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# The Prevalence of Psychiatric Comorbidities in Adult ADHD Compared With Non-ADHD Populations: A Systematic Literature Review --Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	Comorbid psychiatric disorders in adults with ADHD are important because these comorbidities might complicate the diagnosis of ADHD and also worsen the prognosis. However, the prevalence of comorbid psychiatric disorders in adult ADHD varies according to the diagnostic tools used and the characteristics of target populations. The purpose of this review was to describe the prevalence of comorbid psychiatric disorders in adults with ADHD compared with adults without ADHD. Thirty studies published before July 2021 were identified and classified according to diagnosis of other psychiatric disorder in those with ADHD. The most frequent comorbid psychiatric disorder in the ADHD group was substance use disorder (SUD), followed by mood disorders, anxiety disorders, and personality disorders. The prevalence of these four disorders was higher in the ADHD group, whether or not subjects were diagnosed with other psychiatric disorders. In addition, the diversity of ADHD diagnostic tools was observed. This also might have affected the variability in prevalence of comorbidities. Standardization of ADHD diagnostic tools is necessary in the future.
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The Prevalence of Psychiatric Comorbidities in Adult ADHD Compared With Non-ADHD Populations: A Systematic Literature Review

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# **Abstract**

Comorbid psychiatric disorders in adults with ADHD are important because these comorbidities might complicate the diagnosis of ADHD and also worsen the prognosis. However, the prevalence of comorbid psychiatric disorders in adult ADHD varies according to

the diagnostic tools used and the characteristics of target populations. The purpose of this review was to describe the prevalence of comorbid psychiatric disorders in adults with ADHD compared with adults without ADHD. Thirty studies published before July 2021 were identified and classified according to diagnosis of other psychiatric disorder in those with ADHD. The most frequent comorbid psychiatric disorder in the ADHD group was substance use disorder (SUD), followed by mood disorders, anxiety disorders, and personality disorders. The prevalence of these four disorders was higher in the ADHD group, whether or not subjects were diagnosed with other psychiatric disorders. In addition, the diversity of ADHD diagnostic tools was observed. This also might have affected the variability in prevalence of comorbidities. Standardization of ADHD diagnostic tools is necessary in the future.

# Introduction

ADHD(attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder) is a common psychiatric disorder presenting persistent inattention and/or hyperactivity/impulsiveness (1), which is associated with considerable problems in personal, social, and occupational areas (2). While ADHD is well studied in children, it is recently being studied in adults as well. According to a previous meta-analysis, 65% of children who were diagnosed with ADHD have persistent ADHD symptoms in adulthood (3). In addition, the prevalence of ADHD in adults is known to reach 2.5% (4), which is moderate compared to its prevalence in children, which is about 5% (5).

Although comorbid psychiatric disorders are common in both adults and children, the comorbidity rate is higher in adults; as many as 80% of adults with ADHD are reported to have at least one comorbid psychiatric disorder (6, 7, 8). In clinical adult ADHD samples, substance use disorder (SUD), mood disorder, anxiety disorder, and antisocial personality disorder

(ASPD) are the most common comorbid disorders (9, 10), and these mental disorders can adversely affect patient prognosis. Furthermore, research revealed that comorbid psychiatric disorders cause considerable functional impairment in individuals with ADHD and place a great burden on society (11).

For this reason, several cross-sectional studies have been conducted on various populations including clinical and general settings over 30 years to evaluate the prevalence of comorbid psychiatric conditions in adults with ADHD. However, the prevalence of comorbid psychiatric disorders varied according to characteristics of the subjects, including country, race, gender, and other socioeconomic characteristics as well as the screening or diagnostic tools applied (10, 12). Moreover, since ADHD has been recognized in adults, diagnostic tools for adult ADHD and its comorbid disorders have changed over time (13), and the interest in clinical diagnoses and optimal treatments in adults with ADHD has also increased (14). These factors might have contributed to the divergent prevalence rate of ADHD and comorbid disorders in adults.

However, to the best of our knowledge, despite the high incident rates of psychiatric disorders documented in previous studies in the adult ADHD subjects (10, 11, 15, 16) and their importance in the clinical field, no systematic literature review has specifically compared the degree of comorbid psychiatric disorders between adults with and without ADHD. Thus, the aim of our study was to ascertain the difference in the prevalence rates of comorbid psychiatric disorders between adults with and without ADHD including both clinical and general populations.

#### **Methods**

## Study search and data sources

The methodology of the present review was followed by Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analysis (17) (available as Supporting Information, S1 table.). We searched electronic libraries of PubMed, EMBASE, PsycINFO, PsycNET, and Google Scholar for publications regarding the epidemiology and prevalence rate of comorbidities of adult ADHD published prior to 22 July 2021. The initial search was conducted using the following terms: Prevalence AND (ADHD OR ADD OR Attention Deficit) AND Adult AND (comorbidity OR comorbid) in titles or abstracts.

#### **Study selection**

First, articles obtained from the initial search were de-duplicated by EndNote 20. Then, inclusion/exclusion screening was performed based on exclusion criteria of non-relevant articles (e.g., did not focus on adult patients or did not include psychiatric comorbidity data), non-English articles, full text not available, abstract-only papers, articles that were not peer-reviewed, and reviews or meta-analyses. The initial inclusion/exclusion review was completed based on titles and abstracts, and if the relevance of the article was unclear, a full-text review was performed. After this initial process, the full texts of all included articles were retrieved to evaluate our detailed eligibility criteria. Articles were included in the study if they 1) used samples of adult populations aged 18 years or older, 2) defined clear ADHD and non-ADHD groups by clinically diagnoses or using any diagnostic criteria (e.g., DSM (Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders)) or tools for screening/diagnosing ADHD in adults (e.g., ASRS (Adult ADHD Self-report Scale)), 3) defined the prevalence rate of comorbid psychiatric disorders using any diagnostic tools for each psychiatric disorder (e.g. SCID (Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-IV)), and 4) directly compared ADHD and non-ADHD groups using statistical analysis.

### **Data collection process**

Microsoft Excel was used to develop a data extraction sheet, and the full-text articles were reviewed randomly by two researchers (WSC, YSW) who also conducted the initial data search. The extracted data were reviewed for consistency, and any queries that arose were resolved by discussion among the researchers. The lead author decided whether to include/exclude data by reviewing the specific articles.

#### Measurements

Because there are various methods for diagnosing ADHD and psychiatric disorders in adults, we extracted the following variables from the articles ultimately included: 1) data describing the study characteristics, such as year of publication, country, or study design; 2) data describing the target population, like sample size, age range or mean age/SD, or gender composition; 3) diagnostic tools for adult ADHD and comorbid psychiatric disorders, whether clinical diagnosis was performed, and the diagnostic criteria for ADHD/psychiatric comorbidity; 4) study results including the prevalence rate of ADHD in the target population, prevalence rate of each psychiatric comorbidity in each ADHD and non-ADHD group, and any statistically significant comparable variables including odd ratios(ORs) with 95% confidence intervals or chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) test variables.

#### **Classification of studies**

Based on several studies targeting nation-wide psychiatric comorbidities (18-20), assuming that the prevalence of comorbid psychiatric disorders is higher in groups of psychiatric patients, we decided to divide the study populations into general population group studies and clinical

group studies. A clinical group study was defined as one in which the study population included patients who had previously been clinically diagnosed with any psychiatric disorder or had visited/been admitted either voluntarily or involuntarily to a hospital for treatment.

In addition, considering the specificity that the prevalence of ADHD among incarcerated people was five to 10 times higher than that of the general population (21), and that the prevalence of comorbid psychiatric disorders among inmates was higher than that of the general population (22), we classified data of incarcerated patients separately from other population groups.

#### **Results**

In total, 1589 articles were identified by the search method described above, and 314 duplicates were removed. After the duplicates excluded, an additional 1017 articles were excluded by screening titles and abstracts. The remaining 258 articles were read in full and included in the analysis if they met the inclusion criteria of our study. Based on our study criteria, 228 articles were excluded for reasons noted in Fig 1. Thus, 30 studies of comparing the prevalence rates of comorbid psychiatric disorders between ADHD and non-ADHD adult subjects were selected for systematic review.

Of the 30 studies comparing the prevalence of comorbid psychiatric disorder between subjects with and without adult ADHD, according to our classification criteria, 11 studies involved general populations, 17 studies included psychiatric populations, and two studies focused on incarcerated populations. One of the two studies dealing with incarcerated populations involved only female inmates (23).

#### Prevalence of mood disorders

Eighteen studies provided data comparing the prevalence of mood disorders (including depressive disorders and bipolar disorders) between ADHD patients and non-ADHD individuals (6, 16, 24-39). In the general populations, the prevalence of any depressive disorder in the non-ADHD group was estimated at 1.2% (16) to 12.5% (29), compared to 8.6% (30) to 55% (6) in the ADHD group. In clinical populations, the prevalence of any depressive disorder in the non-ADHD group was estimated at 5.8%(26) to 39.6%(28), compared to 15.4%(26) to 39.7%(38) in the ADHD group. In the general population, the prevalence of any bipolar disorder in the non-ADHD group was estimated at 0.2%(29) to 3.6%(16) compared to 4.48%(36) to 35.3%(16) in the ADHD group. In clinical populations, the prevalence of any bipolar disorder in the non-ADHD group was estimated at 2.0% (31) to 19.5% (34), compared to 7.4% (28) to 80.0.% (24) in the ADHD group. There were no differences reported in the prevalence of mood disorders between ADHD and non-ADHD groups in the incarcerated population studies. Detailed information from each study is summarized in Table 1.

## Prevalence of anxiety and related disorders

Sixteen studies provided data comparing the prevalence of anxiety disorders including obsessive-compulsive disorder, somatoform disorders and trauma/stress-related disorders between ADHD patients and non-ADHD individuals (12, 16, 25, 28-30, 32, 33, 35-37, 39-43). In general population, the prevalence of any anxiety disorders in the non-ADHD group was estimated at 0.5% (33) to 9.5% (30) compared to 4.3% (33) to 47.1% (30) in ADHD group. In clinical populations, the prevalence of any anxiety disorders in the non-ADHD group was estimated at 5.4% (40) to 40% (43) compared to 3.9% (28) to 84% (43) in the ADHD group. Only one study of incarcerated populations showed a difference in the prevalence of social phobia between non-ADHD and ADHD individuals (41). Detailed information from each study

is summarized in Table 2.

## Prevalence of substance use disorders and gambling disorder

Twenty-one studies provided data comparing the prevalence of substance use disorders (including addiction to alcohol, opioids, stimulants, cannabis, anxiolytics, and nicotine) and gambling disorders between ADHD and non-ADHD individuals (6, 12, 16, 23, 25-27, 29-36, 39, 41, 42, 44-46). In general populations, the prevalence of any substance use disorder in the non-ADHD group was estimated at 0% (6) to 16.6% (33) compared to 2.3% (29) to 41.2% (16) in the ADHD group. In clinical populations, the prevalence of any substance use disorder in the non-ADHD group was estimated to be 2.0% (39) to 72.2% (35) compared to 10.0% (42) to 82.9% (35) in the ADHD group. Two studies compared the prevalence of gambling disorder between ADHD and non-ADHD patients, and there was one study for each general/psychiatric population group, showing a statistically significant difference in prevalence (31, 33). Two studies of incarcerated populations showed differences in the prevalence of benzodiazepine use disorder (41) and drug dependence (23). Detailed information from each study is summarized in Table 3.

# Prevalence of personality disorders

Twelve studies provided data comparing the prevalence of personality disorders (including borderline personality disorder and antisocial personality disorder) between ADHD and non-ADHD individuals (12, 16, 23, 27, 28, 32, 35-38, 41, 47). In general populations, the prevalence of any personality disorders in the non-ADHD group was estimated at 0% (36) to 3.9% (16) compared to 0.31% (36) to 33.8% (16) in the ADHD group. In clinical populations, the prevalence of any personality disorder in the non-ADHD group was estimated at 6.6% (27)

to 34.4% (12) compared to 21.9% (28) to 65.95 % (12) in the ADHD group. Two studies of incarcerated populations showed differences in the prevalence of borderline personality disorder and antisocial personality disorder. The prevalence of antisocial personality disorder was higher in the ADHD group in both studies (23, 41), and the prevalence of borderline personality disorder was higher in one study (41). Detailed information from each study is summarized in Table 4.

Author, year,	N	Age	Assessment	Assessment	Design	Sample	Prev.of ADHD(%)	Findings comparing non-ADHD and	Comment
country	(Male; %)		of ADHD	of			(non-	ADHD and prevalence of comorbid	
				comorbid			ADHD/ADHD)	psychiatric disorders	
				psychiatric				non-ADHD, n (%) vs ADHD, n (%)	
				disorder					
General sampl	e								
Solberg et	1,701,206	18≤	ADHD	ICD-10	Cross-sectional	General	2.4%	Bipolar Disorder	
al ,2018,	(871,330;		medication		study	sample	(40,103/1,661,103)	Women 13,183 (1.6%) vs 2,290	
Norway (37)	51.2%)		at adult or					(12.9%)	
			ADHD					Men 9,009 (1.1%) vs 1,981 (8.9%)	
			diagnosis					Major depressive disorder	
			registered					Women 61,880 (7.6%) vs 5,138	
								(28.8%)	
								Men 33,733 (4.0%) vs 4,516 (20.3%)	
Chen et al,	5,551,807	18-64	ICD-9: 314;	ICD	Cross-sectional	General	1.1%	Depression	
2018,	(2,820,859 ;		ICD-10: F90		study	sample	(61,129/5,490,678)	PR = 9.01 (8.92–9.10)	
Norway (25)	50.81%)		diagnosis				( , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	Bipolar Disorder	
, ,	,							PR=19.96 (19.48–20.43)	
Hesson and	16,957	20-64	Self-report	WHO-CIDI	Case-control	General	2.9%	12-month	
Fowler, 2018,			of ADHD	modified	study	sample	(NA)	Major depressive disorder	
Canada (29)			(diagnosed	for the		-national	( ,	61 (12.5%) vs 113 (23.3%) $\chi$ 2 = 59.94	
, ,			by a health	needs of		mental		Bipolar disorder I 1 (0.2%) vs 20	
			professional)	CCHS-MH		health		(4.1%) $\chi$ 2 = 17.73	
			,			survey			
Yoshimasu et	5,718	Mean age	childhood-	M.I.N.I	Case-control	General	NA, (68/335)	Hypomanic episode - current or past	
al, 2016, US		ADHD 30.2	identified		study	population		12 (3.6%) vs 24 (35.3%) OR adj 16.5	
(16)		(SD 1.9)	ADHD with			–Birth		[7.2, 37.4]	

		Non-ADHD controls 30.2 (SD 2.0)	M.I.N.I (+)			cohort sample		Dysthymia 4 (1.2%) vs 11 (16.2%) OR adj 19.0 [5.4, 66.1] MDD 9 (2.7%) vs 19 (27.9%) OR adj 15.2 [6.2, 37.4]
Park et al, 2011, South Korea (33)	6,081 ADHD+ 59.4% ADHD- 50.5%	18-59	ASRS-S v 1.1 (+)	K-CIDI (Korean Ver. of CIDI)	Epidemiological study	General sample	1.1% (69/6,012)	Any mood disorder 6.0% vs 27.1% OR 6.44 [3.70–11.19] Major depressive disorder 5.5% vs 17.4% OR=4.00[2.10–7.63] Bipolar disorder 0.2% vs 8.6% OR 29.94 [10.71–83.66]
Miller et al, 2007, US (32)	363 (185; 51.0%)	18-37	K–SADS & structured interview	SCID-I, SCID-II	Case-control study	General sample - Recruited ADHD vs control group	NA, (152/211)	Mood disorder NA, χ2= 23.70
Sobanski et al, 2007, Germany (6)	140 (76; 54.3%)	Mean age ADHD+ 36.8 (SD 9.0) ADHD- 39.8 (SD 10.0)	WURS-K & BADDS	SCID-I	Case-control study	General sample -referred ADHD vs control group	NA, (70/70)	Affective disorders total 18 (25.7%) vs 44 (60.7%) χ2= 18.462 Major depressive episodes 17 (24.3%) vs 40 (55%) χ2= 15.010
Kessler et al, 2006, US (30)	3,199	18-44	DIS-IV for childhood	CIDI	Epidemiological study	General sample	2.6% (NA)	Major depressive disorder 7.8%vs 8.6% 4.2 OR 2.7[1.5–4.9]

Secnik, 2005, US (36)	4,504 (2,896;	18≤	pathology & ACDS v 1.2 (ADHD- RS)	ICD-9	Case-control study	<ul><li>national survey</li><li>General sample –</li></ul>	(2,252/2,252)	Dysthymia 1.9% vs 12.8% OR 7.5 [3.8–15] Bipolar 3.1% vs 19.4% OR 7.5 [4.6–12.0] Any mood disorder 11.1% vs 38.3% OR 5.0 [3.0–8.2]  Bipolar disorder 0.58% vs 4.48% Depression 2.93% vs 17.10%
	64.3%)					HPM database		
Clinical sample								
Woon and Zakaria, 2019, Malaysia (39)	120 (133; 94.2%)	18-65	CAADID	M.I.N.I	Cross-sectional study	Psychiatric sample	15.8% (101/19)	Manic/hypomanic episode, lifetime 8 (7.9%) vs 8 (42.1%)
Roncero et al, 2019, Spain (35)	726 (Male 72.5%)	18≤	ASRS (14≤)	DSM-IV-TR	Cross-sectional study	Psychiatric sample – treatment seeking AUD patients	21.1% (573/153)	Mood disorder 24.5% vs 49% χ² = 32.87, OR 2.95 [2.2, 4.3]
Leung and Chan, 2017, Hong Kong (31)	254 (28.7%)	18-64	ASRS-v1.1 Symptom Checklist≥17 & SDS ≥5 (Screening) + DIVA 2.0 (Diagnosis)	DSM-5	Cross-sectional cohort study	Psychiatric sample – clinical outpatients	19.3% (49/205)	ADHD-combined type vs Non-ADHD Bipolar disorder 2.0% vs 15.0% OR = 8.87 (1.83-42.9)
Gorlin et al,	1,134	Mean age	DSM-IV	SCID	Cross-sectional	Psychiatric	18.0%	Major depressive disorder

2016, US (28)	(476; 42%)	39.7 (SD	based semi-		study	sample -	(204/903)	39.6% vs 29.4% OR=0. 69 (.4996)	
		14.4)	structured			clinical		Bipolar disorder	
			clinical			outpatients		3.4% vs 7.4% OR=2.14 (1.09-4.02)	
			interview						
Fatséas et al,	217	Mean age	CAADID	DSM-IV for	Cross-sectional	Psychiatric	23.0%	Current mood disorders	
2016, France	(66.4%)	37.7		SUD	cohort study	sample –	(50/167)	36.8% vs 54.0% 0.030	
(27)		(SD 10.6)		SCIDII for		addiction			
				BPD		clinical			
				M.I.N.I. for		outpatients			
				others					
van	1,205	18–65	CAADID	MINI Plus	Cross-sectional	Psychiatric	13.9%	Current Depression - alcohol	ISAP-
Emmerik-van	(ADHD –			SCID-II	study	sample -	(168/1,037)	15.3% vs 39.7% OR 4.1 [2.1–7.8]	International
Oortmerssen	73.1%					treatment-		Current (hypo)mania	ADHD in
et al, 2014,	male,					seeking		4.1% vs 14.9% OR 4.3 [2.1–8.7]	Substance
Australia,	ADHD +					SUD			use disorder
Belgium,	75.6 male)					patients			Prevalence
France,									
Hungary,									
Netherlands,									
Norway,									
Spain,									
Sweden,									
Switzerland,									
US (IASP									
study) (38)									
Duran et al,	246	Mean age	WURS score	SCID-I-CV,	Cross-sectional	Psychiatric	15.9%	Dysthymic Disorder	
2014, Turkey		ADHD+	>36 &	SCID-II	study	sample	(39/207)	12 (5.8%) vs 6 (15.4%) $\chi$ 2 = 25.81	
(26)		27.38 ± 8.3	Turgay's			- clinical			
		ADHD –	Adult			outpatients			
		30.97 ± 8.6	ADD/ADHD						

			Evaluation Scale					
Perugi et al,	96	Mean age	ASRS v 1.1	DSM-IV	Cross-sectional	Psychiatric	19.8%	BD I mixed state
2013, Italy	(57; 59.4%)	ADHD+	(+), & prior		observation	sample -	(19/77)	14 (18.2%) vs 10 (52.6%) χ2= 9.6
(34)		38.5 (SD	age 7 with		study	Bipolar I, II		BD I mania 13
		13.5)	ADHD sx			disorder		(16.9%) vs 0 (0%) χ2= 3.7
		ADHD-				diagnosed		BD I remission 15 (19.5%) vs 0 (0%)
		43.2 (SD						χ2= 0.1
		13.4)						
Ceraudo et	119	Mean age	ASRS-S v 1.1	DCTC	Cross-sectional	Psychiatric	18.35%	Bipolar Disorder
al, 2012, Italy	(81; 68.1%)	ADHD+	(+)	(Diagnostic,	study	sample	(20/89)	38 (43.2%) vs 16 (80.0%) χ2= 8.84
(25)		35.10 (SD		Clinical and		_		Mixed/Manic
		7.66)		Therapeutic		SUD		15 (16.9%) vs 8 (40.0%) χ2= 3.29
		ADHD-		Checklist)		outpatients		
		34.74 (SD						
		8.46)						

OR: Odd Ratio, PR: Prevalence Ratio, NA: Not available (not identified in article)

SUD: Substance Use Disorder, AUD: Alcohol use disorder, BPD: Borderline Personality Disorder BD I: Bipolar I disorder

WHO-CIDI: World Health Organization version of the Composite International Diagnostic Interview, CCHS-MH: Community Health Survey—Mental Health, M.I.N.I: Mini-International Neuropsychiatric Interview, ASRS-S: Adult Self-Report Scale-Screener, ASRS: Adult Self-Report Scale, CIDI: Composite International Diagnostic Interview, K-SADS: Kiddie Schedule for Affective Disorders and Schizophrenia, SCID: Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-IV, SCID-I: Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-IV Axis I Disorders, SCID-I-CV: Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-IV Axis I Disorders, WURS: Wender Utah Rating Scale, WURS-k: German short form of the Wender Utah rating scale, BADDS: Brown attention deficit disorder scale, DIS-IV: Diagnostic Interview Schedule for DSM-IV, ACDS: Adult ADHD Clinical Diagnostic Scale, ASHD-RS: ADHD Rating Scale, CAADID: Conner's Adult ADHD Diagnostic Interview for DSM-IV

Table 2. Studie	es comparing	the prevalenc	e of anxiety and re	elated disorder	between non-ADF	ID and ADHD	subjects		
Author, year,	N	Age	Assessment	Assessment	Design	Sample	Prev.of ADHD(%)	Findings comparing non-	Comment
country	(Male; %)		of ADHD	of comorbid			(non-	ADHD and ADHD and	
				psychiatric			ADHD/ADHD)	prevalence of comorbid	
				disorder				psychiatric disorders	
								non-ADHD, n (%) vs ADHD, n	
								(%)	
General sample	9	·				·	•		
Solberg et al,	1,701,206	18≤	ADHD	ICD-10	Cross-sectional	General	2.4%	Anxiety Disorders	
2018, Norway	(871,330;		medication at		study	sample	(40,103/1,661,103)	Women 54,479 (6.7%) vs	
(37)	51.2%)		adult or					4,676 (26.3%)	
			ADHD					Men 28,364 (3.3%) vs 4,054	
			diagnosis					(18.2%)	
			registered						
Chen et al,	5,551,807	18-64	ICD-9: 314;	ICD	cross-sectional	General	1.1%	Anxiety	
2018, Norway	(2,820,859;		ICD-10: F90		study	sample	(61,129/5,490,678)	PR= 9.12 (9.04-9.21)	
(25)	50.81%)		diagnosis						
Hesson and	16,957	20-64	Self-report of	WHO-CIDI	Case-control	General	2.9%	Generalized anxiety disorder	
Fowler, 2018,			ADHD	modified for	study	sample	(NA)	15 (3.1%) vs 73 (15.1%) χ2 =	

Canada (29)			(diagnosed	the needs of		-national		42.30
			by a health	CCHS-MH		mental		
			professional)			health		
						survey		
Yoshimasu et	5,718	Mean age	childhood-	M.I.N.I.	Case-control	General	NA,	PTSD
al, 2016, US		ADHD 30.2	identified		study	population	(68/335)	3 (0.9%) vs 6 (8.8%)
(16)		(SD 1.9)	ADHD with			_		OR adj. 10.0 [2.9, 35.0]
		Non-ADHD	M.I.N.I (+)			Birth cohort		Social phobia-current
		controls				sample		4 (1.2%) vs 10 (14.7%)
		30.2 (SD 2.0)						OR adj 12.8 [4.2, 39.4]
								OCD 8 (2.4%) vs 14 (20.6%)
								OR adj 8.0 [3.3, 19.2]
								Generalized anxiety disorder
								30 (9.0%) vs 22 (32.4%) OR
								adj 4.7 [2.4, 9.0]
								Panic disorder – lifetime
								17 (5.1) vs 9 (13.2) OR adj
								2.6 [1.1, 6.2]
Park et al,	6,081	18-59	ASRS-S v 1.1	K-CIDI	Epidemiological	General	1.1%	Any anxiety disorder
2011, South	ADHD+		(+)	(Korean Ver.	study	sample	(69/6,012)	6.3% vs 25.7%
Korea (33)	59.4%			of CIDI)				OR 5.46 [3.11–9.57]
	ADHD-							OCD
	50.5%							0.6% vs 4.3%
								OR 8.26 [2.51–27.26]
								PTSD
								1.2% vs 7.2%
								OR 8.13[3.26–20.32]
								Social phobia
								0.5% vs 11.4%
								OR 7.57[ 1.92–29.83]

								Specific phobia 3.9% vs 11.4% OR 3.31 [1.52–7.18] Somatoform disorder 1.1% vs 4.3%
								OR 4.30 [1.22–15.12]
Miller et al, 2007, US (32)	363 (185, 51.0%)	18-37	K–SADS & structured interview	SCID-I, SCID-II	Case-control study	General sample- Recruited ADHD vs control group	NA, (152/211)	Anxiety disorder χ2= 8.81
Kessler et al, 2006, US (30)	3,199	18-44	DIS-IV for childhood pathology & ACDS v 1.2 (ADHD-RS)	CIDI	Epidemiologic study	General sample – national survey	2.6% (NA)	GAD 2.6% vs 8.0%  OR 3.2 [1.5–6.9]  PTSD 3.3% vs 11.9%  OR 3.9 [2.1–7.3]  Panic disorder 3.1% vs 8.9%  OR 3.0 [1.6–75.9]  Agoraphobia 0.7% vs 4.0%  OR 5.5 [1.6-18.5]  Specific phobia 9.5% vs 22.7%  OR 2.8 [1.7-4.6]  Social Phobia  7.8% vs 29.3% OR 4.9 [3.1-7.6]  Any anxiety disorder 19.5% vs

Secnik, 2005, US (36)	4,504 (2,896; 64.3%)	18≤	ICD-9	ICD-9	Case-control study	General sample – HPM database	NA (2,252/2,252)	Anxiety disorder 3.46% vs 13.77%	HPM : Health and Productivity Management
Clinical sample	I.	I		I	I		I		
El Ayoubi et	551	18≤	Both ASRS-S	PCL-5 for	Cross-sectional	Psychiatric	19.8%	PTSD	
al, 2020,	(462, 83.8%)		v1.1(+) and	PTSD	study	inpatients	(442/109)	179 (40%) vs 91 (84%) $\chi^2$ =	
France (43)			WURS (26≤)			with AUD		64.7	
Woon and	120	18-65	CAADID	M.I.N.I	Cross-sectional	Psychiatric	15.8%	Generalized anxiety disorder	
Zakaria, 2019,	(133, 94.2%)				study	sample -	(101/19)	20 (19.8%) vs 9 (47.4%)	
Malaysia (39)						Forensic			
						ward			
						inpatient			
Roncero et al,	726	18≤	ASRS (14≤)	DSM-IV-TR	Cross-sectional	Psychiatric	21.1%	Anxiety disorder	
2019, Spain	(Male				study	patients –	(573/153)	$10.5\% \text{ vs } 25.8\% \chi^2 = 23.5$	
(35)	72.5%)					treatment		OR 2.95 [1.88, 4.64]	
						seeking			
						AUD			
						patients			
Reyes et al,	472	18-80	PRISM	PRISM	Cross-sectional	Psychiatric	6.36%	Anxiety disorders, current	
2019, US (42)	(305, 64.6%)				study	sample –	(30/442)	95 (21.5%) vs 14 (46.7%)	
						inpatient &			
						outpatient			

Australia (41)			(+)	SCID-II				
2016,	(76%)		M.I.N.I plus	PDQ-4,	study	sample	(15/73)	OR=4.39 [1.10, 17.56]
Moore et al,	88	18-72	ASRS-S (+) &	M.I.N.I plus,	Cross-sectional	Incarcerated	17.0%	Social phobia 15.1% vs 46.7%
Incarcerated sa	mple							
			WURS			diagnosed		
			Inventory &			disorder		3 (5.4%) vs 5 (23.8%)
Turkey (40)			Evaluation			Bipolar		Panic disorder
al, 2013,	(48, 53.3%)		ADD/ADHD		study	sample-	(21/69)	6 (10.7%) vs 4 (19.0%)
Karaahmet et	90	18 ≤	Turgay's Adult	SCID-I	Cross-sectional	Psychiatric	23.3%	OCD
						to ICD-10		3.70
Germany (12)			30			according	ADIID/122)	5.70
Germany (12)	(141,00.3%)	40.2 (30 5	30		study	GD dx	ADHD/122)	14 (8.6%) vs 7 (17.1%) χ2 =
2016,	(141,86.5%)	40.2 (SD 9		ICD-10	study	sample –	(41-current	disorders
Retz et al,	163	Mean	age DSM-5 &	ICD-10	Cross-sectional	Psychiatric	25.2%	Stress and adjustment
			interview					OR = 0.41 (0.18–0.82)
			clinical			outpatient		9.4% vs 3.9%
		14.4)	structured			clinical		Any adjustment disorder
2016, US (28)	(476, 42%)	39.7	(SD based semi-		study	sample-	(204/903)	OR=1.46 (1.05–2.01)
Gorlin et al,	1,134	Mean	age DSM-IV	SCID	Cross-sectional	Psychiatric	18.0%	Social phobia 28.7% vs 38.2%
						diagnosis		
						IV-TR AUD		
						with DSM-		

OR: Odd Ratio, NA: Not available (not identified in article)

PTSD: Post-traumatic stress disorder, OCD: Obsessive-compulsive disorder, GAD: Generalized anxiety disorder, AUD: Alcohol used disorder, GD: Gambling disorder

WHO-CIDI: World Health Organization version of the Composite International Diagnostic Interview, CCHS-MH: Community Health Survey—Mental Health, M.I.N.I: Mini-International Neuropsychiatric Interview, ASRS-S: Adult Self-Report Scale-Screener, ASRS: Adult Self-Report Scale, CIDI: Composite International Diagnostic Interview, K-SADS: Kiddie Schedule for Affective Disorders and Schizophrenia, SCID-I: Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-IV Axis I Disorders, SCID-II: Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-IV Axis II Disorders, WURS: Wender Utah Rating Scale, WURS-k: German short form of the Wender Utah rating scale, PRISM: Psychiatric research interview for substance and mental disorders, PDQ-4: Personality disorder diagnostic questionnaire for the DSM-IV

Author, year,	N	Age	Assessment	Assessment	Design	Sample	Prev.of ADHD(%)	Findings comparing non- Comment
country	(Male; %)		of ADHD	of comorbid			(non-	ADHD and ADHD and
				psychiatric			ADHD/ADHD)	prevalence of comorbid
				disorder				psychiatric disorders
								non-ADHD, n (%) vs ADHD, n
								(%)
General sample								
Cipollone et	18,913	Mean age	ASRS-S (+)	CIDI & CIDI-	Cross -sectional	General	6.6%	Previous 30-days SUD
al, 2020, US	(16,696;	28.72 in non-		SAM	study (All army	sample –	(17,674/1,239)	diagnosis
(45)	88.3%)	ADHD, 28.56			study)	Military		714 (4.04%) vs 211 (17.03%)
		in ADHD				sample		$\chi^2 = 515.36$
								Lifetime SUD diagnosis
								2,639 (14.93%) vs 503 (40.60%)
								$\chi^2 = 780.16$
								Alcohol use (type 2 - Five or
								more drinks per day- heavy
								drinking )
								2,064 (12.04%) vs 305 (25.10%)
								$\chi^2 = 172.07$
Capusan et al,	18,167	20-45	DSM-IV	SCID-I	Population-	General	8.8%	Alcohol abuse
2019, Sweden	(7,281;		criteria		based	population-	(1,598/16,569)	OR = 1.88 [1.44, 2.46]
(44)	40.08%)				epidemiological	Swedish		Alcohol dependence
					study	Twin		OR = 3.58 [2.86, 4.49]
						Registry		Stimulants
								OR = 2.45 [1.79, 3.35]
								Opiates

								OR = 1.97 [1.65, 2.36] Cannabis OR = 2.19 [1.80, 2.68] Illicit drug use OR = 2.27 [1.86, 2.76] Poly-substance use OR = 2.54[2.00, 3.23] Poly-substance use including alcohol OR = 2.78 [2.21, 3.50]
Chen et al,	5,551,807	18-64	ICD-9: 314;	ICD	cross-sectional	General	1.1%	SUD
2018, Norway	(2,820,859;		ICD-10: F90		study	sample	(61,129/5,490,678)	PR= 9.74 (9.62–9.86)
(25)	50.81%)		diagnosis					
Hesson and	16,957	20-64	Self-report of	WHO-CIDI	Case-control	General	2.9%	12-month
Fowler, 2018,			ADHD	modified for	study	sample	(NA)	Alcohol dependence
Canada (29)			(diagnosed	the needs of		-national		8 (1.7%) vs 27 (5.6%) χ2 =
			by a health	CCHS-MH		mental		10.83 .001
			professional)			health		Cannabis abuse
						survey		$3 (0.6\%) \text{ vs } 13 (2.7\%) \chi 2 =$
								6.376 .012
								Cannabis dependence
								3 (0.6%) vs 11 (2.3%) χ2 =
								4.605 .032
								Other drug dependence
								3 (0.6%) vs 17 (3.5%) χ2 =
								10.01 .002
Yoshimasu et	5,718	Mean age	childhood-	M.I.N.I.	Case-control	General	NA, (68/335)	Alcohol dependence/abuse 51
al, 2016, US		ADHD 30.2	identified		study	population		(15.2%) vs 28 (41.2%) OR adj
(16)		(SD 1.9)	ADHD with			-		3.6 [2.0, 6.7]

		Non-ADHD controls 30.2 (SD 2.0)	M.I.N.I (+)			Birth cohort sample		Substance dependence/abuse 22 (6.6%) vs 18 (26.5%) OR adj 4.4 [2.1, 9.1]
Park et al, 2011, South Korea (33)	6,081 ADHD+ 59.4% ADHD- 50.5%	18-59	ASRS-S v 1.1 (+)	K-CIDI (Korean Ver. Of CIDI)	Epidemiological study	General sample	1.1% (69/6,012)	Alcohol abuse/dependence 16.6% vs 30.4% OR 1.97 [1.14– 3.38] Nicotine dependence 7.7% vs 20.3% OR 2.81 [1.50–5.29] Pathological gambling 0.7% vs 1.4% OR 8.43 [2.63–26.96]
Miller et al, 2007, US (32)	363 (185, 51.0%)	18-37	K–SADS & structured interview	SCID-I, SCID-II	Case-control study	General sample-Recruited ADHD vs control group	NA, (152/211)	Any ADHD SUD χ2= 9.22
Sobanski et al, 2007, Germany (6)	140 (76, 54.3%)	Mean age ADHD+ 36.8 (SD 9.0) ADHD- 39.8 (SD 10.0)	WURS-K & BADDS	SCID-I	Case-control study	General sample -referred ADHD vs control group	NA, (70/70)	Substance related disorders total 5 (7.1%) vs 21 (30.0%) $\chi$ 2= 12.397 Substances total 2 (2.9%) vs 20 (28.5%) $\chi$ 2= 17.806 Substance abuse 2 (2.9%) vs 12 (17.1%) $\chi$ 2= 8.104 Substance dependence 0 (0%) vs 8 (11.4%) $\chi$ 2= 8.612

Kessler et al, 2006, US (30)	3,199	18-44	DIS-IV for childhood pathology & ACDS v 1.2 (ADHD-RS)	CIDI	Epidemiologic study	General sample – national survey	2.6% (NA)	Drug dependence 0.1% vs 4.4% OR 7.9 [2.3–27.3] Any substance disorder 5.6 % vs 15.2% OR 3.0 [1.4–6.5]	
Secnik, 2005, US (36)	4,504 (2,896; 64.3%)	18≤	ICD-9	ICD-9	Case-control study	General sample – HPM database	NA, (2,252/2,252)	Drug or alcohol abuse 1.87% vs 5.11%	HPM : Health and Productivity Management
Clinical sample									
Valsecchi et	590	18-70	ASRS-S v1.1	M.I.N.I Plus	cross-sectional	Psychiatric	5.12%	Substance abuse, lifetime	
al, 2021, Italy (46)	(299, 47.2%)		(+) and DIVA 2.0 both(+)		observational study	outpatients	(590/44)	15.1% vs 29.6% $\chi$ 2 = 6.34 Substance abuse, actual Present 6.6% vs 25.0% $\chi$ 2 = 19.06 Substance use, lifetime 30.5% vs 54.6% $\chi$ 2 = 10.84 .001 Substance use, actual 8.3% vs 29.6% $\chi$ 2 = 20.93 .000	
Woon and	120	18-65	CAADID	M.I.N.I	Cross-sectional	Psychiatric	15.8%	Alcohol abuse 2 (2.0%) vs 3	

Zakaria, 2019, Malaysia (39)	(133, 94.2%)				study	sample - Forensic ward inpatient	(101/19)	(15.8%) 0.028
Roncero et al, 2019, Spain (35)	726 (Male 72.5%)	18≤	ASRS (14≤)	DSM-IV-TR	Cross-sectional study	Psychiatric patients – treatment seeking AUD patients	21.1% (573/153)	Cannabis dependence 18% vs $30.9\% \ \chi^2 = 12.3 \ \text{OR} \ 2.04 \ [1.36, 3.06]$ Cocaine dependence 24.6% vs $53.3\% \ \chi^2 = 46.5 \ \text{OR} \ 3.5 \ [2.41, 5.07]$ Smoking dependence 72.2% vs $82.9\% \ \chi^2 = 6.9 \ \text{OR} \ 1.86$ [1.16, 2.98]
Reyes et al, 2019, US (42)	472 (305, 64.6%)	18-80	PRISM	PRISM	Cross-sectional study	Psychiatric sample – inpatient & outpatient with DSM-IV-TR AUD diagnosis	6.36% (30/442)	Cannabis abuse, Current 41 (9.3%) vs 8 (26.7%) Amphetamine abuse, current 17 (3.9%) vs 4 (13.3%) Opioid abuse, current 9 (2.0%) vs 3 (10.0%)
Leung and Chan, 2017, Hong Kong (31)	254 (28.7%)	18-64	ASRS-v1.1 ≥17 & SDS ≥5(Screening) + DIVA 2.0 (Diagnosis)	DSM-5	cross-sectional cohort study	Psychiatric sample – clinical outpatients	19.3% (49/205)	Chronic alcohol use (2.4% vs 8.2%) Problematic gambling (1% vs 2%) Active substance use (3.9% vs. 8.2%)
Retz et al, 2016,	163 (141,86.5%)	Mean age 40.2 (SD 9.4)	DSM-5 & WURS-k ≥	ICD-10	Cross-sectional study	Psychiatric sample –	25.2% (41-current	Substance use disorders 4'50 (30.7%) vs 19 (46.3%) χ2

Germany (12)			30			GD dx according to ICD-10	ADHD/122)	= 6.50
Fatséas et al, 2016, France (27)	217 (66.4%)	Mean age 37.7 (SD 10.6)	CAADID	DSM-IV for SUD SCID-II for BPD M.I.N.I for others	Cross-sectional cohort study	Psychiatric sample – addiction outpatient clinic	23.0% (50/167)	Cannabis dependence 25.9% vs 58.0%
Duran et al, 2014, Turkey (26)	246	Mean age ADHD+ 27.38 ± 8.3 ADHD – 30.97 ± 8.6	WURS score >36 & Turgay's Adult ADD/ADHD Evaluation Scale	SCID-I-CV, SCID-II	Cross-sectional study	Psychiatric sample - outpatient visit patient	15.9% (39/207)	Other Substance Abuse 12 (5.8%) vs 7 (18.0%) χ2 = 28.81
Perugi et al, 2013, Italy (34)	96 (57, 59.4%)	Mean age ADHD+ 38.5 (SD 13.5) ADHD- 43.2 (SD 13.4)	ASRS v 1.1 (+), & prior age 7 with ADHD sx	DSM-IV	Cross-sectional observation study	Psychiatric sample- Bipolar I, II disorder diagnosed	19.8% (19/77)	Alcohol 7 (9.1%) vs 5 (26.3%) $\chi$ 2= 4.1 Substance use disorder 14 (18.2%) vs 8 (42.1%) $\chi$ 2= 7.1
Incarcerated sa	mple					·		
Moore et al, 2016, Australia (41)	88 (76%)	18-72	ASRS-S (+) & M.I.N.I plus (+)	M.I.N.I plus, PDQ-4, SCID-II	Cross-sectional study	Incarcerated sample	17.0% (15/73)	Benzodiazepine dependence (lifetime) 13.7% vs 53.3 OR = 5.30 ([1.30, 21.72])
Konstenius et al, 2015, Sweden (23)	96 (All Female)	Mean age 39.7	ASRS-S(+) & CAADID	M.I.N.I	Cross-sectional study	Incarcerated sample-only women	29% (16/40)	Drug dependence 58% vs 100%

OR: Odd Ratio, PR: Prevalence Ratio, NA: Not available (not identified in article)

SUD : Substance Use Disorder, AUD: Alcohol use disorder, GD : Gambling disorder

CIDI: Composite Interview for DSM-IV Axis I Disorders, WHO-CIDI: World Health Organization version of the Composite Interview, CIDI-Sam: CIDI-Substance Abuse Module, SCID-I: Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-IV Axis I Disorders, WHO-CIDI: World Health Organization version of the Composite Interview, M.I.N.I: Mini-International Neuropsychiatric Interview, CAADID: Conner's Adult ADHD Diagnostic Interview for DSM-IV, ASRS-S: Adult Self-Report Scale, BADDS: Brown attention deficit disorder scale, PRISM: Psychiatric research interview for substance and mental disorders SDS: Sheehan Disability Scale, DIVA: Diagnostic Interview for ADHD in Adults, WURS: Wender Utah Rating Scale, WURS-k: German short form of the Wender Utah rating scale, PDQ-4: Personality disorder diagnostic questionnaire for the DSM-IV, SCID-I-CV: Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-IV Axis I Disorders, Clinician Version

Author, year,	N	Age	Assessment	Assessment	Design	Sample	Prev.of ADHD(%)	Findings comparing non-	Comment
country	(Male; %)		of ADHD	of comorbid			(non-	ADHD and ADHD and	
				psychiatric			ADHD/ADHD)	prevalence of comorbid	
				disorder				psychiatric disorders	
								non-ADHD, n (%) vs ADHD, n	
								(%)	
General sample									
Solberg et al,	1,701,206	18≤	ADHD	ICD-10	Cross-sectional	General	2.4%	Personality disorder	
2018, Norway	(871,330;		medication at		study	sample	(40,103/1,661,103)	Women 14,079 (1.7%) vs 2,428	
(37)	51.2%)		adult or					(13.6%)	
			ADHD					Men 8909 (1.1%) vs 2030	
			diagnosis					(9.1%)	
			registere						
Yoshimasu et	5,718	Mean age	M.I.N.I.	M.I.N.I.	Case-control	General	NA, (68/335)	Antisocial personality disorder	
al, 2016, US		ADHD 30.2	childhood-		study	population		13 (3.9%) vs 23 (33.8%) OR	
(16)		(SD 1.9)	identified			_		adj 12.2 [5.3, 27.9]	
		Non-ADHD	ADHD with			Birth cohort			
		controls	M.I.N.I (+)			sample			
		30.2 (SD 2.0)							
Miller et al,	363	18-37	K–SADS &	SCID-I,	Case-control	General	NA, (152/211)	Any ADHD	
2007, US (32)	(185, 51.0%)		structured	SCID-II	study	sample-		ASPD	
			interview			Recruited		χ2= 7.32	
						ADHD vs			
						control			
						group			

Secnik, 2005, US (36)	4504 (2,896; 64.3%)	18≤		ICD-9	ICD-9	Case-control study	General sample – HPM database	NA, (2,252/2,252)	Antisocial disorder 0% vs 0.31% Oppositional disorder 0.04% vs 0.53%	HPM – Health and Productivity Management
Clinical sample	ı									
Sánchez- García et al, 2021, Puerto- rico, Hungary, Australia (47) Roncero et al, 2019, Spain (35)	402 (320, 79.6%) 726 (Male 72.5%)	18-65 18≤		CAADID  ASRS (14≤)	M.I.N.I Plus  DSM-IV-TR	Cross-sectional study  Cross-sectional study	Psychiatric inpatients & outpatients with SUD  Psychiatric patients – treatment seeking	35.75% (257/143) 21.1% (573/153)	ASPD 25.41% vs 53.90% OR 3.26 [2.09, 5.08] BPD 20.82% vs 57.45% OR 5.48 [3.40, 8.83] Any personality disorder 14.8% vs 37.4 % $\chi^2 = 38.17.0001 \text{ OR } 3.45 \text{ [2.29, 5.17]}$	
							AUD patients			
Gorlin et al, 2016, US (28)	1,134 (476; 42%)	Mean 39.7 14.4)	age (SD	DSM-IV based semi- structured clinical interview	SCID	Cross-sectional study	Psychiatric sample- clinical outpatient	18.0% (204/903)	Borderline personality disorder 7.6% vs 21.9% OR = 3.11 (2.02–4.76)	
Retz et al,	163	Mean	age	DSM-5 &	ICD-10	Cross-sectional	Psychiatric	25.2%	Personality disorders	

2016, Germany (12) Fatséas et al, 2016, France (27)	(141; 86.5%) 217 (66.4%)	40.2 (SD 9.4)  Mean age 37.7 (SD 10.6)	WURS-k ≥ 30  CAADID	DSM-IV for SUD SCID-II for BPD M.I.N.I for others	study  Cross-sectional cohort study	sample – GD dx according to ICD-10  Psychiatric sample – addiction outpatient clinic	(41-current ADHD/122) 23.0% (50/167)	56 (34.4%) vs 27 (65.9%) χ2 = 26.84  Cluster B  11 (6.7 %) vs 7 (17.1 %) χ2 = 30.49  Antisocial personality disorder 6.6% vs 26.0%  Borderline personality disorder 13.0% vs 34.7%	
van Emmerikvan Oortmerssen et al, 2014, Australia, Belgium, France, Hungary, Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, US (IASP study) (38)	1,205 (ADHD – 73.1% male, ADHD + 75.6 male)	18–65	CAADID	M.I.N.I Plus SCID-II	Cross-sectional study	Psychiatric sample-treatment-seeking SUD patients	13.9% (168/1,037)	ASPD 17.0% vs 51.8% OR 2.8 [1.8–4.2] BPD -alcohol 8.2% vs 34.5% OR 7.0 [3.1–15.6] -drugs 16.7% vs 29.0% OR 3.4 [1.8–6.4]	ISAP- International ADHD in Substance use disorder Prevalence
Incarcerated sa	mple								
Moore et al 2016, Australia (41)	88 (76%)	18-72	ASRS-S (+) & MINI plus (+)	M.I.N.I plus, PDQ-4, SCID-II	Cross-sectional study	Incarcerated sample	17.0% (15/73)	BPD 13.7% vs 60.0% OR =7.34 ([1.72, 31.37])	

											ASPD 27.4% vs 93.3% OR =26.00 ([2.58, 262.30])	
Konste	nius et	96	Mean	age	ASRS-S	(+)	M.I.N.I	Cross-sectional	Incarcerated	29%	ASPD 30% vs 81%	
al,	2015,	(All Female)	39.7		& CAADIE	)		study	sample-	(16/40)		
Sweder	n (23)								only women			

OR: Odd Ratio, NA: Not available (not identified in article)

SUD: Substance Use Disorder, AUD: Alcohol use disorder, GD: Gambling disorder BPD: Borderline Personality Disorder, ASPD: Antisocial personality disorder

SCID: Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-IV, M.I.N.I: Mini-International Neuropsychiatric Interview, ASRS-S: Adult Self-Report Scale-Screener, ASRS: Adult Self-Report Scale, CAADID: Conner's Adult ADHD Diagnostic Interview for DSM-IV, WURS-k: German short form of the Wender Utah rating scale, , K-SADS: Kiddie Schedule for Affective Disorders and Schizophrenia,

PDQ-4: Personality disorder diagnostic questionnaire for the DSM-IV

## **Discussion**

In our systematic review, we included 30 studies conducted over 15 years dealing with the prevalence of psychiatric comorbidities between adults with and without ADHD. To our knowledge, this is the first systematic review comparing the prevalence of comprehensive comorbid psychiatric disorders between adults with and without ADHD and including both general and clinical populations.

In this review, 12 diagnostic tools including clinical diagnostic criteria like DSM or ICD(International Classification of Disease), were used to evaluate adult ADHD. In addition, five diagnostic tools were mainly used for comorbid psychiatric disorders. The most used evaluation tool for adult ADHD was Adult ADHD Self-Report Scale (ASRS) (48, 49), which was used in 11 studies. Five studies used the ASRS alone to evaluate ADHD in adults, and in the rest of the studies, more than one tool was used together to evaluate ADHD. The next most frequently used evaluation tools were Conner's Adult ADHD Diagnostic Interview for DSM-IV(CAADID) (50) and the Wender Utah Rating Scale (WURS) (51). As a self-report scale, due to its simplicity and cost-effectiveness, ASRS might be preferred by the investigators testing subjects. However, variability in the evaluation tools for adult ADHD was observed and is thought to be due to the lack of established diagnostic criteria for ADHD in adults.

In addition, the prevalence of ADHD in adults varied from 1.1% (33) to 8.8% (44) in general population samples and from 5.12% (46) to 35.75% (47) in psychiatric population samples. A previous systematic review of ADHD prevalence in and adult psychiatric population shows a similar range, from 6.9% to 38.75% (52). In this previous study (52), the authors assumed that

this variety might be due to the diversity of diagnostic methods and the inclusion and exclusion criteria in the studies. Similarly, in our study, the aforementioned variability of diagnostic methodologies for ADHD might have affected this various range of prevalence. In a general population, the estimated mean prevalence rate of ADHD in adults was 2.8% in a previous study (15). Except in two studies included in our review, targeting special populations of army soldiers (45) and twins of Sweden (44), which had higher than estimated prevalence, the range of ADHD prevalence in the general population was 1.1% to 2.9% in our study, similar to that previously observed.

The most frequent comorbid psychiatric disorder in the ADHD group was SUD, ranging between 2.3% and 41.2% in the general population and between 10.0% and 82.9% in the clinical population; two of three studies showed significant prevalence difference between ADHD and non-ADHD subjects. This finding correlates with a previous meta-analysis that reported that almost one out of every four adolescent and adult patients with SUD presents with ADHD (53, 54), which supports SUD as one of the most frequent comorbid psychiatric conditions in adult ADHD. There are some theoretical opinions of shared key characteristics and pathophysiology between ADHD and SUD, like dopaminergic dysregulation of motivational and reward systems, or reduced frontal function including executive functions and response inhibition (55, 56). In addition, considering that childhood ADHD is a prominent risk factor for substance misuse and development of SUD due to the most frequent comorbidities in childhood ADHD, like conduct disorder or oppositional defiant disorder (57), untreated and preserved ADHD in adults might have influenced the cross-sectional difference of prevalence rate between ADHD and non-ADHD patients.

Mood disorders, including depressive disorders and bipolar disorders, were also frequently

observed comorbid psychiatric disorders in ADHD subjects compared to non-ADHD subjects. The estimated prevalence of depressive disorders in the ADHD group ranged from 8.6% to 55% in the general population and 15.4% to 39.7% in the clinical population. Also, the prevalence of bipolar disorder in the ADHD group was estimated at 4.45% to 35.3% in the general population at 7.4% to 80.8% in the clinical population. For depression, previous studies have also shown a higher prevalence of depressive disorders in young adults with ADHD compared to non-ADHD subjects as well as higher risk of suicidal behavior (58, 59). This can be explained by a previous cross-sectional study showing the association between ADHD symptoms and depressive symptoms in young adults as identified by low hedonic responsibility (60). In addition, according to biologic aspects of depression and ADHD, the two disorders might share similar pathophysiologic regions of the brain including decreased activity in the prefrontal (61, 62), amygdala, and hippocampus regions (63-65). Furthermore, 10 studies showed a higher prevalence of bipolar disorder, including current hypomania diagnosed by SCID-II, in ADHD subjects than in non-ADHD subjects. Considering that the worldwide prevalence rate of bipolar disorder is estimated as 1-3% (66, 67), which was similar to that of the non-ADHD general population in our study, the prevalence of bipolar disorder in the ADHD group was greater than 3% in all 10 studies. This finding correlated with previous studies reporting reciprocal high comorbidity rates between ADHD and bipolar disorder, which suggests possible shared genetic effects or diagnostic overlap between the two disorders (68). In anxiety disorder, almost two of three studies showed a higher prevalence in the ADHD group than the non-ADHD group. The prevalence rate in the ADHD group was estimated to rang e from 4.3% to 47.1% in the general population and from 3.9% to 84% in the clinical population. Only one study of a clinical population dealing with psychiatric outpatients in the US (28),

showed a higher prevalence of adjustment disorder in the non-ADHD group. These findings correlate with previous studies that revealed a high prevalence of anxiety in the adult ADHD population (69, 70). ADHD seems to show different characteristics from anxiety, namely fearlessness and impulsivity. Therefore, various theories have been suggested to explain this phenomenon using developmental or biologic aspects in children and adolescents (71). Similarly, in adults, as far as we know, the two disorders have been related to several common neuroanatomical regions like the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex or the anterior cingulate cortex, which are critically involved with the executive function control network (10). In addition, considering a previous study about increased risk of accidents in ADHD over the lifespan (72), traumatic events might have influenced the higher prevalence of anxiety disorders. From a developmental viewpoint, as in depressive disorders, this frequently higher prevalence of anxiety disorder might represent the social and relational difficulties induced by ADHD.

The estimated prevalence of personality disorders in the ADHD group was ranged from 0.31% to 33.8% in the general population and from 21.9% to 65.95% in the clinical population. Previous studies have reported that personality disorders, mostly cluster B or C personality disorders, are present in almost 50% of adults with ADHD (73). The association between ADHD and personality disorders might be mediated by the symptomatic dimensions of ADHD such as emotional dysregulation and oppositional symptoms (74). In our review, most studies showed a higher prevalence of cluster B personality disorders in ADHD than in non-ADHD groups. Specifically, in the clinical population, more than 20% of adult ADHD subjects were estimated to have comorbid cluster B personality disorder including borderline personality disorder and antisocial personality disorder. Additionally, most clinical population studies included patients diagnosed with substance use disorders, which correlates with previous

observational studies of young male adults with ADHD that revealed associations of antisocial personality disorder with ADHD (75).

## Limitations

There are several limiting factors in this review. As mentioned previously, there is significant heterogeneity across studies diagnosing both ADHD and comorbid psychiatric disorders. This prohibited meta-analysis. Furthermore, except for two international studies (38, 47), the included studies were conducted in high-income regions like Europe or North America. For this reason, selection bias may have occurred in our results of the prevalence of comorbid psychiatric disorders in adult ADHD. Considering a previous epidemiologic study investigating cross-national ADHD prevalence in adults (15), the prevalence differed by country income, so our findings might be limited. In addition, we did not differentiate patients according to ADHD or comorbid psychiatric disorder treatment status, which might also have affected the prevalence of comorbid psychiatric disorders. Of the included studies, most explored the prevalence cross-sectionally, so we could not infer a correlation or antecedent relationship between ADHD and comorbidities. Only limited estimates of the associations between ADHD and comorbidities can be provided by our review at the study level.

## **Conclusion**

In conclusion, our findings indicate a higher prevalence of comorbid psychiatric disorders in ADHD subjects compared to non-ADHD subjects, whether they were previously diagnosed with other psychiatric disorders or not. Furthermore, our results suggest a complex association between the multiple comorbidities of ADHD. Given that ADHD is often unrecognized and under-diagnosed in adults, screening for ADHD might be beneficial for patients presenting

multiple psychopathologies including substance abuse, mood disorders, and anxiety disorders.

In the future, research on standardization of ADHD diagnosis in adults and its comorbid

psychopathologies is required to clarify the aspects to treat and improve the quality of life and

the functional and psychosocial impairments of individuals with ADHD. In addition, research

on the neurobiological and developmental bases of ADHD and its comorbid psychiatric

disorders should continue to improve the understanding of the connectivity and associations

between various comorbid psychiatric disorders and ADHD in adults.

**Author Contributions** 

Conceptualization: WMB, YSW, Data Curation & Formal Analysis: WSC, YSW, Writing –

Original Draft Preparation: WSC, YSW, Writing - Review & Editing - SMW, HKL,

Supervision: WMB

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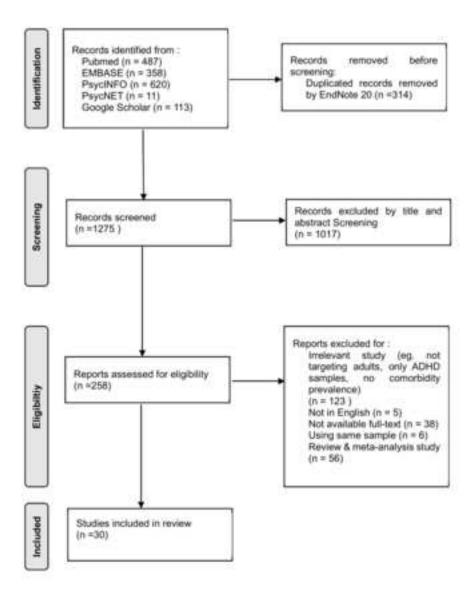
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## **Supporting information**

S1. Table. PRISMA checklist (DOC)

Fig 1. PRISMA flow diagram. Flow diagram of the manual screening process for eligible literature



Supporting Information

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