%)	3 (15.8%)	15 (18.5%)
	CUDIT>=8 (of those how have used)	32 (64%)	24 (61.5%)	8 (72.7%)	6 (66.7%)	26 (63.4%)
	lifetime	47%	39 (48%)	8 (44%)	8 (42%)	39 (48%)
Tobacco	3 months	33%	29 (35%)	4 (22%)	7 (37%)	26 (32%)
Tobacco	daily past month	14%	14 (17.1%)	0	4 (21.2%)	10 (12.3%)
	lifetime	42%	34 (42%)	8 (44%)	7 (37%)	35 (43%)
F : "	3 months	34%	29 (35%)	5 (28%)	5 (26%)	29 (36%)
E-cigarettes	daily past month	14%	13 (15.9%)	1 (5.6%)	2 (10.5%)	12 (14.8%)
Prescription	lifetime	22%	17 (21%)	5 (28%)	4 (21%)	18 (23%)
Opioids	3 months	18%	14 (18%)	4 (22%)	4 (21%)	14 (18%)
Any Alcohol, Cannabis, or Tobacco	3 months	66%	52 (63%)	14 (78%)	14 (74%)	53 (64%)
Any Prescription drug	3 months	24%	18 (22%)	6 (33%)	4 (21%)	20 (25%)
Any Illicit substance use	3 months	17%	14 (17%)	3 (17%)	2 (11%)	15 (19%)
Any substance use	3 months	69%	55 (67%)	14 (78%)	15 (79%)	54 (67%)

4. Substance Use Disorder Scores and Exploration

Table 4.1. Correlations between CUDIT scores and other cannabis and substance use variables.

	Kendall's Tau	Baseline CUDIT
		total score
Baseline frequency of	Correlation Coefficient	.542**
cannabis use	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
Camiaois usc	N Sig. (2-tailed)	50
Have ald ware you the first	Correlation Coefficient	037
How old were you the first		
time you used cannabis?	Sig. (2-tailed)	.726
WI . CTIIC:	N C 1 d C CC CC 1	50
What percentage of THC is	Correlation Coefficient	.108
in the cannabis you usually	Sig. (2-tailed)	.544
use?	N	19
What percentage (%) of	Correlation Coefficient	.025
CBD is in the cannabis you	Sig. (2-tailed)	.909
usually use?	N	14
Baseline Marijuana Coping	Correlation Coefficient	.250*
Motives Score	Sig. (2-tailed)	.021
	N	45
Coping Motive Item 1: To	Correlation Coefficient	.248*
forget my worries	Sig. (2-tailed)	.032
	N	45
Coping Motive Item 2:	Correlation Coefficient	.252*
Because it helps me when I	Sig. (2-tailed)	.030
feel depressed or nervous	N	45
Coping Motive Item 3: To	Correlation Coefficient	.380**
cheer me up when I am in a	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
bad mood	N	45
Coping Motive Item 4: To	Correlation Coefficient	.283*
forget about my problems	Sig. (2-tailed)	.015
- • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	N	45
Coping Motive Item 5:	Correlation Coefficient	.097
Because I feel more self-	Sig. (2-tailed)	.402
	N	45

confident and sure about myself		
Baseline frequency of	Correlation Coefficient	.194
alcohol use	Sig. (2-tailed)	.075
	N	50
Baseline past month any	Correlation Coefficient	.106
alcohol use or binge drinking	Sig. (2-tailed)	.349
	N	50
Baseline Alcohol Coping	Correlation Coefficient	.003
Motives Score	Sig. (2-tailed)	.981
	N	40
Tobacco use at Baseline	Correlation Coefficient	.131
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.232
	N	50
E-cigarette use at Baseline	Correlation Coefficient	.121
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.272
	N	50
Any prescription drug	Correlation Coefficient	.151
misuse in 3months prior to	Sig. (2-tailed)	.208
admission	N	50
Any illicit substance use in	Correlation Coefficient	.182
3months prior to admission	Sig. (2-tailed)	.129
	N	50

Predicting CUDIT Scores

Using forward selection based on bivariate correlations, linear regression revealed that questions regarding frequency of cannabis use and coping motives explain 60.4% of the variance (adjusted R^2 0.585). This model fit better than frequency of cannabis alone (adjusted R^2 0.501). Adding frequency of using with others did not increase adjusted variance explained (adjusted R^2 0.582). Among those who also used tobacco, frequency of co-use was not significant after adjusting for frequency and motives.

Table 4.3. Correlations between AUDIT scores and other alcohol and substance use variables.

	Kendall's Tau	Baseline AUDIT
		total score
Baseline frequency of alcohol	Correlation Coefficient	.537**
use	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	49
Baseline past month any alcohol	Correlation Coefficient	.551**
use or binge drinking	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	49
Baseline Alcohol Coping	Correlation Coefficient	.541**
Motives Score	Sig. (2-tailed)	000
	N	44
Motives Item 1. To forget my	Correlation Coefficient	.451**
worries	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	44
Motives Item 2. Because it helps	Correlation Coefficient	.475**
me when I feel depressed or	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
nervous	N	44
Motives Item 3. To cheer me up	Correlation Coefficient	.481**
when I am in a bad mood	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	44
Motives Item 4. To forget about	Correlation Coefficient	.457**
my problems	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	44
Motives Item 5. Because I feel	Correlation Coefficient	.501**
more self-confident and sure	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
about myself	N	44
Are other people with you when	Correlation Coefficient	209
you drink alcohol?	Sig. (2-tailed)	.083
	N	44
Baseline frequency of cannabis	Correlation Coefficient	.204
use	Sig. (2-tailed)	.054
	N	49

How often did you use alcohol	Correlation Coefficient	.337**
and cannabis on the same	Sig. (2-tailed)	.008
occasion?	N	38
Tobacco use at Baseline	Correlation Coefficient	.424**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	49
E-cigarette use at Baseline	Correlation Coefficient	.295**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.008
	N	49
Any prescription drug misuse in	Correlation Coefficient	.212
3 months prior to admission	Sig. (2-tailed)	.082
	N	49
Any illicit substance use in 3	Correlation Coefficient	.234
months prior to admission	Sig. (2-tailed)	.055
	N	49

Predicting AUDIT scores

Using forward selection based on bivariate correlations, linear regression revealed that questions regarding past month drinking (split into none, any but no HED, and HED) alongside coping motives for drinking explain 57.7% of the variance (adjusted R² 0.557). This model fit better than past month drinking/HED alone (R² 0.379) or coping motives alone (R² 0.407). Adding frequency of tobacco use to the regression did not improve the model (adjusted R² 0.553). Among those who also used cannabis, frequency of co-use slightly improved prediction to 59.9% (adjusted R² 0.564). Of note, frequency of solitary use did not improve model fit.

5. Substance Use and Clinical Severity

Part A: Substance use and clinical severity at index

Indicators of clinical psychiatric severity were operationalized based on clinician-reports from chart reviews and based on youth self-reported surveys.

Severity indicators from charts used for correlation analyses included:

- 1. Suicide plan (1) and attempt (2) compared to ideation or none (0). Response options of none and suicidal ideation were collapsed as only 1 patient indicated no suicide related thoughts or behaviours.
- 2. Self-harm previous (1) and current (2) versus none (0).
- 3. Aggression categories were collapsed based on overlap and frequencies into aggressive threats or aggression without harm (1), aggression resulting in property damage or harm to others (2), and none (0). Some youth fell into multiple domains and the highest level of aggression reported was coded in this indicator.

Several severity indicators from chart reviews were not included in subsequent analyses due to low frequency counts and/or missing data/lack of clarity, including:

- Patient (19 missing), parent (33 missing), and clinician (n<10) reported psychosis, bizarre, or disorganized behaviour documented in the medical record.
- Homicidal ideation, plans, or attempts (n<10) documented in medical record.
- Use of restraints (n<10) or an egregious behaviour analyses (n<10) while on the unit documented in medical record.

Severity indicators from self-reported youth surveys included: 1) OCHS-EBS measures for Social Phobia (SP), Generalized Anxiety Disorder (GAD), Major Depressive Disorder (MDE), Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), Oppositional Defiant Disorder (ODD), Conduct Disorder (CD); 2) K6 for general psychological distress; 3) Psychosis symptoms score.

Kendall's Tau	correlations	suicidal ideation, plan, & attempt	Non- suicidal self-harm	Aggressive threats & behaviours
Cannabis use	Correlation	0.167	0.128	.227*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.057	0.159	0.016
	N	98	94	87
Alcohol use	Correlation	0.15	0.063	.212*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.087	0.486	0.025
	N	98	94	87
Tobacco use	Correlation	.227*	0.142	.324**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.011	0.126	0.001
	N	98	94	87
E-cigarette use	Correlation	0.094	0.092	0.136
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.295	0.322	0.159
	N	98	94	87
Prescription	Correlation	0.136	0.113	.262**
drug misuse	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.142	0.24	0.009
	N	98	94	87
Illicit drug				
misuse	Correlation	0.044	0.131	.282**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.631	0.169	0.005
	N	98	94	87
Cannabis	Correlation	059	012	068
Coping Motives	Sig. (2-tailed)	.636	.921	.595
Score	N	44	44	41
Alcohol Coping	Correlation	019	.117	.159
Motives Score	Sig. (2-tailed)	.881	.347	.215
	N	45	45	42
CUDIT	Correlation	.160	110	.039
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.165	.347	.749
	N	49	49	44
AUDIT	Correlation	.148	.094	.281*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.206	.431	.022
	N	48	47	44
Using cannabis	Correlation	073	126	085
with others	Sig. (2-tailed)	.574	.342	.530
	N	44	44	41
	Correlation	074	205	113
Using alcohol	Sig. (2-tailed)	.582	.130	.416
with others	N	45	45	42

Kendall's Tau Correlations (self-report severity)	self-report severity)	SP	GAD	MDE	ADHD	ODD	CD	Psychosis	K6
Cannabis use (n=100)	Correlation Coefficient	-0.076	0.007	0.075	0.128	.266**	.309**	0.028	0.035
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.346	0.93	0.344	0.102	0.001	0	0.721	0.652
Alcohol use (n=100)	Correlation Coefficient	0.054	0.038	0.105	0.073	.210**	.250**	0.059	0.152
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.502	0.632	0.186	0.35	0.008	0.002	0.456	0.051
Tobacco use (n=100)	Correlation Coefficient	0.005	0.069	0.071	.185*	.295**	.447**	0.133	0.065
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.952	0.397	0.377	0.021	0	0	0.099	0.412
E-cigarette use a(n=100)	Correlation Coefficient	-0.021	0.05	0.107	0.14	.259**	.300**	0.083	0.115
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.802	0.543	0.188	0.081	0.001	0	0.304	0.149
Prescription drug misuse									
(n=100)	Correlation Coefficient	.208*	.245**	.279**	.168*	.230**	.319**	0.116	.195*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.014	0.004	0.001	0.042	0.005	0	0.163	0.017
Illicit drug use (n=100)	Correlation Coefficient	0.081	0.137	.174*	.206*	.274**	.374**	0.129	0.04
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.338	0.102	0.037	0.012	0.001	0	0.122	0.627
Cannabis coping motives									
(n=45)	Correlation Coefficient	.293**	.398**	0.206	0.001	0.052	0.04	-0.014	.301**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.009	0	0.065	0.992	0.635	0.714	0.897	9000
Alcohol coping motives									
(n=46)	Correlation Coefficient	0.128	.302**	.236*	.320**	.299**	.316**	0.137	.276*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.259	0.007	0.033	0.004	0.007	0.004	0.216	0.012
AUDIT total score (n=49)	Correlation Coefficient	0.02	0.123	0.186	.289**	.336**	**444	.364**	0.157
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.853	0.25	0.077	900.0	0.001	0	0.001	0.134
CUDIT total score (n=50)	Correlation Coefficient	-0.094	0.015	0.072	-0.041	0.002	-0.005	0.136	0.105
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.371	0.885	0.488	989.0	0.987	96.0	0.189	0.304
Using cannabis with others									
(n=45)	Correlation Coefficient	-0.172	-0.14	-0.112	0.049	0.054	0.108	-0.164	-0.138
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.148	0.234	0.34	0.671	0.642	0.352	0.159	0.234
Using alcohol with others			,	1		,		1	0
(n=46)	Correlation Coefficient	-0.103	-0.167	-0.067	-0.111	-0.143	-0.117	470**	298*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.405	0.174	0.579	0.353	0.232	0.325	0	0.013

Part B: Substance use and clinical severity at follow-up

6-month follow-up self-reported psychiatric symptoms as per the OCHS-EBS were predicted by frequency of the most commonly used substances at index admission (i.e., cannabis, alcohol, tobacco cigarettes, and e-cigarettes) and whether youth increased, decreased, or kept their use the same at 6-month follow-up. Linear regressions were performed adjusting for index psychiatric symptoms.

																							_
Follow-up Total symptoms	3.8 (1.6) p=0.023	3.9 (4.0)	p=0.333	-5.0 (4.7)	p=0.288	3.6 (1.7)	p=0.038	-0.9 (4.0)	p=0.830	-5.8 (4.4)	p=0.199	4.1 (1.8)	p=0.031	6.1 (4.6)	p=0.187	2.3 (4.8)	p=0.629	3.0 (1.4)	p=0.043	10.4 (3.7)	p=0.008	1.5 (4.5)	p=0.734
Follow-up	2.4(1.5) $p=0.032$					2.5 (1.4)	p=0.096					4.6 (1.5)	p=0.004					2.7 (1.5)	=0.077				
zing Symptoms	1.1 (1.0) $p=0.297$	2.9 (2.6)	p=0.256	-2.4 (3.0)	p=0.426	1.5 (1.1)	p=0.189	-0.6 (2.5)	p=0.805	-3.0 (2.8)	p=0.293	1.7 (1.2)	p=0.162	3.4 (2.9)	p=0.251	0.7 (3.1)	p=0.833	0.8 (0.9)	p=0.394	5.4 (2.5)	p=0.034	-0.4 (3.0)	n=0 800
Follow-up Externalizing Symptoms	0.89 (0.99) p=0.372 1.1 (1.0)					0.8 (0.9) p=0.373						1.9 (1.0) p=0.059						0.5 (0.9) p=0.599					
zing Symptoms	2.2 (0.8) p=0.008	0.5 (2.1)	p=0.809	-3.0 (2.5)	p=0.232	1.6 (0.9)	p=0.066	0.1 (2.1)	p=0.977	-1.9 (2.4)	p=0.443	1.7 (0.9)	p=0.066	2.9 (2.5)	p=0.24	1.9 (2.5)	p=0.451	1.9 (0.7)	p=0.016	4.0 (2.0)	p=0.050	0.5 (2.3)	n=0 842
Follow-up Internalizing Symptoms	1.9 (0.7) p=0.013 2.2 (0.8) 2.9 (0.8)					1.3 (0.7) p=0.091						2.2 (0.8) p=0.006						1.8 (0.7) p=0.018					
	Baseline Cannabis	Increased (n=10)		Decreased (n=8)		Baseline Alcohol		Increased (n=13)		Decreased (n=15)		Baseline Tobacco	cigarettes	Increased (n=7)		Decreased (n=9)		Baseline E-	cigarettes	Increased (n=11)		Decreased (n=8)	

6. Substance Use and Clinical Complexity

Indicators of clinical psychiatric complexity were operationalized based on cliniciandiagnoses from chart reviews and based on youth self-reported surveys.

Complexity indicators from the charts included:

- Number of diagnoses at discharge
- Number of categories of diagnoses at discharge (excluding other)
 - Categories included: anxiety and OCD, depressive related, cluster-B/BPD, trauma and stressor related, ADHD and neurodevelopmental, Eating disorders, Problems with family relations, and SUDs.

Complexity indicators from the youth survey included:

- Number of OCHS-EBS symptom scores surpassing population thresholds
 - o Total number (i.e., GAD, SP, MDE, ADHD, ODD, and CD)
 - o # internalizing (i.e., GAD, SP, MDE)
 - o # externalizing (i.e., ADHD, ODD, CD)
 - o INT & EXT

With the exception of INT&EXT, conservative non-parametric Kendall's Tau correlations (τ b) were performed, whereby p<0.05 indicated significant correlations. Point-biserial (r_{pb}) were used for INT&EXT correlations.

Ph.D. Thesis – J. Halladay; McMaster University – Health Research Methodology

		self-report	self-report	self-report	self-report int	total physician	category
Kendall's Tau & Point-biserial correlations for complexity	rrelations for complexity	total count	int count	ext count	& ext	count	physician count
Cannabis use (n=100)	Correlation Coefficient	.212**	0.029	.289**	*500.	0.04	0.117
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.009	0.727	0.001	0.037	0.63	0.162
Alcohol use (n=100)	Correlation Coefficient	*200*	0.09	.215*	0.181	0.009	0.093
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.013	0.285	0.012	0.071	0.911	0.269
Tobacco use (n=100)	Correlation Coefficient	.280**	0.049	.367**	.357**	0.122	0.167
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001	0.571	0	0	0.147	0.05
E-cigarette use (n=100)	Correlation Coefficient	.284**	0.083	.324**	.286**	0.074	0.141
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001	0.335	0	0.004	0.382	0.1
Prescription drug misuse (n=100)	Correlation Coefficient	.360**	.334**	*525	.321**	.173*	.197*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0	0.012	0.001	0.047	0.026
Illicit drug use (n=100)	Correlation Coefficient	.341**	*191*	.317**	.273**	0.114	.200*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0.031	0	0.006	0.189	0.023
Cannabis coping motives (n=45)	Correlation Coefficient	.229*	.383**	-0.02	.331*	0.091	.358*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.044	0.001	0.868	0.027	0.43	0.016
Alcohol Coping Motives (n=46)	Correlation Coefficient	.412**	0.222	.372**	.539**	.297*	.540**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0.058	0.002	0	0.01	0
CUDIT total score (n=50)	Correlation Coefficient	0.005	0.07	-0.029	0.126	0.12	0.116
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.959	0.52	0.791	0.382	0.268	0.422
AUDIT total score (n=49)	Correlation Coefficient	.396**	0.132	.431**	.417**	0.121	.442**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0.237	0	0.003	0.271	0.001
Using cannabis with others (n=45)	Correlation Coefficient	-0.043	-0.137	0.103	0.054	-0.064	0.049
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.721	0.27	0.41	0.723	0.598	0.747
Using alcohol with others (n=46)	Correlation Coefficient	-0.187	-0.138	-0.134	-0.224	-0.12	-0.205
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.129	0.28	0.298	0.135	0.34	0.172

7. Substance Use and Service Use

Methods. Repeat ED visits and hospitalizations were obtained through administrative records. Timelines were operationalized as: (1) 3 years prior to index; (2) 6 months prior to index; and (3) 6 months after index. ED visits and psychiatric hospitalizations were analyzed separately. Any mental health related ED visit was created through combining mental health and substance use ED visits. Any mental health inpatient admissions were identified by combining discharges from the Child and Youth Mental Health Inpatient unit and the Eating Disorder Inpatient unit. There may have been some youth who were discharged from other non-mental health related units who were missed – i.e., transferred to a medical unit prior to discharge – however, this is extremely rare and typically it occurs in the reverse whereby youth are medically cleared on a medical unit first and subsequently transferred to the mental health unit. Logistic regressions were conducted predicting any ED visit or any inpatient admission. All analyses were adjusted for whether the index admission was a direct admission (proxy for out of city) or through the local ED. Independent variables included: substance use frequencies (measure categorically and continuously), cannabis and alcohol coping motives scores, CUDIT and AUDIT scores, and proportion of time spent using cannabis and alcohol with others (whereby lower scores are reflective of a greater frequency of solitary use). **Results.** When looking at substance use frequencies, all substances (i.e., alcohol, cannabis, tobacco, e-cigarettes, prescription drugs, and illicit drugs) were significantly related to a higher likelihood of having had an inpatient admission in the 3 years prior. Prescription drug misuse was additionally related to a higher likelihood of ED presentations in the 3 years prior. E-cigarette use was additionally related to a higher likelihood of an ED visit 6 months after index. For cannabis and alcohol, coping motives and AUDIT/CUDIT scores were not related to hospital contacts. However, using alcohol alone was related to a greater likelihood of re-presenting to ED within 6 months and a having a prior inpatient admission in the past 3 years and 6 months. Using cannabis alone was related to a greater likelihood of an ED visit in the past 3 years and 6 months. Other visit types and timelines were not significant. Please see the table for full results.

Logistic regressions predicting any ED visit or any inpatient admission. All analyses adjusted for whether the index admission was a direct admission or through local ED. Presented as adjusted OR (95% CI); p value.

	J.(, , ,)))) F		
		ED visits			Inpatient Admissions	
	3-year prior	6-months prior	6-months post	3-year prior	6-months prior	9-months post
Substance use Factors						
Cannabis						
not past month	2.66 (0.81,8.77);	1.83 (0.53,6.29);	3.33 (0.91,12.12);	7.65 (2.15,27.22);	4.03 (1.01,16.08);	1.71 (0.52,5.62);
(ref=never)	p=0.108	p=0.338	p=0.069	p=0.002	p=0.048	p=0.38
past month but not	1.43 (0.47,4.32);	0.52 (0.13,2.06);	1.66 (0.45,6.07);	4.19 (1.31,13.41);	2.57 (0.66,10.02);	0.46 (0.13,1.71);
every day (ref=never)	p=0.53	p=0.353	p=0.444	p=0.016	p=0.175	p=0.249
daily (ref=never)	1.95 (0.57,6.68);	0.8 (0.19,3.32);	1.18 (0.27,5.18);	3.65 (1.01,13.25);	0.87 (0.14,5.34);	0.54 (0.13,2.32);
	p=0.289	p=0.758	p=0.828	p=0.048	p=0.883	p=0.407
Continuous frequency	1.18 (0.81,1.73);	0.83 (0.54,1.29);	1.03 (0.67,1.58);	1.45 (1,2.11);	1.03 (0.66,1.59);	0.75 (0.49,1.15);
score	p=0.392	p=0.412	p=0.891	p=0.048	p=0.899	p=0.191
Cannabis coping	0.99 (0.9,1.08);	1 (0.9,1.12);	1.08 (0.97,1.21);	1.1 (0.99,1.21);	1.01 (0.91,1.13);	1.11 (0.95,1.28);
motives	p=0.763	p=0.965	p=0.178	p=0.062	p=0.81	p=0.186
CUDIT score	1.03 (0.95,1.12);	1.02 (0.93,1.13);	0.95 (0.87,1.04);	1.06 (0.98,1.14);	0.98 (0.89,1.07);	1.03 (0.93,1.15);
	p=0.47	p=0.664	p=0.274	p=0.174	p=0.615	p=0.566
Frequency of use with	0.58 (0.35,0.96);	0.51 (0.26,1);	0.62 (0.35,1.08);	0.7 (0.44,1.11);	0.56 (0.3,1.02);	0.74 (0.4,1.37);
others	p=0.035	p=0.049	p=0.088	p=0.126	p=0.058	p=0.336
Alcohol						
not past month	4.49 (1.3,15.47);	1.29 (0.34,4.82);	3.8 (0.98,14.71);	10.87 (2.86,41.3);	2.4 (0.53,10.91);	1.26 (0.39,3.99);
(ref=never)	p=0.017	p=0.709	p=0.053	b=0	p=0.258	p=0.701
past month but not	2.17 (0.56,8.34);	1.41 (0.33,6.05);	0.86 (0.16,4.53);	3.14 (0.73,13.47);	2.42 (0.46,12.62);	0.73 (0.18,2.93);
heavy (ref=never)	p=0.261	p=0.646	p=0.86	p=0.123	p=0.294	p=0.652
past month heavy	1.36 (0.42,4.41);	0.87 (0.24,3.2);	1.32 (0.35,5.04);	4.69 (1.28,17.21);	2.8 (0.65,12.08);	0.27 (0.06,1.16);
(ref=never)	p=0.612	p=0.832	p=0.684	p=0.02	p=0.168	p=0.078
Continuous frequency	1 (0 7 1 44)=0 092	0.95 (0.64,1.43);	0.94 (0.63,1.41);	1.31 (0.92,1.85);	1.31 (0.86,2.01);	0.67 (0.44,1.01);
score	1 (0.7,1.44), p=0.363	p=0.813	p=0.775	p=0.135	p=0.207	p=0.057
Alcohol coping	0.98 (0.9,1.06);	0.94 (0.85,1.03);	1.06 (0.97,1.16);	1.1 (1.01,1.2);	1.06 (0.97,1.16);	1.12 (0.99,1.27);
motives	p=0.631	p=0.172	p=0.207	p=0.023	p=0.204	p=0.085
AUDIT score	0.95 (0.85,1.07);	0.95 (0.83,1.07);	1.04 (0.93,1.16);	1.06 (0.97,1.17);	1.08 (0.97,1.2);	0.98 (0.87,1.11);
	p=0.397	p=0.374	p=0.486	p=0.206	p=0.15	p=0.775

Frequency of use with	0.79 (0.46,1.36);	0.61 (0.35,1.07);	0.52 (0.29,0.92);	0.52 (0.29,0.92);	0.42 (0.22,0.78);	0.53 (0.27,1.04);
others	p=0.399	p=0.083	p=0.025	p=0.025	p=0.006	p=0.066
Tobacco cigarettes						
less than monthly	1.08 (0.36,3.21);	1.66 (0.51,5.35);	1.89 (0.57,6.25);	1.85 (0.65,5.31);	1.54 (0.44,5.35);	1.67 (0.55,5.07);
(ref=never)	p=0.89	p=0.398	p=0.296	p=0.25	p=0.499	p=0.369
monthly but less than	0.93 (0.24,3.59);	0.96 (0.21,4.38);	2.57 (0.62,10.64);	3.45 (0.94,12.6);	1.58 (0.35,7.12);	1.11 (0.26,4.78);
daily (ref=never)	p=0.921	p=0.961	p=0.193	p=0.061	p=0.552	p=0.887
daily (ref=never)	2.15 (0.6,7.72);	0.52 (0.1,2.76);	0.99 (0.22,4.47);	4.46 (1.28,15.54);	2.01 (0.5,8); p=0.322	0.56 (0.11,2.83);
	p=0.24	p=0.439	p=0.99	p=0.019	I ((-()	p=0.479
frequency	1.2 (0.82,1.77);	0.88 (0.56,1.37);	1.14 (0.74,1.74);	1.7 (1.16,2.49);	1.26 (0.82,1.93);	0.91 (0.59,1.4);
	p=0.348	p=0.564	p=0.553	p=0.007	p=0.289	p=0.654
E-cigarettes						
less than monthly	4.63 (1.04,20.62);	2.18 (0.55,8.58);	2.06 (0.47,8.95);	3.11 (0.87,11.13);	1.42 (0.32,6.21);	0.63 (0.12,3.22);
(ref=never)	p=0.045	p=0.267	p=0.337	p=0.081	p=0.642	p=0.577
monthly but less than	0.6 (0.17,2.11);	0.67 (0.16,2.83);	1.99 (0.52,7.64);	1.94 (0.61,6.17);	1.54 (0.41,5.81);	1.14 (0.31,4.16);
daily (ref=never)	p=0.426	p=0.584	p=0.317	p=0.262	p=0.528	p=0.84
daily (ref=never)	0.99 (0.27,3.63);	0.63 (0.12,3.35);	5.76 (1.31,25.4);	3.04 (0.9,10.2);	1.35 (0.31,5.82);	1.26 (0.34,4.72);
	p=0.987	p=0.584	p=0.021	p=0.072	p=0.692	p=0.732
frequency	0.95 (0.65,1.38);	0.87 (0.55,1.37);	1.67 (1.08,2.58);	1.44 (1.01,2.07);	1.14 (0.75,1.75);	1.07 (0.72,1.6);
	p=0.783	p=0.549	p=0.022	p=0.046	p=0.535	p=0.737
Prescription drug misuse	use					
not past 3 months	. 60 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00	1 22 00 27 5 715.	1 24 (0 26 5 70).	.00000000000000000000000000000000000000	0.00 (0.10 £ 33).	0 67 (0 11 0 0).
(ref=never)	3.60 (1.26,20.67); ==0.023	1.23 (0.27,3.71);	1.24 (0.20,5.79);	2.03 (0.72,9.04);	0.99 (0.19,5.25);	0.3/ (0.11,2.9);
	p=0.023	p_0./3	p=0.765	p-0.1+3	p=0.200	D-0.47/
past 3 months	1.28 (0.46,3.52);	0.74 (0.24,2.3);	1.13 (0.38,3.32);	3.16 (1.18,8.49);	1.6 (0.53,4.82);	0.51 (0.15,1.71);
(ref=never)	p=0.635	p=0.598	p=0.832	p=0.022	p=0.401	p=0.272
Illicit and other drug use	ıse					
not past 3 months	2.53 (0.78,8.2);	1.5 (0.42,5.31);	1.68 (0.47,6.07);	7.41 (2.14,25.68);	1.97 (0.57,6.79);	1.52 (0.46,5.04);
(ref=never)	p=0.121	p=0.53	p=0.429	p=0.002	p=0.282	p=0.497
past 3 months	0.93 (0.3,2.95);	0.89 (0.24,3.3);	2.47 (0.74,8.3);	1.57 (0.52,4.72);	1.34 (0.37,4.88);	1.52 (0.46,5.04);
(ref=never)	p=0.905	p=0.862	p=0.143	p=0.423	p=0.662	p=0.495

8. Staff Survey Detailed Summary of Results

There was an 86% response rate (37/43) with almost half RNs (49%) and half CYWs (51%). Differences between RNs and CYWs are to be expected in all domains given different scopes of practice, however both RNs and CYWs have a high degree of patient exposure and thus increased knowledge and confidence related to substance use would be prudent across both roles. Over half (54%) of the staff participating in the survey had been working on the unit 5 years or longer with only 2 staff reporting less than 1 year on the unit. Given the mandate of this unit is outside the scope of a substance treatment facility, specialized substance use training is not a requirement for the staff. As such, 84% of the staff had never received specialized substance use training. All closed ended questions had no missing data (with the exception of one item missing one respondent). Open ended questions were answered by 63% to 83% of the sample. Openended responses ranged from 1 to 6 sentences or bullet points, with typical responses to all questions being 2-3 sentences.

A majority of staff reported feeling fairly or completely **confident** in their knowledge of how alcohol, cannabis, and nicotine/tobacco impacted youth on the unit (RNs 56 to 78%; CYWs 68 to 74%), however, for other prescription and illicit drug misuse a minority of staff reported high confidence (RNs 22 to 50%; CYWs 16 to 37%). Open ended responses further elucidated higher confidence in assessing and addressing alcohol, cannabis, and tobacco/nicotine may be due to more frequent use by youth and existing protocols for Nicotine Replacement Therapy (NRT) on the unit and a greater need for education on other drugs and co-use of substances. Overall, staff expressed perceived importance of considering both occasional and regular substance use in the clinical conceptualization of youth admitted to the unit.

All staff indicated at least one barrier to a hypothetical incorporation of comprehensive substance use **assessments**, with the most common barriers being lack of training (RNs 72%; CYWs 95%) and time pressures (RNs 72%; CYWs 63%). No staff stated they felt uncomfortable talking about substances. Of note, RNs indicated conducting substance use screening during admission but identified areas to improve

comprehensiveness including more question prompts and space to document in the electronic medical record (EMR). Thus, many staff indicated that adding designated space in the Kardex (i.e., patient summary sheet) and EMRs alongside training of assessments and interventions for those who screen positive would facilitate comprehensive assessments if deemed necessary and appropriate for an inpatient setting.

Regarding withdrawal, roughly half of RNs reported feeling confident in identifying and responding to withdrawal for alcohol, cannabis, nicotine, opioids, and sedatives (50 to 67%) while less than one third (28%) reported confidence for other illicit drugs. CYWs were explicitly asked about psychotherapeutic and supportive withdrawal interventions, and few reported high levels of confidence across all substances (11 to 39%). RNs reported existing withdrawal protocols, including COWS (opioids), CIWA (alcohol and benzos), and NRT (nicotine). Both RNs and CYWs reported uncertainty regarding non-pharmacological management of withdrawal.

Very few staff reported high levels of confidence in delivering brief psychoeducation or brief motivational **interventions**. Of RNs, 50% reported high levels of confidence for psychoeducation related to tobacco/nicotine (in alignment with existing protocols) while for the other substances, high confidence in psychoeducation was only reported by 17-33%. High confidence in psychoeducation was also highest for tobacco/nicotine among CYWS (47%) while only 21% and 26% reported high confidence for psychoeducation related to alcohol and cannabis respectively and no CYWs reported high confidence related to opioids, sedatives, or other drugs. Related to brief motivational interventions, no staff reported being completely confident with only 22% of RNs and 16% of CYWs reporting feeling fairly confident. Staff do lead a bi-weekly group on substance use which uses evidence-based strategies focused predominantly on alcohol, cannabis, and nicotine. Staff made suggestions for more training and standardization regarding facilitating appropriate conversations about substance use in the milieu, more psychoeducational materials, and more targeted interventions for youth using substances.

Overall: (1) staff believe substance use is important and common among youth on the unit and want to improve how they assess and address substance use (e.g., withdrawal management, brief interventions, unit structures and programming); (2) staff have ideas about how to facilitate improvements in quality of care including greater standardization of assessments and interventions, separate cohorting and staffing for youth with more severe co-occurring problems, more direct substance related interventions, and more indirect facilitation of appropriate and supportive conversations; and (3) staff are open to and want more education and training to increase knowledge, confidence, and standardization of practices. Specific quotes supporting these domains available upon request.

Percentage of staff endorsing each facilitator

Facilitators	RNs	CYWs	All staff
Adding a space in the Kardex to flag	89%	89%	89%
substance use concerns			
Training on how to deliver psychoeducation	83%	95%	89%
Training on psychotherapeutic approaches for	83%	89%	87%
substance use			
Adding specific questions to the electronic	72%	89%	84%
medical record			
Training on pharmacological options for	89%	79%	84%
addressing substance use			
Training on how to ask questions related to	72%	79%	76%
substance use			

Percentage of staff endorsing each barrier

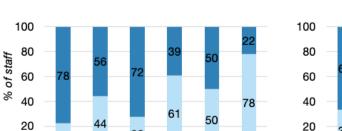
Barriers	RNs	CYWs	All staff
Lack of training	72%	95%	81%
Time pressures	72%	63%	68%
Unfamiliar with treatment resources in the	56%	53%	54%
community			
Youth do not often tell the truth about their	33%	58%	43%
substance use			
Do not know what to do if youth screen	39%	37%	38%
positive while on the unit			
Screening for substance use is the function of	11%	37%	24%
other health services			
Uncertainty regarding the effectiveness of	11%	26%	19%
available treatments			
Lack of funds to make system changes	6%	32%	19%
Do not want youth to worry about who will be	11%	16%	14%
informed about their substance use			
Lack of space and privacy for conversations	6%	11%	8%
Documentation of substance use problems in	0%	11%	5%
the medical record may adversely affect youth			
Personally uncomfortable talking about	0%	0%	0%
substance use with youth			
I do not foresee any barriers to changing	0%	0%	0%
screening procedures			

Confidence Reported by Registered Nurses

Fairly or completely confident

Not at all, slightly, or somewhat confident

"How confident are you in your knowledge of how these substances may impact youth on the unit?"

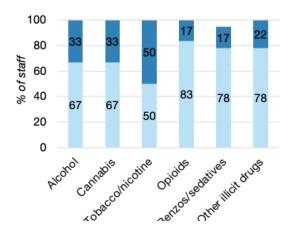


"How confident would you be in delivering brief psychoeducation on the following substances?"

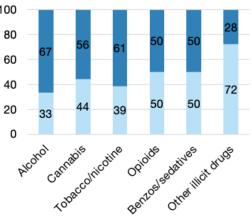
28

22

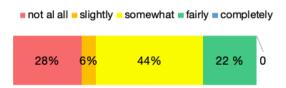
0



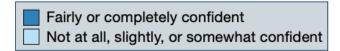
"How confident are you in your ability to identify & respond to withdrawal symptoms for the following?"



"How confident would you be in delivering a brief motivational intervention for substance use?"



Confidence Reported by Child and Youth Workers



"How confident are you in your knowledge of how these substances may impact youth on the unit?"

100

#80

60

68

68

68

74

84

74

63

20

32

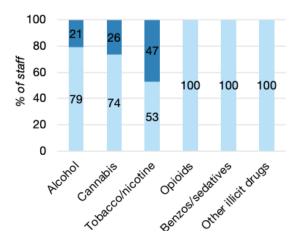
32

32

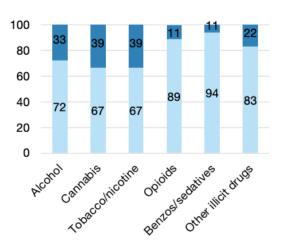
26

Other line of the part of th

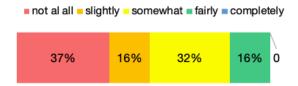
"How confident would you be in delivering brief psychoeducation on the following substances?"



"How confident are you in your ability to identify & respond to withdrawal symptoms for the following?"



"How confident would you be in delivering a brief motivational intervention for substance use?"



Chapter 5: Discussion

This dissertation deepens our understanding of the patterns and correlates of cooccurring substance use and mental health symptoms among adolescents and within
schools, how to collect relevant data on inpatient units, and how to rigorously analyze and
report findings. The program of work synthesizes, identifies, and explores this cooccurrence through various methods including a systematic review and meta-synthesis,
secondary analysis of large population survey data, and primary data collection on a
psychiatric inpatient unit. Despite a number of policy and practice guidelines highlighting
the need to identify and treat substance use early and concurrently with other mental
health concerns, efforts remain uncoordinated, and guidelines lack specificity. Our
current lack of understanding about co-occurrence hinders our ability to effectively
address these concerns early in the life course when they first emerge. This program of
work is designed to provide novel, timely, and actionable insight into the patterns,
correlates, and potential targets for assessment and intervention related to adolescent
substance use and co-occurring mental health symptoms.

Summary of key findings

Chapter 2

Given substance use rarely occurs in isolation, it is becoming increasingly important to consider patterns of use rather than modeling substances individually. Chapter 2 reports results from a systematic review of 70 cluster-based studies on adolescent substance use (70), which comprehensively summarizes complex patterns of multiple (multi-) substance use and co-occurring mental health symptoms and identifies critical methodological and statistical limitations of existing evidence. A series of concrete methodological recommendations are made to improve quality, transparency, rigor, replicability, and generalizability of future work. With over half of the included

studies published in the five years prior to the search, summarizing the state of the work substantively and methodologically was critically needed to guide ongoing research.

Substantively, this review found consistent thematic substance use patterns across studies that can be used as targets for future etiological, prevention, and early intervention research including: 1) low use; 2) single or dual substance use, including (in descending order of frequency) alcohol, cannabis with alcohol, tobacco with alcohol, and tobacco; 3) moderate general multi-use; and 4) high multi-use. Various demographic correlates are also summarized, with age, sex, and gender being the most commonly explored correlates. Findings predominantly reveal multi-use as being more common among older adolescents and males. These finding suggests a need to shift from separate, single substance use prevention and intervention efforts to a focus on dual cannabis and alcohol use and/or general multiple substance use concurrently especially among older adolescents. This is in line with the common liability to addiction model (34) that proposes individuals have underlying risk and resiliency factors that relate to their propensity to initiate *any* substance use and propensity to experience various levels of severity of substance use problems, broadly.

This review is the first to characterize mental health considerations in relation to patterns of multiple substance use, highlighting the common, but not inevitable, co-occurrence of substance use and mental health symptoms among adolescents. Similarities are drawn between the identified patterns of co-occurrence and the four-quadrant model of concurrent disorders (32) whereby: quadrant 1 reflects low substance use and mental health symptoms; quadrant 2 reflects low substance use but high mental health symptoms; quadrant 3 reflect high substance use but low mental health symptoms; and quadrant 4 reflects high substance use and mental health symptoms. Notably, nuanced sex and gender differences emerge when mental health indicators are included. Though distinct patterns are found, insight into specific, replicable patterns of co-occurrence remains limited as few studies include internalizing symptoms as indicators (k=4) and, though externalizing symptoms are more commonly included (k=18), these are predominantly represented by single behavioral indicators (e.g., truancy, fighting). Further, no papers

included in this review used samples of youth in acute psychiatric settings and only two papers used samples of youth in outpatient mental health settings (71, 72), both of which were US-based with data collected over 20 years ago and neither included mental health indicators in their cluster analyses.

Overall, this review synthesizes common patterns of multiple substance use and co-occurring mental health symptoms, though few systematically integrate mental health symptoms. Thus, next steps for this line of research include: 1) more explicitly examining patterns of co-occurrence including multiple substances (at minimum, alcohol, cannabis, and tobacco as separate indicators) and mental health symptoms (both internalizing and externalizing symptoms using psychometrically sound scales); 2) identifying correlates related to these patterns to inform prevention and early intervention efforts; and 3) establishing feasible approaches to standardized measurement of substance use and mental health symptoms in treatment settings to inform practice.

Chapter 3

Chapter 3 reports on a multilevel latent profile analysis (MLPA) and subsequent series of multilevel multinomial regressions using a large, representative sample of Ontario secondary students and schools. Findings reveal (73): 1) five substance use and mental health latent student profiles, invariant across gender; 2) three school substance use and mental health typologies, with rural schools disproportionately represented in the high-risk type; and 3) individual and contextual correlates related to these patterns, including protective effects of school belonging, safety, and climate. These findings reflect the largest epidemiological MLPA to date that provides a population-level characterization of the overlap and separation of common substance use and mental health symptoms among adolescents and across schools.

The identified student profiles can serve as *targets* for tailored and combined prevention and early interventions. First, around 40% of adolescents in this sample experience some elevations in substance use and mental health symptoms and these elevations are not defined by a single substance or mental health symptom indicator.

Second, the patterns of substance use map onto the core thematic patterns identified in the systemic review including dual cannabis and alcohol (9.7%), dual tobacco and alcohol (3.7%), and general multi-use (6.5%). This further provides support for targeting dual or multiple substance use, as opposed to single substance focused prevention and intervention efforts. Third, the co-occurring patterns reflect 3 of the 4 quadrants in the concurrent disorders model suggesting a need to further delineate the etiological and prognostic differences between adolescents who experience elevations in mental health symptoms but do not use substances, compared to those who do use substances.

Schools are identified as important *contexts* for interventions, with multilevel clustering identifying select schools that may benefit from more intensive, targeted prevention and early intervention efforts. Several targets for action set out by Public Health Agency of Canada (41) map onto universal and malleable aspects of a school's social environment, that can serve as Tier 1 targets, including: school climate, school belonging, and school safety. In line with these guidelines, chapter 3 found improving school climate, belonging, and safety may be key *processes* to focus on for interventions. These school social environmental factors appear to be associated with a lower likelihood of both substance use and mental health symptoms. In particular, belongingness yields greater protective effects for female students compared to males, suggesting gender is important to consider when creating and implementing prevention strategies to equitably support all adolescents. Future work should focus on the development, implementation, and evaluation of specific interventions and policies to improve these school social environmental factors. Additionally, repeating the School Mental Health Surveys (or a sub-set of the items) at the beginning and several years into implementing the Blueprint can serve as a natural experiment.

Chapter 4

Lastly, chapter 4 reports results from a pilot study called the <u>Cannabis</u>, <u>Alcohol</u>, <u>Mental Health</u>, and <u>Patterns of Service Use (CAMP) study. The CAMP study demonstrates the feasibility, acceptability, and importance of administering a</u>

standardized mental health and substance use assessment among 100 adolescents (13–18 years of age) experiencing psychiatric hospitalization (74). This work is grounded in close collaborations with unit staff and management and combines findings from primary patient (intake and 6-month follow-up) and staff surveys (closed and open-ended questions), chart reviews, and health administrative data.

Almost all (79%) patients in the sample indicate using substances in their lifetime with 69% reporting use in the 3 months prior to their admission. Early age of initiation of substance use, using for coping purposes, solitary use, multi-use, and co-use are commonly reported. These indicators of risky substance use and prevalence in this clinical sample are much higher than what is seen in the general Ontario adolescent population, with prevalence estimates ranging from 1.9 to 9 times greater in the CAMP sample (3). Substance use prior to admission is also correlated with various indicators of mental health symptom severity, clinical diagnostic complexity (ascertained through the number and types of clinician-reported discharge diagnoses and self-reported symptoms surpassing clinical cut-points), and frequency of hospital contacts. Further, frequent use is most commonly reported for cannabis (18% using daily), cigarettes (14% using daily), and e-cigarettes (14% using daily) though a non-negligible proportion of adolescents indicate recent misuse of illicit or prescription drugs 10 or more times (3-5%). Frequent use is of particular relevance on inpatient units due to the chance of withdrawal that can result in immediate physical safety concerns and/or emotional and behavioural disturbances that may influence accurate diagnostic assessments during admission.

Currently, on inpatient adolescent psychiatric units, standardized mental health and substance use assessments are uncommon. The inpatient unit provides a unique opportunity for temporary cessation, brief interventions with trained multidisciplinary staff, and referrals to outpatient services. Reports from frontline staff surveys indicated staff were concerned about patient substance use and saw the inpatient unit as an important place for concurrent assessment and treatment. However, staff reported wanting more training, education, and standardized practices (including assessment and subsequent interventions). Standardized assessments can facilitate consistent early

identification of adolescents with substance use concerns, assist with treatment planning, and inform population monitoring and research. Overall, the CAMP study establishes that the collection of this type of information using standardized self-report electronic assessments is feasible, acceptable to staff, and clinically important.

Strengths

This program of work takes a novel, foreword-thinking perspective to understanding co-occurring substance use and mental health symptoms among adolescents. Research and practice related to mental health and substance use has largely remained siloed, despite continuous calls for integrated thinking and approaches. Thus, the substantive findings in this dissertation are responsive to the longstanding policy and practice calls to action to better understand co-occurrence. Methodologically, the major strengths of this dissertation are the: 1) in-depth appraisal of current methods for evidence collection, synthesis, and evaluation in relation to adolescent substance use and mental health symptoms; 2) application of contemporary and rigorous analytic approaches using a large representative sample of adolescents and schools across Ontario; and 3) high local response rate and mixed-methods approaches on an adolescent psychiatric inpatient unit, alongside the establishment of close partnerships with key clinical stakeholders through the research process.

Cluster-based methods presented in chapter 2 (70) and chapter 3 (73) are used to provide a person-centered non-linear conceptualization of co-occurrence, in this case, in relation to multiple substance use and co-occurring mental health symptoms. As indicated by the systematic review (70), use of cluster-based methods has rapidly grown in popularity in recent years in an effort to better represent and explain complexity and co-occurrence. Cluster analyses identify homogenous subgroups (or categories) of people from a set of indicators; many current studies use categorical indicators (i.e., latent class analysis [LCA]) rather than dimensional indicators (i.e., latent profile analysis [LPA]). Substance use and mental health can be thought of as both categorical (i.e., whether a person meets diagnostic criteria, whether a person uses any substances) or dimensional

(i.e., number and frequency of symptoms, frequency of substance use) (75, 76). However, part of the methodological recommendations in the review was to use dimensional indicators where possible. We may lose information and power when categorizing a dimensional construct, especially when measuring mental health in the general population with self-reported symptom checklists as was typically the case in included studies (76). Dimensional measures of mental health symptoms also tend to yield better psychometric properties (e.g., reliability and validity) (77). SUDs typically do not have their onset until mid-20s (2) and, among adolescents with SUDs, the phenomena appears to be better reflected dimensionally (75). Relatedly, chapter 4 of this dissertation (74) found a high prevalence of substance use and related risk factors (e.g., early age of onset, using to cope, solitary use) that correlated with other mental health symptom severity, comorbidity, and service use among a clinical sample of youth, despite few having a clinician diagnosed SUD (10%). As such, the multilevel latent profile analysis presented in chapter 3 demonstrated the ability to identify distinct profiles of students, with varying levels of dimensional symptoms and frequency of substance use (73). Modeling complexity and patterns of multiple substance use with and without co-occurring mental health symptoms lacks a single "dimension," and thus, categorization in the context of capturing these patterns remains empirically and theoretically useful.

Further strengths specific to chapter 3, include the use of a contemporary multilevel latent profile approach to identify profiles of co-occurrence at both student and school levels and subsequent multilevel multiple imputation and multinomial regression. Beyond critical statistical reasons for accounting for non-independence of students in schools (78-80), taking a multilevel approach provides insight into the importance of social and environmental contexts (in this case, schools) on student outcomes (in this case, patterns of co-occurrence); contextual variation is critical to our understanding of casual mechanisms, not merely statistical error (81). As schools are increasingly being highlighted as key contexts for prevention and intervention, these approaches will help inform what student outcomes schools can influence, potential targets for interventions, and guide identification of schools that may need more supports.

Reproducibility and replication issues have recently been discussed specifically in the field of addictions, with two key papers highlighting the importance of: 1) selecting which studies should be replicated (e.g., key trials, papers with high impact/citations, core theoretical papers) and how (i.e., whether direct or conceptual); and 2) applying and combining multiple different replication statistics to interpret results of replications, given differing results depending on the approach and no universally used replication statistic (82, 83). This dissertation addresses replication in multiple ways. Chapter 2 highlights current non-replicability issues and provides concrete recommendations to support improvements in replication of future cluster-based studies (70). This review also found that replication was particularly needed to evaluate co-occurring substance use and mental health profiles and a broader range of correlates, notably including tests of measurement invariance (or stratifying clusters) for gender and age (or school level). Chapter 3 directly includes a split-half cross-sample replication and tested for genderinvariance (73). Lastly, methodological decisions and results are comprehensively and transparently reported across all chapters with specific and explicitly stated next steps for research.

Partnerships with clinical stakeholders in chapter 4 enabled detailed consideration of research burden unique to psychiatric inpatient units. Every effort was made to involve frontline staff from the outset of the study, including study conceptualization and design, and to receive ongoing feedback and engagement through recruitment and data collection. The CAMP study team worked with staff to reduce burden, on both patients and the clinical team, and facilitate uptake of assessment. This study was a success primarily due to the explicit integration of research within a clinical program through careful planning and establishment of strong stakeholder engagement and partnerships. Support and interest from clinical staff led not only to high patient recruitment, but also high participation in the staff survey and interest in utilizing research findings to inform practice change. Further, findings related to the importance of assessing substance use on inpatient psychiatric units was strengthened by combining quantitative insights regarding the prevalence of substance use and clinical correlates with qualitative insights from

frontline providers about the perceived importance and clinical utility of assessing and addressing substance use in this setting.

Limitations

Key limitations include: 1) current limits of existing cluster-based methodologies regarding standardized reporting and decision making, and a lack of meta-analytical techniques to synthesize results; 2) cross-sectional nature of most data and analyses, limiting any inferences regarding causality or directionality; 3) most data (with the exception of follow-up surveys in chapter 4, which had low response rates) were collected prior to the emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic, and thus results may not generalize to the current context; 4) inability to robustly disentangle certain demographic subpopulations; and 5) limitations of secondary data analysis.

Limitations regarding current cluster-based methodologies, which are discussed at length in chapter 2 and mentioned in chapter 3, are worth reiterating. There are currently no standardized reporting guidelines for cluster analyses, limitations with current model fit indices that do not consistently converge on the same solutions, and no guidelines for synthesizing work coming from use of these methods (including a lack of meta-analytical software or approach to pooling results). Thus, theoretical, and subjective interpretations of models play a key role in model selection. All methodological recommendations made in chapter 2 were implemented in chapter 3, though theoretical rationale was still required for final model selection due to these limitations. This is a call for quantitative psychologists to update and/or create new model fit indices to improve objective model selection, and to create meta-analytical software to pool results. These statistical ambiguities may bias within-study model selection, between-study comparisons, and broader generalizability of findings. That being said, this method still provides promise for allowing us to model and understand the inherent comorbidity and complexity in the field that has historically been ignored.

Much of the work in this dissertation focuses on snapshots of co-occurrence at one point in time, rather than on the causal development of comorbidity pathways and related

risk and resiliency factors. Future work should collect and leverage longitudinal data to disentangle the developmental patterns of comorbid substance use and mental health symptoms across different developmental stages; there remains no single causal theory and directionality may change across developmental stages, particularly from adolescence (ages 12-17) to emerging adulthood (ages 18-25) (84-86). It has been proposed that existing gaps in the literature may be due to limitations with current statistical methods (84, 87, 88) - namely an inability to adequately tease apart within from between-person relationships over time - that can be overcome with novel approaches such as Autoregressive Latent Trajectory Modeling with Structured Residuals (84, 87-89). Further, longitudinal studies or cluster-based trials within school settings will provide insight into temporality and causality of school contextual factors (such as climate, belonging, and safety) related to the development and maintenance of student substance use and mental health patterns. Lastly, repeated assessments within clinical samples will provide greater insight into prognostic implications and clinical interconnectedness of substance use and mental health symptoms. Though chapter 4 did have a 6-month followup, response rates were low (possibly due to the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic) and thus longitudinal findings were limited due to sample size (i.e., underpowered) and lack of representativeness (i.e., limited generalizability). Therefore, using contemporary statistical approaches with longitudinal data are recommended next steps to advance theory and inform evidence-based prevention and early interventions.

All the data used throughout this dissertation was collected prior to the global COVID-19 pandemic. Since March 2020, the global COVID-19 pandemic has destabilized life for adolescents and contributed to increased healthcare pressures. Though the global crisis prompted a rapid accumulation of research related to the impacts of COVID-19 on mental health and substance use, many *current* (as of January 2022) peer-reviewed publications are based on cross-sectional convenience samples collected during the initial wave(s) early in the pandemic (90-95). Preliminary results suggest a sub-set of adolescents may have increased their substance use (~20%), and this appears to have been more likely among adolescents with mental health symptoms. However,

findings are inconsistent. Further, though overall numbers of youth presenting to the hospital for mental health and substance use concerns may not have increased (96), the severity and types of presentations may have changed (for example, (97)). It remains uncertain what the realized and lasting impact of this pandemic will be on the mental health and substance use patterns and trajectories of our young people. Therefore, a limitation of the work in this dissertation may not generalize to the current pandemic context, though this remains largely unclear.

There is a complicated interaction between sociocultural gender-related factors and neurobiological sex differences related to substance use and mental health outcomes. General population studies clearly demonstrate differences in the prevalence of SUDs and other mental disorders between males and females. Males are more likely to use substances and have a SUD, whereas females are more likely to have depression and anxiety (98), progress from substance use to SUD more quickly (i.e., telescoping) (99), experience higher degrees of craving (100-103), more severe withdrawal (104), and poorer substance use prognosis (105, 106). These differences may be both in part due to: sex-differences, related to hormones, genes, physiology, anatomy, and neurobiology; and/or gender-differences, related to values, beliefs, preferences, stigma, discrimination, bullying, and social acceptability that are related to gender identity, roles, and marginalization (107).

Collectively, this dissertation found female adolescents were more likely to report high internalizing symptoms (70, 73, 74) with (70) and without (70, 73, 74) co-occurring substance use compared to male adolescents, and that school belonging may yield greater benefits for female students (73). However, there were several instances in the dissertation when sex and gender were not explicitly separated, predominantly driven by using previously collected data (chapter 2 and 3). Broadly, substance use research has not routinely differentiated sex and gender as distinct constructs, which impacted inferences that could be drawn in the review. Where possible, sex and gender were collected and reported separately (74), and suggestions were made for future work to report sex and gender separately following international guidelines (108). Notably, 19% of the youth in

the inpatient sample in this dissertation were transgender or gender diverse (74) and recent population estimates have found that between 3% and 8% of children and adolescents in the general population are transgender or gender diverse (109, 110). Youth who are transgender or gender diverse experience greater vulnerability to substance use and mental health concerns (111) with a recent Canadian study finding transgender adolescents have 5 to 7.6 times the risk for suicidal ideation and attempts respectively (112). Continued misclassification of youth when only binary response options are used for gender, and when gender is not reported separately from sex, reduces our ability to identify mechanisms driving differences and results in a complete inability to identify high risk groups that warrant evidence-based mental health supports.

Race and ethnicity are distinct social constructs that infer a level of power and privilege that have historically been used interchangeably. Race is defined based on perceived differences in physical appearance while ethnicity is a multidimensional concept related to shared culture (113). Systematic racism and discrimination are known to negatively impact mental health care access, experiences, and outcomes among Canadian youth (114). Further, of relevance to adolescent substance use, certain cultures have distinct parenting practices and family dynamics, which are known to be closely tied to whether or not an adolescent initiates substance use (115). The Canadian Institute for Health Information (CIHI) recently published a guideline for collecting race and ethnicity data in healthcare settings (113). Notably, the response options for the suggested racebased question map onto the categories asked and reported on throughout this dissertation; however, the question stems differ whereby CIHI asks about "race or racial background" whereas questions and results reported across this dissertation asked about "race or culture" (informed by Statistics Canada questions) or "background" (using OSDUHS questions). Thus, "race and ethnicity" is reported as a combined construct across studies in this dissertation. Moving forward, research needs to disaggregate across these characteristics to enable the examination of differential underlying causal pathways to target outreach and prevention efforts more accurately. Further, not only should race

and ethnicity be examined separately, but also the intersectionality that exist between them (116).

Related to limitations with previously collected demographics are the broader issues associated with secondary data analysis and data harmonization practices. In chapter 2, findings in the systematic review were restricted to what was collected and reported in prior research studies resulting in a lack of specificity, consistency, and generalizability in demographic predictors (70). In chapter 3, the variables included to identify and characterize profiles in the MLPA study were limited to what was collected in the original research study (73). This resulted in an inability to differentiate between sex and gender and race and ethnicity. Further, the primary objective of the original study was not related to adolescent substance use, and thus there were limited questions related to substance use including no questions on illicit or prescription drug misuse. For chapters 2 and 3, there were also limits to how stakeholders could be involved (as the primary studies were complete) and thus stakeholders were not directly involved in the co-design. It would have been possible to co-design and co-interpret the secondary research questions, though more limited than typically desired, which was not done in this dissertation. There are plans for stakeholder involvement in end-of-study knowledge translation with youth, schools, and policymakers (117). Lastly, in chapter 4, many measures were selected as they had been previously used in adolescent population studies – both to capitalize on validated scales and items and to enable comparisons of study findings to general population studies (74). Overall, secondary data and data harmonization presents tensions between our contemporary understandings and the desire to leverage existing data to maximize prior research, participant investments, comparability of findings across studies, and evidence syntheses.

Opportunities for future work

In addition to the future work to bridge existing limitations, next steps for this program of work include: 1) developing and evaluating a measurement-based care (MBC) system, including assessment and early interventions, for adolescent psychiatric inpatient

units; 2) exploring contexts and developmental stages for prevention and early intervention related to co-occurrence; and 3) examining patterns of co-occurrence over time and related correlates, including before, during, and after the COVID-19 pandemic. For all work moving forward, it will be important to include youth, clinicians, and other stakeholders from the beginning of study conceptualization and design, during interpretation, and through to knowledge mobilization. This can be accomplished by embedding co-development approaches into future work.

Co-development: "Nothing about us without us"

Future work regarding understanding co-occurrence and developing prevention, clinical assessments, and early interventions need to prioritize and include end-user engagement (e.g., youth, loved ones, clinicians). Following integrated knowledge translation approaches (118), there are several national standards for youth engagement to guide co-development and co-interpretation of research results (119-121) and tools to assess the quality of public and patient engagement in research (122). Future researchers should consider not only implementing participatory research approaches (e.g., Patient Oriented Research [SPOR], community based participatory research [CBPR], Integrated Knowledge Translation) but also integrating Human Centred Design (or co-design) approaches to maximize research, clinical, and public health impact (123). Both participatory research and co-design approaches are systematic, and iterative processes that share a common purpose and set of values based on developing close collaborations between researchers and stakeholders (fostering equal partnerships), deliberate cocreation and end-user engagement throughout the whole process of identifying issues and selecting and testing possible solutions, and mutual benefits of the work (123). In particular, combining the rapid design solutions of co-design and Design Thinking (DT) with the rigor of research-related stakeholder engagement approaches will be critical to efficiently creating effective solutions. All approaches are guided by the notion of, "nothing about us without us" (119, 120) or "shifting from designing for users, to with users" (124).

There are many different co-design models, and related toolkits, to guide creative thinking about complex problems; no gold-standard approach currently exists (104). All models aim to accelerate the identification, visualization, and creation of innovations to allow non-designers to leverage the key skills, strategies, and processes of designers (124). IDEO is a leading global design thinking company, whose core 3-I model has three distinct phases: Inspiration (identifying a problem and building empathy), Ideation (generating ideas for solutions), and Implementation (prototyping, updating, and scalingup) (125) (see Chen, Leos (102) for connections between 3 I's and CBPR). Another common co-design model is the 5-stage model from the Hasso Plattner Institute of Design at Stanford, including: Empathize (understanding lived experience, storyboarding), Define (root problems and barriers), Ideate (brainstorm solutions), Prototype (rapid, small scale, low-fidelity testing), and Test (large scale testing) (126). To note, Foundry and the Canadian Centre for Substance use and Addiction (CCSA) have partnered on a combined CBPR and co-design project to create youth-centric opioid service innovations using this 5-stage process (127). Their protocol paper provides direct connections between principles of CBPR and co-design, and a comprehensive description of methods (including end-user worksheets and workshop structures) that can guide future work for youth substance use and mental health co-design research projects (127). Overall, the codesign approaches will facilitate rapid generation of creative, iterative, and stakeholderdriven solutions and these approaches are gaining rapid popularity in the public health and health services field.

Another way of systematically collecting and synthesizing stakeholder input is through a multi-staged consensus-based survey approach called Delphi (128, 129). Given the clinical providers in the CAMP study only included nurses and child and youth workers from one hospital (74), the Delphi approach can be used to gather broader, multidisciplinary perspectives on the importance and feasibility of assessing and addressing substance use on inpatient youth psychiatric units across Canada (and globally). Additionally, adolescents and their caregivers can, and should, be involved in their own Delphi's to form consensus within stakeholder groups. Cleverley, McCann

(130) demonstrates how to conduct a Delphi study with clinicians, administrators, youth, and caregivers to inform priorities for improving transitions from pediatric to adult mental health care. Further, the Delphi approach can be applied outside of the healthcare system, such as to gain feedback from students, caregivers, teachers, school mental health providers, and school administrators regarding conceptualizing co-occurrence among students in schools and priorities for school-based prevention initiatives.

Implementing and evaluating measurement-based care

The CAMP study established the feasibility of administering a standardized tool to assess substance use and mental health symptoms in an adolescent psychiatry inpatient unit (74). Given a number of policy recommendations and practice guidelines suggest assessing and addressing substance use concurrently with mental health concerns, and there are neurodevelopmental concerns with any substance use among adolescents, further research should be considered concurrent with policy and practice changes. One such approach to achieving these aims simultaneously is through measurement-based care (MBC).

MBC is a contemporary approach to simultaneous patient assessment, ongoing monitoring, and evaluation within healthcare systems. MBC involves routine measurement through rating scales and tools integrated into care, followed by both clinician and patient reviews of the findings to guide collaborative, timely, patient-centered, measurement-based treatment planning (131). MBC provides a decision-support system that assists clinicians and patients to accurately and comprehensively identify presenting issues and helps provide empirical decision support to tailor initial treatment planning, ongoing monitoring and adjustments, and final outcome evaluation. MBC has been associated with multi-faceted clinical benefits, including greater retention, engagement, and therapeutic alliances during treatment with better patient outcomes that occur more quickly and last longer than traditional care (132-135). Further, MBC can simultaneously be used for direct patient care, program monitoring and quality improvement, and research. Unfortunately, MBC is underutilized in mental health and

substance use treatment (136). Collectively, these benefits may help improve immediate treatment outcomes among adolescents accessing psychiatric services while contributing to the limited research in this setting to empirically inform future system reform and guideline development.

The CAMP study sets the foundation for future exploration and research into the utility of a MBC approach, though additional steps are required for developing and providing evidence for wider-spread MBC. Next steps include: 1) collecting feedback from a wider range of multidisciplinary providers across multiple institutions (such as through the Delphi approach); 2) co-developing and refining standardized assessments and related clinical uses (such as clinician and patient feedback reports) with youth, staff, and their families; 3) assessing the feasibility and associated costs of fully clinically integrated standardized assessments across multiple institutions; 4) providing more precise estimates of the clinical importance of assessing substance use in this context (i.e., associations with clinical severity, complexity, and service use); and 5) determining whether or not MBC leads to better outcomes on adolescent psychiatric inpatient units. As noted in the CAMP Study (74), precise estimates of the prevalence and clinical impacts of substance use on various aspects of youth psychiatric hospitalizations will require large samples. Thus, taking an MBC approach earlier in these "next steps" may allow practice and research to evolve side by side; using what we know now, while improving collection of standardized clinical data to answer what we do not yet know.

Prevention and intervention across contexts and stages of development

In addition to adolescent psychiatric hospital settings, this dissertation focuses on adolescents in secondary schools. In line with findings from chapter 3 (73) and PHAC's recent recommendations (41), future school-based research should focus on codeveloping and evaluating school-based prevention interventions to target climate, belonging, and safety. More broadly, other targets set by PHAC for substance use prevention should be further explored and evaluated in the context of substance use and co-occurring mental health symptoms. For example, school-based preventative models

(41, 42) often seek to increase involvement in substance-free prosocial activities, such as involvement in extracurriculars like sports or clubs. This is similar to other evidence-based approaches for substance use including the adolescent community reinforcement approach (ACRA) (137) and behavioural economic approaches for addiction (138) that (in part) aim to reduce substance-related reinforcement while maximizing substance-free reinforcements (138). Further, relationships between school-activities (such as extracurriculars) and school environmental factors (such as belonging) as they relate to co-occurrence should be considered.

There are other contexts and developmental stages important to concurrent prevention and intervention. *First*, substance use prior to age 14 has been associated with greater risks of experiencing later substance use disorders and related problems (5, 7, 139-141) and there is a notable increase in substance use occurs around age 14, corresponding to the transition from elementary (up to grade 8) to secondary (grades 9-12) schooling (3). Thus, research focused on substance use initiation, mental health correlates, school contextual factors (including factors related to transitioning to secondary school), and targeted early intervention in elementary student and school samples will be important for future work.

Second, given substance use disorders are typically diagnosed during the early to mid-twenties (2) and rates of concurrent disorders are highest among emerging adults (~18-25 years of age) (23), transitions from pediatric to adult healthcare, developmentally tailored substance use treatment programs, and post-secondary factors (including social context and student services) are also important for future work. Notably, this healthcare transition represents a collision of fragmented mental health and addiction services in both pediatric and adult systems with unsupported navigation into adult systems of care and increasing service disengagement among an already low help-seeking population (142, 143). Thus, more insight into the needs of this population is needed to reduce the number of young people "falling through the cracks."

Third, within our current health system landscape, general health providers (such as family physicians) are the most likely professionals to be able to provide ongoing,

accessible mental health care for young people across the transition from pediatric to adult healthcare systems (144). Young people who have seen a family physician (or pediatrician, or psychiatrist) for their mental health prior to turning 18 are more likely to remain connected to physicians-related mental health supports following the transition to adult services, compared to young people who attended no services or only accessed other community mental health agency supports (145). Thus, primary care clinics are likely key contexts for interventions. In order to support primary care physicians to do this work, increased access to collaborative care models and streamlined access to mental health and substance use consultations are essential.

Fourth, more broadly, collaborative care models involving both physicians and other community mental health services may be a key factor in providing comprehensive early outpatient care for adolescents and emerging adults with co-occurring substance use and mental health difficulties, including co-location of multidisciplinary service providers and offering care beyond 18 years of age (145). This concept is in line with the "hub" model currently being evaluated across Canada (i.e., Access Open Minds, Foundry, Youth Hubs Ontario), which is based on established headspace centres in Australia and Jigsaw centres in Ireland (146). Notably, the hub model prioritizes co-design and often has MBC embedded into their care and evaluation approach (147-149).

Understanding co-occurrence over time

As previously mentioned, the COVID-19 pandemic may impact patterns of cooccurrence and we do not yet know the impacts on adolescents. However, it is important
to recognize that patterns of comorbidity were changing even prior to the COVID-19
pandemic. As such, at a population level, there is emerging interest in examining whether
joint associations between substance use and mental health have changed over time.
Current studies have produced mixed results depending on age, sex and gender, specific
substance, and frequency of use (150-157). For example, among US adolescents the
associations between binge drinking and depression appear to be weakening (156) but
cannabis and depression are strengthening (157). These trends are important to unpack

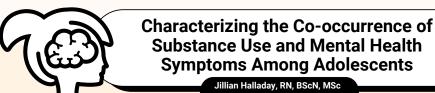
given the possibility that youth still engaging in substance use - despite average population-level declines – may be particularly vulnerable and in need of integrated care. However, few existing studies examine trends separately for adolescents or emerging adults, a minority are conducted outside the US, and most use statistical approaches that obstruct our ability to observe natural fluctuations in associations over time. A novel flexible non-parametric regression-based approach has been developed to analyze complicated time-trend data called Time-Varying Effect Modeling (TVEM) (88), which can provide new insight into temporal changes in joint associations. We also require deeper explorations of the mechanisms behind any observed trends (i.e., whether changing trends are explained by population changes in average ages of onset and/or perceptions related to harms, disapproval, availability of substances, and/or drug policies). This knowledge will help pinpoint targets for future prevention policy and interventions (156). This is particularly important with changing cannabis legislation and public perceptions regarding substance use internationally, as well as changes due to the pandemic.

Conclusions

Overall, this dissertation provides a deeper understanding of how substance use and mental health symptoms co-occur among adolescents and how to rigorously model these patterns, insight into correlates, and evidence to support concurrent assessment and care within inpatient psychiatric youth settings. Collectively, the key substantive findings of this program of work include: 1) multiple substance use is common, and thus interventions targeting multiple substances (rather than substances separately) should be prioritized; 2) co-occurrence of substance use and mental health symptoms is common, though not universal among adolescents; 3) substance use may be related to mental health symptom severity, comorbidity, and hospital service use and thus integrated and concurrent care is needed; 4) schools are important contexts for prevention, with climate, belonging, and safety being possible targets for interventions; and 5) adolescent psychiatric hospitalizations may be important contexts for assessment of early substance

use and delivery of early interventions, though more professional training and standardization in assessments and interventions are needed. Methodologically, cluster-based analyses may provide a unique, and foreword thinking approach to modeling complexity and co-occurrence, though currently these methods have notable limitations regarding generalizability. Additionally, self-report electronic standardized assessments show promise for collecting data on adolescent psychiatric inpatient units that can be leveraged simultaneously for direct patient care, program evaluation, and research to better inform specific best practice guidelines. Youth cannot wait, and thus policy and practice change should move forward alongside progress in research. We need to improve system navigation and the ability for adolescents to access services for both mental health and substance use concerns, and better integrate concurrent disorder perspectives across prevention and intervention strategies.

Figure 1. Summary of Key Dissertation Findings



PhD Dissertation Key Points

This dissertation deepens our understanding of the patterns of co-occurring substance use and mental health symptoms among adolescents and includes a: [1] systematic review of 70 studies examining patterns of multiple substance use; [2] multilevel latent profile analysis & regression using a large, representative sample of secondary students & schools across Ontario to examine patterns of co-occurrence; & [3] pilot study examining the feasibility & acceptability of standardized assessments of substance use & mental health symptoms on an adolescent psychiatric inpatient unit.

Using more than one substance is common

The review found common themes of dual & multiple substance use, mainly representing combinations of alcohol, cannabis, and tobacco [1].

Ontario secondary students reported elevations in alcohol & cannabis (~10%), or alcohol & tobacco (~4%), or all three (~7%) [2].

50% of adolescents in the hospital for mental health concerns reported using multiple substances 3 months prior to admission (19% reporting use of one substance) [3].

3 Schools matter

Students reporting positive **school climate, belonging, and safety** were more likely to report low levels of both substance use and mental health symptoms [2].

 Thus, these may represent important targets for schoolbased interventions.



Belongingness may be more protective among female students. Rural schools may benefit from greater supports.

Substance use and mental health symptoms commonly co-occur, but not <u>all</u> the time

The systematic review found studies mapping on to all quadrants in the

Concurrent Disorders [1].

58%
Low in both
substance use
& mental
health
symptoms

20%
Elevations in
both
22%
High mental
health
symptoms

~7/10 adolescents in the hospital for mental health

concerns reported using

substances 3 months prior to

hospitalization [3].

~2/10 secondary students in Ontario reported elevated substance use <u>and</u> mental health symptoms. No <u>substance</u> use

only patterns emerged [2].

Standardized assessments in mental health inpatient units

Standardized electronic self-reported substance use and mental health assessments proved feasible and acceptable to patients and staff [3].

 Substance use prior to hospitalization was correlated with increased mental health symptom severity, comorbidity, & repeat hospital visits.



5 To advance research, policy, & practice we need to:

- Collect standardized data related to multiple
 substance use and mental health symptoms
- Analyze this data in a way that works with the nuances and complexity of co-occurrence.
- Work <u>with</u> adolescents and their families and clinicians to better understand the risk and protective factors.
- Use this research to inform the development of prevention and treatment strategies to address co-occurring substance use and mental health symptoms among adolescents.

[] Halladay, J., Woock, R., El-Khechen, H., Munn, C., MacKillon, J., Amlung, M., Ogrodnik, M., Favotto, L., Ayal, K., Noori, A., Kiflen, M., & Georgiades, K. (2020). Patterns of substance use among adolescents: A systematic review. Drug and Alcohol Dependence, 108222. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdeg.2020.108222. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdeg.2020. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdeg.2020.108222. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdeg.2020.108222. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdeg.2020.108222. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdeg.2020. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdeg.2020. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdeg.2020. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdeg.2020. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdeg.2020. https://doi.org/10.

References: Chapters 1 and 5

- 1. Blanco C, Florez-Salamanca L, Secades-Villa R, Wang S, Hasin DS. Predictors of initiation of nicotine, alcohol, cannabis, and cocaine use: Results of the National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions (NESARC). Am J Addict. 2018;27(6):477-84. doi: 10.1111/ajad.12764
- 2. Solmi M, Radua J, Olivola M, Croce E, Soardo L, de Pablo GS, et al. Age at onset of mental disorders worldwide: Large-scale meta-analysis of 192 epidemiological studies. Mol Psychiatry. 2021:1-15. doi: 10.1038/s41380-021-01161-7
- 3. Boak A, Elton-Marshall, T, Mann, RE., & Hamilton, HA. Drug use among Ontario students, 1977-2019: Detailed findings from the Ontario Student Drug Use and Health Survey (OSDUHS). Toronto, ON: Centre for Addiction and Mental Health; 2020.
- 4. Schulenberg JE, Johnston LD, O'Malley PM, Bachman JG, Miech RA, Patrick ME. Monitoring the Future national survey results on drug use, 1975–2016: Volume II, college students and adults ages 19–55. Ann Arbor: Institute for Social Research, The University of Michigan 2017.
- 5. Behrendt S, Wittchen H-U, Höfler M, Lieb R, Beesdo K. Transitions from first substance use to substance use disorders in adolescence: Is early onset associated with a rapid escalation? Drug Alcohol Depend. 2009;99(1-3):68-78. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2008.06.014
- 6. Moss HB, Chen CM, Yi H-Y. Early adolescent patterns of alcohol, cigarettes, and marijuana polysubstance use and young adult substance use outcomes in a nationally representative sample. Drug Alcohol Depend. 2014;136:51-62. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2013.12.011
- 7. Jordan CJ, Andersen SL. Sensitive periods of substance abuse: Early risk for the transition to dependence. Dev Cogn Neurosci. 2017;25:29-44. doi: 10.1016/j.dcn.2016.10.004
- 8. Chan Y-F, Dennis ML, Funk RR. Prevalence and comorbidity of major internalizing and externalizing problems among adolescents and adults presenting to substance abuse treatment Subst Abuse Treat. 2008;34(1):14-24. doi: 10.1016/j.jsat.2006.12.031
- 9. Diamond G, Panichelli-Mindel SM, Shera D, Dennis M, Tims F, Ungemack J. Psychiatric syndromes in adolescents with marijuana abuse and dependency in outpatient treatment. J Child Adolesc Subst Abuse. 2006;15(4):37-54. doi: 10.1300/J029v15n04_02
- 10. Gobbi G, Atkin T, Zytynski T, Wang S, Askari S, Boruff J, et al. Association of cannabis use in adolescence and risk of depression, anxiety, and suicidality in young adulthood: A systematic review and meta-analysis. JAMA Psychiatry. 2019;76(4):426-34. doi: 10.1001/jamapsychiatry.2018.4500
- 11. Hawke LD, Koyama E, Henderson J. Cannabis use, other substance use, and cooccurring mental health concerns among youth presenting for substance use treatment

- services: Sex and age differences. J Subst Abuse Treat. 2018;91:12-9. doi: 10.1016/j.jsat.2018.05.001
- 12. Hser YI, Mooney LJ, Huang D, Zhu Y, Tomko RL, McClure E, et al. Reductions in cannabis use are associated with improvements in anxiety, depression, and sleep quality, but not quality of life. J Subst Abuse Treat. 2017;81:53-8. doi: 10.1016/j.jsat.2017.07.012
- 13. Jacobus J, Squeglia LM, Escobar S, McKenna BM, Hernandez MM, Bagot KS, et al. Changes in marijuana use symptoms and emotional functioning over 28-days of monitored abstinence in adolescent marijuana users. Psychopharmacology (Berl). 2017;234(23-24):3431-42. doi: 10.1007/s00213-017-4725-3
- 14. Mammen G, Rueda S, Roerecke M, Bonato S, Lev-Ran S, Rehm J. Association of cannabis with long-term clinical symptoms in anxiety and mood disorders: A systematic review of prospective studies. J Clin Psychiatry. 2018;79(4). doi: 10.4088/JCP.17r11839
- 15. Moitra E, Anderson BJ, Stein MD. Reductions in cannabis use are associated with mood improvement in female emerging adults. Depress Anxiety. 2016;33(4):332-8. doi: 10.1002/da.22460
- 16. Syan SK, Minhas M, Oshri A, Costello J, Sousa S, Samokhvalov AV, et al. Predictors of premature treatment termination in a large residential addiction medicine program. J Subst Abuse Treat. 2020;117:108077. doi: 10.1016/j.jsat.2020.108077
- 17. Mckowen J, Carrellas N, Zulauf C, Ward EN, Fried R, Wilens T. Factors associated with attrition in substance using patients enrolled in an intensive outpatient program. Am J Addict. 2017;26(8):780-7. doi: 10.1111/ajad.12619
- 18. Stewart SH, Conrod P, eds. Anxiety and Substance Use Disorders: The Vicious Cycle of Comorbidity. New York, NY: Springer Science+Business Media, LLC; 2007.
- 19. Ontario Ministry of Health and Long-Term Care. Open Minds, Healthy Minds: Ontario's Comprehensive Mental Health and Addictions Strategy. 2011 [cited 2022 March 20]. Available from: https://www.health.gov.on.ca/en/common/ministry/publications/reports/mental_health 2011/mentalhealth rep2011.pdf
- 20. Mental Health Commission of Canada (MHCC). Changing directions, changing lives: The mental health strategy for Canada. Calgary, AB: Author; 2019 [cited 2022 March 20]. Available from: https://www.mentalhealthcommission.ca/wp-content/uploads/drupal/MHStrategy Strategy ENG.pdf
- 21. Australian Government Department of Health. National Drug Strategy 2017–2026. Commonwealth of Australia represented by the Department of Health; 2017 [cited 2022 March 20]. Available from: https://aodknowledgecentre.ecu.edu.au/key-resources/policies-and-strategies/33425/?title=National+drug+strategy+2017-2026#:~:text=The%20National%20drug%20strategy%202017,harms%20among%20individuals%2C%20families%20and

- 22. Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA). Strategic plan FY2019 FY2023. US Department of Health and Human Services; 2019 [cited 2022 March 20]. Available from: https://www.samhsa.gov/sites/default/files/samhsa_strategic_plan_fy19-fy23_final-508.pdf
- Rush B, Urbanoski K, Bassani D, Castel S, Wild TC, Strike C, et al. Prevalence of cooccurring substance use and other mental disorders in the Canadian population. Can J Psychiatry. 2008;53(12):800-9. doi: 10.1177/070674370805301206
- 24. Lai HMX, Cleary M, Sitharthan T, Hunt GE. Prevalence of comorbid substance use, anxiety and mood disorders in epidemiological surveys, 1990–2014: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Drug Alcohol Depend. 2015;154:1-13. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2015.05.031
- 25. Volkow ND, Hampson AJ, Baler RD. Don't worry, be happy: Endocannabinoids and cannabis at the intersection of stress and reward. Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol. 2017;57:285-308. doi: 10.1146/annurev-pharmtox-010716-104615
- 26. National Institute on Drug Abuse. Principles of adolescent substance use disorder treatment a research-based guide. 2014. [cited 2022 March 22]. Available from: https://www.drugabuse.gov/publications/principles-adolescent-substance-use-disorder-treatment-research-based-guide/principles-adolescent-substance-use-disorder-treatment
- 27. Casey BJ, Jones RM, Hare TA. The Adolescent Brain. Ann N Y Acad Sci. 2008;1124:111-26. doi: 10.1196/annals.1440.010
- 28. Canadian Institute for Health Information. Hospital stays for harm caused by substance use among youth age 10 to 24. Ottawa, ON: CIHI; 2019.
- 29. Kingston RE, Marel C, Mills KL. A systematic review of the prevalence of comorbid mental health disorders in people presenting for substance use treatment in Australia. Drug Alcohol Rev. 2017;36(4):527-39. doi: 10.1111/dar.12448
- 30. Connor JP, Gullo MJ, White A, Kelly AB. Polysubstance use: Diagnostic challenges, patterns of use and health. Curr Opin Psychiatry. 2014;27(4):269-75. doi: 10.1097/YCO.00000000000000009
- 31. Tomczyk S, Isensee B, Hanewinkel R. Latent classes of polysubstance use among adolescents—a systematic review. Drug Alcohol Depend. 2016;160:12-29. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2015.11.035
- 32. Center for Substance Abuse Treatment. Substance abuse treatment for persons with co-occurring disorders. Treatment Improvement Protocol (TIP) Series 42. DHHS Publication No. (SMA) 05-3922. Rockville, MD: Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration; 2005.

- 33. Cerdá M, Sagdeo A, Galea S. Comorbid forms of psychopathology: Key patterns and future research directions. Epidemiol Rev. 2008;30(1):155-77. doi: 10.1093/epirev/mxn003
- 34. Vanyukov MM, Ridenour TA. Common liability to drug addictions: Theory, research, practice. Drug Alcohol Depend. 2012;123(0 1):S1. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2012.01.005
- 35. Population and Public Health Division, Ministry of Health and Long-Term Care. Substance use prevention and harm reduction guideline. Government of Ontario; 2018. [cited 2022 March 22]. Available from: https://www.health.gov.on.ca/en/pro/programs/publichealth/oph_standards/docs/proto cols_guidelines/Substance_Use_Prevention_and_Harm_Reduction_Guideline_2018_en.pdf
- 36. Goodwin L. Commentary on Guertler et al.: Can latent class analysis methods develop our understanding of mental health and alcohol problem co-occurrence at a symptom level? Addiction. 2021. doi: 10.1111/add.15364
- 37. Petersen KJ, Qualter P, Humphrey N. The application of latent class analysis for investigating population child mental health: A systematic review. Front Psychol. 2019;10:1214. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2019.01214
- 38. Bonell C, Fletcher A, Jamal F, Wells H, Harden A, Murphy S, et al. Theories of how the school environment impacts on student health: Systematic review and synthesis. Health Place. 2013;24:242-9. doi: 10.1016/j.healthplace.2013.09.014
- 39. Hale DR, Patalay P, Fitzgerald-Yau N, Hargreaves DS, Bond L, Gorzig A, et al. School-level variation in health outcomes in adolescence: Analysis of three longitudinal studies in England. Prev Sci. 2014;15(4):600-10. doi: 10.1007/s11121-013-0414-6
- 40. Shackleton N, Hale D, Bonell C, Viner RM. Intraclass correlation values for adolescent health outcomes in secondary schools in 21 European countries. SSM Popul Health. 2016;2:217-25. doi: 10.1016/j.ssmph.2016.03.005
- 41. Public Health Agency of Canada. Blueprint for action: Preventing substance-related harms among youth through a comprehensive school health approach. Ottawa, ON; 2021. [cited 2022 March 22]. Available from: https://www.canada.ca/en/public-health/services/publications/healthy-living/blueprint-for-action-preventing-substance-related-harms-youth-comprehensive-school-health/guide.html
- 42. Kristjansson AL, Mann MJ, Sigfusson J, Thorisdottir IE, Allegrante JP, Sigfusdottir ID. Development and guiding principles of the Icelandic model for preventing adolescent substance use. Health Promot Pract. 2020;21(1):62-9. doi: 10.1177/1524839919849032
- 43. School Mental Health Ontario [Internet]. The continuum of mental health support at school; 2022 [cited 2022 March 22]. Available from: https://smho-smso.ca/about-student-mental-health/

- 44. Greenberg MT, Abenavoli R. Universal interventions: Fully exploring their impacts and potential to produce population-level impacts. J Res Educ Eff. 2017;10(1):40-67. doi: 10.1080/19345747.2016.1246632
- 45. Mental Health and Addictions Program Framework Research Team. Mental health and addictions system performance in Ontario: 2021 scorecard. Chart pack. Toronto, ON: Institute for Clinical Evaluative Sciences; 2021.
- 46. Mental Health and Addictions Scorecard and Evaluation Framework (MHASEF)
 Research Team. The mental health of children and youth in Ontario: 2017 scorecard.
 Chart pack. Toronto, ON: Institute for Clinical Evaluative Sciences; 2017. ISBN: 9781926850-74-0
- 47. Canadian Institute for Health Information (CIHI). Care for children and youth with mental disorders Data tables. Ottawa, ON: CIHI; 2020.
- 48. Gandhi S, Chiu M, Lam K, Cairney JC, Guttmann A, Kurdyak P. Mental health service use among children and youth in Ontario: Population-based trends over time. Can J Psychiatry. 2016;61(2):119-24. doi: 10.1177/0706743715621254
- 49. Chiu M, Gatov E, Fung K, Kurdyak P, Guttmann A. Deconstructing the rise in mental health–related ed visits among children and youth in Ontario, Canada: Study examines the rise in mental health-related emergency department visits among children and youth in Ontario. Health Affairs. 2020;39(10):1728-36. https://doi.org/10.1377/hlthaff.2020.00232
- 50. Mapelli E, Black T, Doan Q. Trends in pediatric emergency department utilization for mental health-related visits. J Pediatr. 2015;167(4):905-10. doi: 10.1016/j.jpeds.2015.07.004
- 51. Canadian Institute for Health Information (CIHI). Care for children and youth with mental disorders. Ottawa, ON: CIHI; 2015 [cited 2022 March 22]. Available from: https://publications.gc.ca/collections/collection_2015/icis-cihi/H118-96-2015-eng.pdf.
- 52. Cloutier P, Thibedeau N, Barrowman N, Gray C, Kennedy A, Leon S, et al. Predictors of repeated visits to a pediatric emergency department crisis intervention program. CJEM. 2017;19(2):122-30. doi: 10.1017/cem.2016.357
- 53. Newton AS, Ali S, Johnson DW, Haines C, Rosychuk RJ, Keaschuk RA, et al. Who comes back? Characteristics and predictors of return to emergency department services for pediatric mental health care. Acad Emerg Med. 2010;17(2):177-86. doi: 10.1111/j.1553-2712.2009.00633.x
- 54. Newton AS, Ali S, Johnson DW, Haines C, Rosychuk RJ, Keaschuk RA, et al. A 4-year review of pediatric mental health emergencies in Alberta. CJEM. 2009;11(5):447-54. doi: 10.1017/s1481803500011647
- 55. Rosic T, Duncan L, Wang L, Eltorki M, Boyle M, Sassi R, et al. Trends and predictors of repeat mental health visits to a pediatric emergency Department in

- Hamilton, Ontario. J Can Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry. 2019;28(2):82. PMID: 31447906
- 56. Edgcomb JB, Sorter M, Lorberg B, Zima BT. Psychiatric readmission of children and adolescents: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Psychiatr Serv. 2020;71(3):269-79. doi: 10.1176/appi.ps.201900234
- 57. Leon SL, Cloutier P, Polihronis C, Zemek R, Newton AS, Gray C, et al. Child and adolescent mental health repeat visits to the emergency department: A systematic review. Hosp Pediatr. 2017;7(3):177-86. doi: 10.1542/hpeds.2016-0120
- 58. Pieterse D, Temmingh H, Vogel W. Factors associated with readmission in South African adolescents discharged from two inpatient psychosocial rehabilitation units. J Child Adolesc Ment Health. 2016;28(3):199-212. doi: 10.2989/17280583.2016.1259165
- 59. Hawkins EH. A tale of two systems: Co-occurring mental health and substance abuse disorders treatment for adolescents. Annu Rev Psychol. 2009;60:197-227. doi: 10.1146/annurev.psych.60.110707.163456
- 60. Turner WC, Muck RD, Muck RJ, Stephens RL, Sukumar B. Co-occurring disorders in the adolescent mental health and substance abuse treatment systems. J Psychoactive Drugs. 2004;36(4):455-62. doi: 10.1080/02791072.2004.10524428
- 61. Pan L, Brent DA. BMJ best practice: Depression in children. 2018 [cited 2022 March 22]. Available from: https://bestpractice.bmj.com/topics/en-gb/785
- 62. Swinson RP. BMJ best practice guideline: Generalized anxiety disorder. 2017. [cited 2022 March 22]. Available from: https://bestpractice.bmj.com/topics/en-us/120/pdf/120.pdf
- 63. Burkstein O. Substance use disorder in adolescents: Epidemiology, pathogenesis, clinical manifestations and consequences, course, assessment, and diagnosis. UpToDate; 2020 [cited 22022 March 22]. Available from: https://www.uptodate.com/contents/substance-use-disorder-in-adolescents-epidemiology-pathogenesis-clinical-manifestations-and-consequences-course-assessment-and-diagnosis?search=adoelscent%20subsatnce%20use&source=search_result&selectedTitle=1~150&usage_type=default&display_rank=1#H2595582733
- 64. Alsuhaibani R, Smith DC, Lowrie R, Aljhani S, Paudyal V. How well do international clinical guidelines on mental health and substance misuse address their coexistence? A systematic review of scope, quality and inclusivity. BMC Psychiatry. 2021;21(1):209. doi: 10.21203/rs.3.rs-226664/v1
- 65. Boyle MH, Duncan L, Georgiades K, Comeau J, Reid GJ, O'Briain W, et al. Tracking children's mental health in the 21st century: Lessons from the 2014 OCHS. Can J Psychiatry. 2019;64(4):232-6. doi: 10.1177/0706743719830025

- 66. Simon KM, Harris SK, Shrier LA, Bukstein OG. Measurement-based care in the treatment of adolescents with substance use disorders. Child and Adolesc Psychiatr Clin N Am. 2020;29(4):675-90. doi: 10.1016/j.chc.2020.06.006
- 67. Harris B, Shaw B, Lawson H, Sherman B. Barriers to addressing adolescent substance use: Perceptions of New York school-based health center providers. J Sch Health. 2016;86(2):96-104. doi: 10.1111/josh.12358
- 68. Duncan L, Boyle MH, Abelson J, Waddell C. Measuring children's mental health in Ontario: Policy issues and prospects for change. J Can Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry. 2018;27(2):88. PMID: 29662520
- 69. Creswell JW, Plano Clark, VL. Designing and conducting mixed methods research. 3 ed. Los Angeles, California: SAGE Publications, Inc.; 2017.
- 70. Halladay J, Woock R, El-Khechen H, Munn C, MacKillop J, Amlung M, et al. Patterns of substance use among adolescents: A systematic review. Drug Alcohol Depend. 2020;216:108222. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2020.108222
- 71. Riehman KS, Stephens RL, Schurig ML. Substance use patterns and mental health diagnosis among youth in mental health treatment: A latent class analysis. J Psychoactive Drugs. 2009;41(4):363-8. doi: 10.1080/02791072.2009.10399774
- 72. Shin SH, Hong HG, Hazen AL. Childhood sexual abuse and adolescent substance use: A latent class analysis. Drug Alcohol Depend. 2010;109(1-3):226-35. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2010.01.013
- 73. Halladay J, MacKillop, J., Munn, C., Amlung, M., Georgiades, K. Patterns of student substance use and mental health symptoms: A multilevel latent profile analysis. JCCP. Under Review.
- 74. Halladay J, Horricks L, Amlung M, MacKillop J, Munn C, Nasir Z, et al. The CAMP study: Feasibility and clinical correlates of standardized assessments of substance use in a youth psychiatric inpatient sample. Child Adolesc Psychiatry Ment Health. 2021;15(1):48. doi: 10.1186/s13034-021-00403-4
- 75. Liu RT. Substance use disorders in adolescence exist along continua: Taxometric evidence in an epidemiological sample. J Abnorm Child Psychol. 2017;45(8):1577-86. doi: 10.1007/s10802-017-0269-6
- 76. Pickles A, Angold A. Natural categories or fundamental dimensions: On carving nature at the joints and the rearticulation of psychopathology. Dev Psychopathol. 2003;15(3):529-51. doi: 10.1017/s0954579403000282
- 77. Markon KE, Chmielewski M, Miller CJ. The reliability and validity of discrete and continuous measures of psychopathology: A quantitative review. Psychol Bull. 2011;137(5):856-79. doi: 10.1037/a0023678
- 78. Peugh JL. A practical guide to multilevel modeling. J Sch Psychol. 2010;48(1):85-112. doi: 10.1016/j.jsp.2009.09.002

- 79. Stawski RS. Multilevel analysis: An introduction to basic and advanced multilevel modeling (2nd edition). Struct Equ Modeling. 2013;20(3):541-550. doi: 10.1080/10705511.2013.797841
- 80. Twisk JWR. Applied multilevel analysis: A practical guide for medical researchers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; 2006.
- 81. Gully SM, Phillips JM. On finding your level. In: Humphrey, Stephen E editors. The handbook of multilevel theory, measurement, and theory. Washington, DC, US: American Psychological Association; 2019. p. 11-28. https://doi.org/10.1037/0000115-002
- 82. Heirene RM. A call for replications of addiction research: Which studies should we replicate and what constitutes a 'successful' replication? Addict Res Theory. 2021;29(2):89-97. doi: 10.1080/16066359.2020.1751130
- 83. Pearson MR, Schwebel FJ, Richards DK, Witkiewitz K. Examining replicability in addictions research: How to assess and ways forward. Psychol Addict Behav. 2021. doi: 10.1037/adb0000730
- 84. Wellman RJ, Chaiton M, Morgenstern M, O'Loughlin J. Untangling influences in the longitudinal relationship between depressive symptoms and drinking frequency in high school. J Adolesc Health. 2020;66(3):308-14. doi: 10.1016/j.jadohealth.2019.10.001
- 85. Birrell L, Slade T, Teesson M, Prior K, Chapman C, Hides L, et al. Bidirectional relationships in the development of internalising symptoms and alcohol use in adolescence. Drug Alcohol Rev. 2020;39(7):950-9. doi: 10.1111/dar.13070
- 86. Rioux C, Huet A-S, Castellanos-Ryan N, Fortier L, Le Blanc M, Hamaoui S, et al. Substance use disorders and suicidality in youth: A systematic review and meta-analysis with a focus on the direction of the association. PloS One. 2021;16(8):e0255799. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0255799
- 87. Lawler SM, Stapinski LA, Barrett EL, Newton NC, Sunderland M, Slade T, et al. Is adolescent alcohol use linked to spikes in aggressive behaviour? A growth curve analysis. Prev Sci. 2021;22(4):534-44. doi: 10.1007/s11121-020-01188-2
- 88. Lanza ST, Vasilenko SA, Russell MA. Time-varying effect modeling to address new questions in behavioral research: Examples in marijuana use. Psychol Addict Behav. 2016;30(8):939. doi: 10.1037/adb0000208
- 89. Mund M, Nestler S. Beyond the cross-lagged panel model: Next-generation statistical tools for analyzing interdependencies across the life course. Adv Life Course Res. 2019;41:100249. doi:10.1016/j.alcr.2018.10.002
- 90. Acuff SF, Strickland JC, Tucker JA, Murphy JG. Changes in alcohol use during COVID-19 and associations with contextual and individual difference variables: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Psychol Addict Behav. 2021. doi: 10.1037/adb0000796

- 91. Minhas M, Belisario K, González-Roz A, Halladay J, Murphy JG, MacKillop J. COVID-19 impacts on drinking and mental health in emerging adults: Longitudinal changes and moderation by economic disruption and sex. Alcohol Clin Exp Res. 2021;45(7):1448-1457. doi: 10.1111/acer.14624
- 92. Minhas M, Belisario K, Gonzalez-Roz A, Halladay J, Morris V, Keough M, et al. Is talk cheap? Correspondence between self-attributions about changes in drinking and longitudinal changes in drinking during the 2019 coronavirus pandemic. Alcohol Clin Exp Res. 2021;45(12):2560-8. doi: 10.1111/acer.14724
- 93. Zolopa C, Burack JA, O'Connor RM, Corran C, Lai J, Bomfim E, et al. Changes in youth mental health, psychological wellbeing, and substance use during the COVID-19 pandemic: A rapid review. 2021;1-17. doi: 10.1007/s40894-022-00185-6
- 94. Pelham WE, Tapert SF, Gonzalez MR, McCabe CJ, Lisdahl KM, Alzueta E, et al. Early Adolescent Substance Use Before and During the COVID-19 Pandemic: A Longitudinal Survey in the ABCD Study Cohort. J Adolesc Health. 2021;69(3):390-7. doi: 10.1016/j.jadohealth.2021.06.015
- 95. Hawke LD, Szatmari P, Cleverley K, Courtney D, Cheung A, Voineskos AN, et al. Youth in a pandemic: A longitudinal examination of youth mental health and substance use concerns during COVID-19. BMJ Open. 2021;11(10):e049209. doi: 10.1136/bmjopen-2021-049209
- 96. Saunders NR, Toulany A, Deb B, Strauss R, Vigod SN, Guttmann A, et al. Acute mental health service use following onset of the COVID-19 pandemic in Ontario, Canada: a trend analysis. CMAJ Open. 2021;9(4):E988-E97. doi: 10.9778/cmajo.20210100
- 97. Brown D. Number of youth in hospital after suicide attempt tripled over 4-month period under COVID-19. CBC News. 2021 March 18 [cited 2022 March 22]. Available from: https://www.cbc.ca/news/canada/hamilton/pandemic-safety-measures-children-teen-health-impact-1.5953326
- 98. Pearson C, Janz T, Ali J. Mental and substance use disorders in Canada (Catalogue no. 82-624-X). Statistics Canada; 2013. [cited 2022 June 9] Available from: https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/pub/82-624-x/2013001/article/11855-eng.htm
- 99. Hernandez-Avila CA, Rounsaville BJ, Kranzler HR. Opioid-, cannabis- and alcohol-dependent women show more rapid progression to substance abuse treatment. Drug Alcohol Depend. 2004;74(3):265-72. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2004.02.001
- 100. Hitschfeld MJ, Schneekloth TD, Ebbert JO, Hall-Flavin DK, Karpyak VM, Abulseoud OA, et al. Female smokers have the highest alcohol craving in a residential alcoholism treatment cohort. Drug Alcohol Depend. 2015;150:179-82. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2015.02.016
- 101. Robbins SJ, Ehrman RN, Childress AR, O'Brien CP. Comparing levels of cocaine cue reactivity in male and female outpatients. Drug Alcohol Depend. 1999;53(3):223-30. doi: 10.1016/s0376-8716(98)00135-5

- 102. Fox HC, Morgan PT, Sinha R. Sex differences in guanfacine effects on drug craving and stress arousal in cocaine-dependent individuals. Neuropsychopharmacology. 2014;39(6):1527-37. doi: 10.1038/npp.2014.1
- 103. Kennedy AP, Epstein DH, Phillips KA, Preston KL. Sex differences in cocaine/heroin users: Drug-use triggers and craving in daily life. Drug Alcohol Depend. 2013;132(1-2):29-37. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2012.12.025
- 104. Sherman BJ, McRae-Clark AL, Baker NL, Sonne SC, Killeen TK, Cloud K, et al. Gender differences among treatment-seeking adults with cannabis use disorder: Clinical profiles of women and men enrolled in the Achieving Cannabis Cessation-Evaluating N-acetylcysteine Treatment (ACCENT) study. Am J Addict. 2017;26(2):136-44. doi: 10.1111/ajad.12503
- 105. Kippin TE, Fuchs RA, Mehta RH, Case JM, Parker MP, Bimonte-Nelson HA, et al. Potentiation of cocaine-primed reinstatement of drug seeking in female rats during estrus. Psychopharmacology. 2005;182(2):245-52. doi: 10.1007/s00213-005-0071-y
- 106. Rubonis AV, Colby SM, Monti PM, Rohsenow DJ, Gulliver SB, Sirota AD. Alcohol cue reactivity and mood induction in male and female alcoholics. J Stud Alcohol. 1994;55(4):487-94. doi: 10.15288/jsa.1994.55.487
- 107. Greaves L, Hemsing N. Sex and gender interactions on the use and impact of recreational cannabis. Int J Environ Res Public Health. 2020;17(2):509. doi: 10.3390/ijerph17020509
- 108. Heidari S, Babor TF, De Castro P, Tort S, Curno M. Sex and gender equity in research: Rationale for the SAGER guidelines and recommended use. Res Integr Peer Rev. 2016;1(1):1-9. doi: 10.1186/s41073-016-0007-6
- 109. Ghassabian A, Suleri A, Blok E, Franch B, Hillegers MH, White T. Adolescent gender diversity: Sociodemographic correlates and mental health outcomes in the general population. J Child Psychol Psychiatry. 2022. doi: 10.1111/jcpp.13588
- 110. Zhang Q, Goodman M, Adams N, Corneil T, Hashemi L, Kreukels B, et al. Epidemiological considerations in transgender health: A systematic review with focus on higher quality data. Int J Transgend Health. 2020;21(2):125-37. doi: 10.1080/26895269.2020.1753136
- 111. Dixon M, Hawke LD, Relihan J, Darnay K, Henderson JL. Let's talk gender: Ten things transgender and nonbinary youth want all researchers to know. J am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry. 2022. S0890-8567(21)02095-5. doi: 10.1016/j.jaac.2021.12.010
- 112. Kingsbury M, Hammond NG, Johnstone F, Colman I. Suicidality among sexual minority and transgender adolescents: A nationally representative population-based study of youth in Canada. CMAJ. 2022;194(22):E767. doi: 10.1503/cmaj.212054

- 113. Canadian Institute for Health Information (CIHI). Guidance on the use of standards for race-based and indigenous identity data collection and health reporting in Canada. Ottawa, ON: CIHI; 2022.
- 114. Gajaria A, Guzder J, Rasasingham R. What's race got to do with it? A proposed framework to address racism's impacts on child and adolescent mental health in Canada. J Can Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry. 2021;30(2):131. PMID: 33953765
- 115. Trucco EM. A review of psychosocial factors linked to adolescent substance use. Pharmacol Biochem Behav. 2020;196:172969. doi: 10.1016/j.pbb.2020.172969
- 116. Bauer G. Meet the methods series: Quanitative intersectional study design and primary data collection. Canadian Institute of Health Research Intsitute of Gender and Health; 2021 [cited 2022 June 9]. Available from: https://cihrirsc.gc.ca/e/documents/intersectional-study-design-data-collection EN.pdf
- 117. Andrews D, Fong G, Hackam D, Li L, Lynam M, Mathews M, et al. Guide to knowledge translation planning at CIHR: Integrated and end–of–grant approaches. Canada: The Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR). 2015.
- 118. Straus S, Tetroe J, Graham ID. Knowledge translation in health care: Moving from evidence to practice. 2nd ed. Oxford: John Wiley & Sons; 2013.
- 119. Darnay K, Hawke LD, Chaim G, Henderson J, INNOVATE Research Team. INNOVATE research: Youth engagement guidebook for researchers. Toronto, ON: Centre for Addiction and Mental Health; 2019.
- 120. Ontario Centre of Excellence for Child and Youth Mental Health. Quality standard for youth engagement. Ottawa, ON: Ontario Centre of Excellence for Child & Youth Mental Health; 2021.
- 121. The Canadian Institutes of Health Research. Strategy for patient-oriented research Patient engagement framework. 2014. [cited 2022 March 22]. Available from: https://cihr-irsc.gc.ca/e/documents/spor framework-en.pdf
- 122. Abelson J, Tripp L, Kandasamy S, Burrows K. Supporting the evaluation of public and patient engagement in health system organizations: Results from an implementation research study. Health Expect. 2019;22(5):1132-43. doi: 10.1111/hex.12949
- 123. Chen E, Leos C, Kowitt SD, Moracco KE. Enhancing community-based participatory research through human-centered design strategies. Health Promot Pract. 2020;21(1):37-48. doi: 10.1177/1524839919850557
- 124. Tschimmel K. Design thinking as an effective toolkit for innovation. ISPIM Conference Proceedings. The International Society for Professional Innovation Management (ISPIM); 2012.
- 125. IDEO [Internet]. Design thinking defined; 2022 [cited 2022 March 22]. Available from: https://designthinking.ideo.com/

- 126. Friis Dam R. [blog on the Internet]. 5 Stages in the design thinking process. Interaction Design Foundation; 2021 [cited 2022 March 22]. Available from: https://www.interaction-design.org/literature/article/5-stages-in-the-design-thinking-process
- 127. Marchand K, Tallon C, Katan C, Fairbank J, Fogarty O, Pellatt KM, et al. Improving Treatment Together: A protocol for a multi-phase, community-based participatory, and co-design project to improve youth opioid treatment service experiences in British Columbia. Addict Sci Clin Pract. 2021;16(1):53. doi: 10.1186/s13722-021-00261-7
- 128. Jorm AF. Using the Delphi expert consensus method in mental health research. Aust N Z J Psychiatry. 2015;49(10):887-97. 10.1177/0004867415600891
- 129. Powell C. The Delphi technique: Myths and realities. J Adv Nurs. 2003;41(4):376-82. doi: 10.1046/j.1365-2648.2003.02537.x
- 130. Cleverley K, McCann E, O'Brien D, Davies J, Bennett K, Brennenstuhl S, et al. Prioritizing core components of successful transitions from child to adult mental health care: A national Delphi survey with youth, caregivers, and health professionals. Eur Child Adolesc Psychiatry. 2021:1-14. doi: 10.1007/s00787-021-01806-6
- 131. Lewis CC, Boyd M, Puspitasari A, Navarro E, Howard J, Kassab H, et al. Implementing measurement-based care in behavioral health: A review. JAMA Psychiatry. 2019;76(3):324-35. doi: 10.1001/jamapsychiatry.2018.3329
- 132. Scott K, Lewis CC. Using measurement-based care to enhance any treatment. Cogn Behav Pract. 2015;22(1):49-59. doi: 10.1016/j.cbpra.2014.01.010
- 133. Peterson K, Anderson J, Bourne D. Evidence brief: Use of patient reported outcome measures for measurement based care in mental health shared decision-making. US: Department of Veterans Affairs; 2019. PMID: 30645065
- 134. Hawkins EJ, Lambert MJ, Vermeersch DA, Slade KL, Tuttle KC. The therapeutic effects of providing patient progress information to therapists and patients. Psychother Res. 2006;14(3):308-327. doi: 10.1093/ptr/kph027
- 135. Lambert MJ, Whipple JL, Vermeersch DA, Smart DW, Hawkins EJ, Nielsen SL, et al. Enhancing psychotherapy outcomes via providing feedback on client progress: A replication. Clin Psychol Psychother. 2002;9(2):91-103. https://doi.org/10.1002/cpp.324
- 136. Hatfield DR, Ogles BM. The use of outcome measures by psychologists in clinical practice. Prof Psychol Res Pr. 2004;35(5):485. doi: 10.1037/0735-7028.35.5.485
- 137. Godley SH, Smith JE, Passetti LL, Subramaniam G. The Adolescent Community Reinforcement Approach (A-CRA) as a model paradigm for the management of adolescents with substance use disorders and co-occurring psychiatric disorders. Subst Abus. 2014;35(4):352-63. doi: 10.1080/08897077.2014.936993

- 138. MacKillop J. The behavioral economics and neuroeconomics of alcohol use disorders. Alcohol Clin Exp Res. 2016;40(4):672-85. doi: 10.1111/acer.13004
- 139. Dawson DA, Goldstein RB, Patricia Chou S, June Ruan W, Grant BF. Age at first drink and the first incidence of adult-onset DSM-IV alcohol use disorders. Alcohol Clin Exp Res. 2008;32(12):2149-60. doi: 10.1111/j.1530-0277.2008.00806.x
- 140. Rioux C, Castellanos-Ryan N, Parent S, Vitaro F, Tremblay RE, Séguin JR. Age of cannabis use onset and adult drug abuse symptoms: A prospective study of common risk factors and indirect effects. Can J Psychiatry. 2018;63(7):457-64. doi: 10.1177/0706743718760289
- 141. Lopez-Quintero C, de los Cobos JP, Hasin DS, Okuda M, Wang S, Grant BF, et al. Probability and predictors of transition from first use to dependence on nicotine, alcohol, cannabis, and cocaine: Results of the National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions (NESARC). Drug Alcohol Depend. 2011;115(1-2):120-30. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2010.11.004
- 142. Bergman BG, Kelly JF, Nargiso JE, McKowen JW. "The age of feeling in-between": Addressing challenges in the treatment of emerging adults with substance use disorders. Cogn Behav Pract. 2016;23(3):270-88. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cbpra.2015.09.008
- 143. Carver J, Cappelli M, Davidson S. Taking the Next Step Forward: Building a Responsive Mental Health and Addictions System for Emerging Adults. Ottawa, ON: Mental Health Commission of Canada/Commission de la sant'e mentale du Canada; 2015 [cited 2022 March 22]. Available from: https://www.mentalhealthcommission.ca/wp-content/uploads/drupal/Taking%252520the%252520Next%252520Step%252520For ward_0.pdf
- 144. Schraeder K, Dimitropoulos G, McBrien K, Li JY, Samuel S. Perspectives from primary health care providers on their roles for supporting adolescents and young adults transitioning from pediatric services. BMC Fam Pract. 2020;21(1):1-12. doi: 10.1186/s12875-020-01189-8
- 145. Schraeder KE, Barwick M, Cairney J, Carter J, Kurdyak P, Neufeld RW, et al. Reaccessing mental health care after age 18: A longitudinal cohort study of youth involved with community-based child and youth mental health agencies in Ontario. J Can Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry. 2021;30(1):12. PMID: 33552169
- 146. Looi JC, Allison S, Bastiampillai T, Kisely SR. Headspace, an Australian youth mental health network: Lessons for Canadian mental healthcare. J Can Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry. 2021;30(2):116. PMID: 33953763
- 147. Kwan B, Rickwood DJ, Telford NR. Development and validation of MyLifeTracker: A routine outcome measure for youth mental health. Psychol Res Behav Manag. 2018;11:67. doi: 10.2147/PRBM.S152342

- 148. Guinaudie C, Mireault C, Tan J, Pelling Y, Jalali S, Malla A, et al. Shared decision making in a youth mental health service design and research project: Insights from the pan-Canadian ACCESS Open Minds network. Patient. 2020;13(6):653-66. doi: 10.1007/s40271-020-00444-
- 149. Settipani CA, Hawke LD, Cleverley K, Chaim G, Cheung A, Mehra K, et al. Key attributes of integrated community-based youth service hubs for mental health: A scoping review, Int J Ment Health Syst. 2019;13(1):1-26. doi: 10.1186/s13033-019-0306-7
- 150. Halladay JE, Munn C, Boyle M, Jack SM, Georgiades K. Temporal changes in the cross-sectional associations between cannabis use, suicidal ideation, and depression in a nationally representative sample of Canadian adults in 2012 compared to 2002. Can J Psychiatry. 2020;65(2):115-23. doi: 10.1177/0706743719854071
- 151. Gorfinkel LR, Stohl M, Hasin D. Association of depression with past-month cannabis use among US adults aged 20 to 59 years, 2005 to 2016. JAMA Netw Open. 2020;3(8):e2013802-e. doi: 10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2020.13802
- 152. Pacek LR, Weinberger AH, Zhu J, Goodwin RD. Rapid increase in the prevalence of cannabis use among people with depression in the United States, 2005–17: The role of differentially changing risk perceptions. Addiction. 2020;115(5):935-43. doi: 10.1111/add.14883
- 153. Weinberger AH, Zhu J, Levin J, Barrington-Trimis JL, Copeland J, Wyka K, et al. Cannabis use among US adults with anxiety from 2008 to 2017: The role of state-level cannabis legalization. Drug Alcohol Depend. 2020;214:108163. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2020.108163
- 154. Weinberger AH, Pacek LR, Sheffer CE, Budney AJ, Lee J, Goodwin RD. Serious psychological distress and daily cannabis use, 2008 to 2016: Potential implications for mental health? Drug Alcohol Depend. 2019;197:134-40. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2019.01.010
- 155. Talati A, Keyes KM, Hasin DS. Changing relationships between smoking and psychiatric disorders across twentieth century birth cohorts: Clinical and research implications. Mol Psychiatry. 2016;21(4):464-71. doi: 10.1038/mp.2015.224
- 156. Keyes KM, Hamilton A, Patrick ME, Schulenberg J. Diverging trends in the relationship between binge drinking and depressive symptoms among adolescents in the U.S. from 1991 through 2018. J of Adolesc Health. 2020;66(5):529-35. doi: 10.1016/j.jadohealth.2019.08.026
- 157. Weinberger AH, Zhu J, Lee J, Anastasiou E, Copeland J, Goodwin RD. Cannabis use among youth in the United States, 2004–2016: Faster rate of increase among youth with depression. Drug Alcohol Depend. 2020;209:107894. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2020.107894