

The Age of Anxiety? It Depends Where You Look: Changes in STAI Trait Anxiety, 1970-2010

R. W. Booth<sup>a\*</sup>, D. Sharma<sup>b</sup>, and T. I. Leader<sup>c</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Department of Psychology, MEF University, Turkey

<sup>b</sup>School of Psychology, University of Kent, UK

<sup>c</sup>Georgia Gwinnett College, GA.

Published as:

Booth, R. W., Sharma, D., & Leader, T. I. (2016). The age of anxiety? It depends where you look: changes in STAI trait anxiety, 1970–2010. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology*, *51*, 193-202. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00127-015-1096-0>

\* Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Robert W. Booth, Department of Psychology, MEF Üniversitesi, Ayazağa Cad. No 4, 34396, Maslak - Sarıyer, İstanbul, Turkey. Tel: (+90) 212 395 3600 Fax: (+90) 212 395 3692 Email: [rob.booth.psych@gmail.com](mailto:rob.booth.psych@gmail.com)

### **Acknowledgements**

This work commenced while R. W. Booth was based at Işık University, İstanbul; it was supported by the British Academy (grant number SG091135) and Işık University (grant number 12A102). We are grateful to the British Library, and the librarians of Işık University and the University of Kent for their assistance.

### Abstract

**Purpose:** Population-level surveys suggest that anxiety has been increasing in several nations, including the USA and UK. We sought to verify the apparent anxiety increases by looking for systematic changes in mean anxiety questionnaire scores from research publications. **Methods:** We analyzed all available mean State-Trait Anxiety Inventory scores published between 1970 and 2010. We collected 1703 samples, representing more than 205,000 participants from 57 nations. **Results:** Results showed a significant anxiety increase worldwide, but the pattern was less clear in many individual nations. Our analyses suggest that any increase in anxiety in the USA and Canada may be limited to students, that anxiety has decreased in the UK, and has remained stable in Australia. **Conclusions:** Although anxiety may have increased worldwide, it might not be increasing as dramatically as previously thought, except in specific populations, such as North American students. Our results seem to contradict survey results from the USA and UK in particular. We do not claim that our results are more reliable than those of large population surveys. However, we do suggest that mental health surveys and other governmental sources of disorder prevalence data may be partially biased by changing attitudes towards mental health: if respondents are more aware and less ashamed of their anxiety, they are more likely to report it to survey-takers. Analyses such as ours provide a useful means of double-checking apparent trends in large population surveys.

*Keywords:* Anxiety; mental health; psychiatric epidemiology; stigmatization of mental health problems

### The Age of Anxiety? It Depends Where You Look: Changes in STAI Trait Anxiety, 1970-2010

Spielberger et al. [1] suggested we are living in an ‘age of anxiety’, and it is often claimed that people are more prone to anxiety now than they were previously [2-4]. This assumption is often based on societal changes such as increasing working hours, or exposure to new media [5,6]. Psychologists studying anxiety have implicated decreasing social connectedness resulting from changing family structure, and increases in perceived threats such as crime and ill-health [7]. Other changes in mental health, specifically in the USA, have been associated with changes towards more materialistic goal-setting, unrealistic expectations, and individualism [8]. On the other hand, many industrial nations have seen decreasing death rates and improving public health in recent decades [9]; typically their citizens are better off now, in terms of amenities, ease of communication and access to information than they have ever been. Therefore, there are as many reasons to expect anxiety to have decreased as there are to expect it to have increased.

In some nations, data suggests anxiety has indeed increased. Large-scale surveys [10,11] suggest prevalence of (not necessarily diagnosed) anxiety in the USA increased 5.23% between 1990-1992 and 2001-2003. Surveys in the UK found that anxiety increased 12.8% between 1993 and 2007 [12,13], and UK physicians’ records show increased anxiety diagnoses [14]. Similar increases have been found in Japan [15,16], New Zealand [17], and Lebanon [18].

Increasing anxiety vulnerability is an important problem, because anxiety has been linked to other health issues, particularly depression [e.g. 19]. It may also necessitate absence from work, so anxiety has economic consequences [20,21]. Since these effects should influence policymaking, it is important to verify the survey findings.

One problem with health surveys is that they involve an in-person interview. Apparent increases in anxiety may partly reflect greater reporting of psychiatric problems to interviewers. This concern is nontrivial, given increasing awareness of mental health issues in recent decades [22] and a known tendency to underreport psychiatric problems [23,24].

If anxiety really is increasing, this should be apparent in research publications: mean anxiety scores would be higher in more recent publications. The most commonly-used [25,26] measure of anxiety is the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) [1,27]. This assesses both state anxiety (the examinee's anxiety at the moment they complete the scale) and trait anxiety (the examinee's anxiety 'generally in [their] life', i.e. "anxiety-proneness as a personality trait"; [1], p. 4), where anxiety is defined as "tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry" [1, p. 4]. The STAI has been used in thousands of studies in more than 60 languages [28,1], has good internal consistency, test-retest reliability and construct validity [29,28], and discriminates psychiatric patients from healthy controls [28,1], making it ideal for examining changes in anxiety over time. Importantly, it is a self-report measure, and modal research practice is to assure participants their responses are confidential. It therefore circumvents the validity concerns with surveys (although its discriminant validity has been questioned; see Discussion). It should be possible to verify the surveys' results by comparing mean STAI anxiety scores from research publications published in different years.

This technique was largely developed by Twenge [e.g.30], who calls it *cross-temporal meta-analysis* (CTMA). Twenge [7] conducted such analyses on STAI scores from USA samples, and found that anxiety increased between 1970 and 1993, congruent with Kessler's [10,11] later surveys. However, Twenge's analysis was limited to undergraduates in conventional

four-year programs: this was intended to maximize sample homogeneity and increase statistical power. This participant group has the most data available, but does not represent the average American. Economic conditions for American students have changed differently from those of the general American population over the study period. USA economic performance has been generally good, characterized by GDP growth and falling unemployment between 1982 and 2000 [31]. Mortality rates decreased between 1970 and 2010, and out-of-pocket health expenditure fell since 1995 [9]. However, American education is very expensive, and tuition fees show disproportional inflation [32]. Debt on graduation has been steadily increasing since federal student loans were introduced in the 1980s, and national student debt passed one trillion dollars in 2012 [see 33]. American students might have more reason to be anxious in recent years than the rest of the population. We therefore sought to investigate whether Twenge's findings generalize to a more inclusive USA sample.

Furthermore, we wished to extend our analysis to other countries. Social and economic conditions vary widely between nations, but assessing anxiety changes is just as important for any country. Lastly, we wished to update Twenge's 1993 analyses: surveys suggest anxiety in the USA and UK was rising quickly in the 17 years between this date and our 2010 data collection [11,13].

Therefore, our research question was whether STAI trait anxiety means increased since 1970, when the STAI was published. We focused on trait anxiety, which is closer to the long-term pathological anxiety assessed by health surveys; state anxiety is a transitory mood, which occurs naturally and adaptively in all individuals: state anxiety also fluctuates rapidly, which would add considerable error variance to our analysis. Our analysis includes all English-language

articles (from any country) reporting a mean STAI trait anxiety, which were available in June 2010. To our knowledge, ours is the largest such analysis attempted.

## **Method**

### **Literature Search**

Literature search was conducted in June 2010; articles were collected during the next four years. PsycINFO, PsycARTICLES, and Academic Search Complete were searched using the terms ‘Spielberger’, ‘STAI’, and ‘trait anxiety’. This returned more than 8000 hits. We collected only journal articles, published in English. Only 122 articles were unavailable.

### **Inclusion Criteria**

Samples were included if: (1) They reported a mean trait anxiety score, using the standard trait anxiety scale. Translations were accepted if they used the original instructions and format; (2) Participants were adults (over 18 years old), as there are different versions of the STAI for children; (3) Participants were not selected for psychiatric morbidity, or taking psychoactive medication. Most samples were not screened for morbidity or medication use; we included such samples on the assumption that their rates of morbidity or medication would probably reflect those of the general population; (4) Participants were not selected for their level of anxiety, or an obvious correlate such as depression, anger, happiness or extraversion; (5) Participants did not have any obvious reason to be anxious at the time of testing. Samples experiencing stress or pain, or awaiting a medical procedure or diagnosis were excluded. Pregnant women were excluded, since the demographic characteristics of this group have changed during the study period: we are grateful to an anonymous reviewer for recommending this.

### **Sample Characteristics (Variables of Interest)**

Mean and, where available, standard deviation trait anxiety was recorded. We noted the participant type (e.g. students, hospital staff, general public) where available. Following Twenge [7], we coded year of data collection as two years before publication, unless a year was stated. We also included, where available: participants' mean age in years; sex, coded as the percentage of the sample that was female; and education in years, students were assumed to have completed one year of study, plus their normal compulsory education. When indicated, the proportion of non-Caucasian participants in the USA, UK, Canadian and Australian samples was also recorded. Unfortunately, more detailed ethnicity information is typically not reported.

Beck Depression Inventory scores were recorded where available. Beck and colleagues [34-36] have revised the scale twice; analyzing these three forms separately did not greatly change our results. We included depression because anxiety and depression are strongly correlated/comorbid, and we wished to check whether apparent changes in anxiety were independent of changes in depression [37]. Depression was not controlled in all analyses: we compared regression models that did and did not control depression, looking for discrepancies (see Analytic Strategy). Several studies have suggested the STAI is sensitive to depression [e.g. 38, see Discussion], so controlling it improves the validity of our analyses.

### **Analytic Strategy**

Please see Online Resource 1 for additional details of our analyses. Mean anxiety scores were analyzed using weighted-least-squares regression, weighting each sample's mean by its size. We analyzed a series of models, predicting trait anxiety from date of data collection, while controlling for covariates such as age, sex, education, ethnicity, and depression. Since most samples did not have all these data available, different models were run on different portions of

the complete dataset. Limiting analyses to samples with all covariates available necessitates excluding too many data.

We report several effect size indexes. The regression coefficient  $B$  is the mean increase in STAI trait score per year. The standardized coefficient  $\beta$  is also given. Following Twenge et al. [8], a variation of  $d$  is given, equal to the change in predicted score during the study period divided by the mean sample  $SD$ . Our analyses have differing date ranges: to avoid confusion, we report the  $d$  extrapolated over the entire 40-year study period.

**Subgroups.** One problem with CTMA is that, because the samples are typically not random samples from the population, they can be unpredictably heterogeneous. One remedy is to use samples from a restricted population, such as students [e.g. 7,8]. We first analyzed all data, then replicated our analyses with samples of a certain type (e.g. students, community volunteers) wherever sufficient data were available. Where results differ from results from the entire dataset, this is reported.

**Form X and Form Y.** The STAI was substantially revised in 1983 (from ‘Form X’ to ‘Form Y’); six of the 20 items were replaced to improve the scale’s factor structure and discrimination between anxiety and depression. We addressed this issue in two ways. Firstly, we ruled out mean differences in scores on the two forms by examining the effect of controlling STAI form in our regression models. Secondly, where sufficient data were available we analyzed the two Forms’ data separately.

## Results

### Sample Characteristics



The dataset included 1703 samples from 1247 publications, and represented 205,451 participants from 57 nations. Samples' mean ages ranged from 18 to 83 ( $M = 31.40$ ); the mean sample was 57.46% female, with 13.84 years education. The most common participant groups were students (696 samples) and unselected general public (235 samples).

We present analyses of the full dataset, followed by analyses of USA, UK, Canada and Australia, since these nations had the most complete data (studies conducted in these nations were most likely to have been published in English). See Online Resource 1 for a list of included nations, and analyses of more individual nations' data.

### **Worldwide Data**

Date significantly predicted trait anxiety ( $B = .073$ ,  $\beta = .157$ , 95% CI [.109, .205],  $t = 6.55$ ,  $p < .001$ , see Fig. 1;  $d = 0.343$ ; one sample excluded, Cook's distance = 12.08<sup>1</sup>). This relationship remained significant controlling for STAI form ( $\beta = .174$ , 95% CI [.120, .228],  $p < .001$ , 1508 samples), age ( $\beta = .119$ , 95% CI [.065, .173],  $p < .001$ , 1213 samples), sex ( $\beta = .145$ , 95% CI [.095, .195],  $p < .001$ , 1524 samples), education ( $\beta = .114$ , 95% CI [.050, .178],  $p < .001$ , 939 samples) and depression ( $\beta = .111$ , 95% CI [.019, .203],  $p = .016$ , 381 samples). This trend was clear in students ( $\beta = .260$ , 95% CI [.187, .333],  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 0.456$ , 696 samples) and non-students ( $\beta = .153$ , 95% CI [.091, .215],  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 0.351$ , 1006 samples). The increase was

---

<sup>1</sup> This and some other samples in subsequent analyses are excluded because of their size; here,  $N = 11,336$ . Although a larger sample may provide a more accurate estimate of the population mean, its large weight in the models can distort time's effects. Including this case does not change the results.

clear in undergraduate students (medical, nursing, therapy, mature, community/open university, and graduate students were excluded;  $\beta = .185$ , 95% CI [.089, .281],  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 0.294$ , 403 samples), and in unselected community volunteers ( $\beta = .130$ , 95% CI [.002, .258],  $p = .047$ ,  $d = 0.260$ , 235 samples).

Since there is a content difference between Forms X and Y of the STAI, we analyzed them separately. The increase in scores was larger with Form X ( $\beta = .205$ , 95% CI [.141, .269],  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 0.441$ , 935 samples; date range 1968-2008) than with Form Y ( $\beta = .093$ , 95% CI [.009, .177],  $p = .026$ ,  $d = 0.226$ , 573 samples; date range 1981-2008).

## USA

In the USA (686 samples,  $N = 80,237$ ; date range 1968-2008), there was an increase in anxiety ( $B = .047$ ,  $\beta = .127$ , 95% CI [.051, .203],  $t = 3.34$ ,  $p = .001$ , see Fig. 2;  $d = 0.218$ ). This remained significant controlling for STAI form ( $\beta = .112$ , 95% CI [.020, .204],  $p = .014$ , 643 samples), sex ( $\beta = .123$ , 95% CI [.041, .205],  $p = .003$ , 608 samples) and education ( $\beta = .142$ , 95% CI [.050, .234],  $p = .002$ , 430 samples), but not when controlling for depression ( $\beta = .066$ , 95% CI [-.082, .214],  $p = .372$ , 160 samples). This increase was only apparent in the student samples ( $\beta = .248$ , 95% CI [.144, .352],  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 0.371$ , 333 samples); it was absent in the non-student samples ( $\beta = .067$ , 95% CI [-.039, .173],  $p = .212$ ,  $d = 0.099$ , 353 samples). The increase was also only apparent in Form Y ( $\beta = .164$ , 95% CI [.038, .290],  $p = .010$ ,  $d = 0.313$ , 247 samples, date range 1981-2008), not in Form X ( $\beta = .028$ , 95% CI [-.072, .128],  $p = .578$ ,  $d = 0.058$ , 395 samples, date range 1968-2007).

Finally, we analyzed just undergraduate students, extending Twenge's [7] original study. We replicated her significant increase in anxiety ( $\beta = .279$ , 95% CI [.145, .413],  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 0.379$ , 204 samples), and this was robust to controlling our covariates.

## UK

In the UK (147 samples,  $N = 9144$ , date range 1980-2008) there was evidence of a decrease in anxiety over time ( $B = -.110$ ,  $\beta = -.174$ , 95% CI [-.338, -.010],  $t = -2.12$ ,  $p = .035$ , see Fig. 3;  $d = -0.495$ ). This remained significant when controlling STAI form ( $\beta = -.196$ , 95% CI [-.386, -.006],  $p = .042$ , 132 samples), and sex ( $\beta = -.349$ , 95% CI [-.517, -.181],  $p < .001$ , 128 samples). This decrease was present among non-students ( $\beta = -.200$ , 95% CI [-.412, .012],  $p = .064$ ,  $d = -0.569$ , 87 samples), but not among students ( $\beta = -.079$ , 95% CI [-.341, .183],  $p = .548$ ,  $d = -0.205$ , 60 samples; in undergraduates only,  $\beta = -.336$ , 95% CI [-.741, .070],  $p = .101$ ,  $d = -0.963$ , 25 samples). When just the Form X data were examined, the decrease was not significant ( $\beta = -.203$ , 95% CI [-.479, .073],  $p = .149$ ,  $d = -0.659$ , 52 samples, date range 1980-2007); the same was true for the Form Y data ( $\beta = -.140$ , 95% CI [-.364, .084],  $p = .214$ ,  $d = -0.397$ , 80 samples, date range 1988-2008).

## Canada

In Canada (93 samples,  $N = 9934$ , date range 1974-2007) there was some evidence of an increase in anxiety over time ( $B = .071$ ,  $\beta = .221$ , 95% CI [.017, .425],  $t = 2.16$ ,  $p = .033$ , see Fig. 4;  $d = 0.331$ ), but this was not significant when controlling STAI form ( $\beta = .048$ , 95% CI [-.248, .344],  $p = .745$ , 89 samples) or sex ( $\beta = .208$ , 95% CI [-.006, .422],  $p = .055$ , 87 samples). The increase was larger, though non-significant, in students ( $\beta = .248$ , 95% CI [-.040, .536],  $p = .089$ ,  $d = 0.231$ , 48 samples; in undergraduates only,  $\beta = .274$ , 95% CI [-.057, .605],  $p = .100$ ,  $d =$

0.217, 37 samples) and absent in non-students ( $\beta = .034$ , 95% CI [-.274, .339],  $p = .826$ ,  $d = 0.080$ , 44 samples, one sample excluded, Cook's distance = 3.08).

Both the Form X scores ( $\beta = .083$ , 95% CI [-.171, .337],  $p = .513$ ,  $d = 0.197$ , 64 samples, date range 1974-2004) and the Form Y scores ( $\beta = -.077$ , 95% CI [-.493, .339],  $p = .715$ ,  $d = -0.135$ , 25 samples, date range 1990-2007) showed no change in anxiety over time, although the latter analysis was under-powered.

### **Australia**

In Australia (87 samples,  $N = 8867$ , date range 1976-2008; one sample excluded, Cook's distance = 2.58) there was no evidence of any change in anxiety over time ( $B = .046$ ,  $\beta = .089$ , 95% CI [-.127, .305],  $t = .824$ ,  $p = .412$ , see Fig. 5;  $d = 0.209$ ). There was no change in student ( $\beta = -.134$ , 95% CI [-.510, .242],  $p = .473$ ,  $d = -0.231$ , 31 samples; undergraduates only,  $\beta = -.195$ , 95% CI [-.652, .262],  $p = .385$ ,  $d = -0.237$ , 22 samples) or non-student subgroups ( $\beta = .121$ , 95% CI [-.149, .391],  $p = .374$ ,  $d = 0.281$ , 56 samples). There was also no change in anxiety when Form X ( $\beta = -.061$ , 95% CI [-.409, .287],  $p = .726$ ,  $d = -0.140$ , 35 samples, date range 1976-2008) and Form Y ( $\beta = .065$ , 95% CI [-.229, .359],  $p = .660$ ,  $d = 0.213$ , 48 samples, date range 1985-2008) data were analyzed separately.

### **Rest of the World**

Finally, we examined data from the 53 remaining nations (688 samples,  $N = 85,539$ , date range 1969-2008). There was a clear increase in anxiety over time ( $B = .128$ ,  $\beta = .218$ , 95% CI [.144, .292],  $t = 5.85$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 0.616$ ), which remained significant controlling for age ( $\beta = .200$ , 95% CI [.116, .284],  $p < .001$ , 512 samples), sex ( $\beta = .213$ , 95% CI [.135, .291],  $p < .001$ , 620 samples), and depression ( $\beta = .236$ , 95% CI [.080, .392],  $p = .003$ , 121 samples). This

increase was visible in student samples ( $\beta = .291$ , 95% CI [.163, .419],  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 0.646$ , 224 samples), and non-student samples ( $\beta = .203$ , 95% CI [.111, .295],  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 0.588$ , 464 samples), but not in undergraduates ( $\beta = .118$ , 95% CI [-.068, .304],  $p = .209$ ,  $d = 0.239$ , 115 samples). This increase was only visible in Form X data ( $\beta = .304$ , 95% CI [.208, .400],  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 0.794$ , 388 samples, date range 1969-2008), there was no significant increase in the Form Y data ( $\beta = .082$ , 95% CI [-.070, .234],  $p = .287$ ,  $d = 0.251$ , 172 samples, date range 1986-2008).

### Discussion

Our results show a worldwide increase in STAI trait anxiety since 1970; however this increase was not visible within all individual nations. Of particular interest are the USA and UK, which have most data available and have suffered dramatic increases in anxiety according to their national surveys [11,13]. In the USA, increases in STAI trait anxiety were limited to students. In the UK, there was a significant *decrease* in STAI trait anxiety. There is therefore a discrepancy between those surveys and these data from the literature.

Worldwide, there was a significant increase in STAI trait anxiety; scores increased one point every 13.70 years. This means that approximately 59% of respondents in 2008 scored above the mean for respondents in 1968, a substantial and clinically important change. There was a similar increase in the data once the USA, UK, Canada and Australia were removed. This seems to support the hypothesis that changing working conditions, norms, and media practices are impacting the mental health of ordinary citizens around the world to a measureable extent [e.g. 5,7,6]. As new media facilitates communication across national boundaries, changes in expectations, motivations and opinions are increasingly likely to generalize across the globe. Of course, economic variables still vary by country, but Twenge [7] reported that anxiety variations

in American students were more closely linked to social variables than they were to economic factors: in the present dataset there does not seem to be a simple relationship between the extent of a nation's economic development and changes in anxiety (see Online Resource 1 for further analyses of individual nations' data).

With analyses such as these it is typical to focus on a particular participant group, to maximize sample homogeneity: here we simply analyzed all available data, so the fact that significant increases appeared in spite of sample heterogeneity seems to suggest an increase is genuinely present. However, this heterogeneity may bias the results: although the increase remained significant in models controlling various covariates and also in analyses of more homogeneous sample groups, only three nations we studied (USA, Japan and Turkey; see Online Resource 1) showed convincing increases while two nations (UK and Netherlands) showed decreases. Analyzing grouped data may be less informative than analyzing data from individual countries.

Given the survey data, we would expect to see clear STAI trait anxiety increases in the USA and UK. The fact we do not is surprising. We do *not* claim that our data are more valid than the surveys. Our data are not representative of the general public: students, university and hospital staff, and university town residents are over-represented. However, these groups are *consistently* over-represented during the period studied. So these data cannot accurately estimate the mean anxiety level of a nation, but they can index changes in anxiety over time.

We suggest surveys have registered increases in anxiety partly because people have grown better at recognizing and/or reporting psychiatric symptoms [22]. Partly this will have occurred as a result of improving symptom identification and diagnostic criteria, and refinements

to assessment tools. But it may also reflect a greater willingness of respondents to share details of their mental health issues with interviewers. Although social desirability may affect the confidential pen-and-paper STAI, this should be more of a problem for interview-based surveys [13,10,11]; any decrease in social desirability concerns should lead to a larger increase in interview-assessed anxiety than it does in STAI-assessed anxiety. Congruently, Twenge and Im [39] found American college students' social desirability concerns decreased between 1958 and 1980: this was not associated with STAI scores, consistent with the STAI being less vulnerable to social desirability. While MacKenzie and colleagues' [40] CTMA suggested American students' attitudes toward seeking treatment became more negative between 1968 and 2008, they suggest this applies mainly to 'talk' psychotherapy; Americans' willingness to seek pharmacotherapy for psychiatric problems has increased according to health surveys [11] and the General Social Surveys [41]. If citizens are indeed becoming more aware and less ashamed of mental health problems, this is beneficial. Anxiety remains a large problem, but greater awareness and destigmatization may mean fewer people leave their symptoms untreated [42].

In the USA and Canada, there was some evidence of a STAI anxiety increase, but this was limited to students. This may be because college students form more homogeneous groups than do other research participants, and so analyses of students have lower error variance. We cannot endorse this account, because only non-student samples showed significant time effects in our UK data. Alternatively, students perhaps have had more reason to experience more anxiety than have the general population. Economic conditions in the USA have been generally good for the period studied [31,9], but tuition fees and student debt increased dramatically [33,32]. Exaggerated increases in anxiety among the student population are therefore expected. Anxiety

increases in American and Canadian students are potentially serious – our results suggest approximately 64% of American students in 2008 scored above the mean for 1968 – but may not indicate population-wide anxiety increases. While Twenge and colleagues' [8] CTMA also revealed an increase in American adolescents' psychopathology between 1951 and 2002, this analysis was based on only 14 samples, and requires verification.

In the UK, STAI trait scores decreased one point every 9.09 years on average, and this decrease was apparently limited to non-students. While more people are being treated for anxiety in the UK [14], this may not mean people are more anxious: it might be that people are more likely to seek treatment. Although tuition fees have skyrocketed, this largely happened after 2010, the end of our study period. It may therefore be unsurprising that UK students do not show the same STAI score increases as USA students.

Our results are important for two reasons. Firstly, our work bolsters that of Twenge and others [8,37,7] in showing that CTMAs can usefully estimate time-related trends. While organized surveys have considerable advantages, comparing two surveys conducted at different times can be complicated by changes in diagnostic criteria and methodology. Official surveys may also be more vulnerable to biased responding. CTMAs provide a useful means of verifying apparent changes.

Secondly, our results add to the information available for governmental and health organizations. Anxiety is a public health and economic problem [21], and an adequate understanding of its epidemiology is crucial. For example, if the increases in American anxiety are restricted to students, this does not mean they are unimportant: indeed, these data suggest a dramatic and harmful increase in anxiety in this group. The next generation of American



professionals are not just being saddled with greater debt; they are also being saddled with greater emotional distress and vulnerability to health problems. This is likely to impact the country's economic performance long into the future.

One issue with our analyses concerns the validity of the STAI trait anxiety scale. Several authors have questioned its factor structure [43,44] and emphasis on cognitive rather than somatic anxiety [cf. 45]; importantly, studies have found that the scale is sensitive to depression [38,44] and negative affect [46]. We chose the STAI because more data are available from this instrument than from any other [26,25], its reliability is good, and it is applicable to varied study populations [28]. It is possible that depression has influenced our findings, but we believe this is unlikely: statistically controlling for depression did not alter our results. Relatedly, the STAI's content-revision from Form X to Form Y complicates interpretation of these data. We controlled for STAI form within every nation's data, in case the population means for the two forms were different, and where sufficient data were available we analyzed the two forms separately. However, for nations and subgroups with less data available, it should be remembered that different sensitivities of the two forms may bias the results.

Another issue with this study is its reliance on under-specified heterogeneous samples. This problem affects any review or meta-analysis. We addressed it by replicating our primary analyses while controlling for various sociodemographic variables, and by replicating our analyses in more homogeneous subgroups of our dataset. Where such analyses do not produce contradictory results, this suggests sample heterogeneity is not strongly influencing the analyses. It would be ideal to analyze samples that are restricted in age or other demographic variables but,

with the arguable exception of students, such samples are not numerous enough for multiple regression models.

To summarize, CTMAs provide a useful tool for confirming trends in health surveys. Our analyses suggest that anxiety may be increasing worldwide, but may not be increasing as rapidly as previously thought in the USA and UK. When interpreting trends in survey data, it is important to also assess changes in awareness and reporting of mental health problems. While anxiety constitutes a severe public health problem in the nations studied, it might not be increasing very dramatically except in populations experiencing increasing personal or economic hardships, such as American students.

**Ethical Standards**

This manuscript does not contain original clinical studies or patient data.

**Conflict of Interest**

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

## References

1. Spielberger CD, Gorsuch R, Lushene R, Vagg PR, Jacobs GA (1983) Manual for the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory. Consulting Psychologists Press, Palo Alto, CA
2. Donnelly L (15 April 2012) Anxiety: A very modern malaise.  
<http://www.telegraph.co.uk/health/wellbeing/9204746/Anxiety-a-very-modern-malaise.html>.  
Accessed 15 April 2012
3. Bonds Shapiro A (3 November, 2011) Anxiety: A modern plague.  
<http://www.psychologytoday.com/blog/healing-possibility/201111/anxiety-modern-plague>.  
Accessed 3 November, 2011
4. Telling A (23 October 2012) Achievement anxiety - a by-product of modern mankind.  
[http://www.huffingtonpost.co.uk/andrew-telling/achievement-anxiety-a-byp\\_b\\_2004621.html](http://www.huffingtonpost.co.uk/andrew-telling/achievement-anxiety-a-byp_b_2004621.html).  
Accessed 23 October 2012
5. Menzies H (2005) No time: Stress and the crisis of modern life. Greystone, Canada
6. Wainright D, Calnan M (2002) Work stress: The making of a modern epidemic. Open University Press, Buckingham
7. Twenge JM (2000) The age of anxiety? Birth cohort change in anxiety and neuroticism, 1952-1993. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 79 (6):1007-1021
8. Twenge JM, Gentile B, DeWall CN, Ma D, Lacefield K, Schurtz DR (2010) Birth cohort increases in psychopathology among young Americans, 1938-2007: A cross-temporal meta-analysis of the MMPI. *Clinical Psychology Review* 30:145-154 doi:10.1016/j.cpr.2009.10.005
9. World Bank (2014) World Databank. databank.worldbank.org. Accessed 28th May 2014

10. Kessler RC (1994) The national comorbidity survey of the United States. *International Review of Psychiatry* 6 (4):365-376
11. Kessler RC, Chiu WT, Demler O, Merikangas KR, Walters EE (2005) Prevalence, severity, and comorbidity of 12-month *DSM-IV* disorders in the National Comorbidity Survey Replication. *Archives of General Psychiatry* 62:617-627
12. Halliwell E (2009) *In the face of fear: How fear and anxiety affect our health and society, and what we can do about it.* The Mental Health Foundation, London
13. McManus S, Meltzer H, Brugha T, Bebbington P, Jenkins R (eds) (2009) *Adult psychiatric morbidity in England, 2007: Results of a household survey.* The NHS Information Centre for Health and Social Care, UK
14. Moser K, Majeed A (1999) Prevalence of treated chronic diseases in general practice in England and Wales - trends over time and variations by the ONS area classification. *Health Statistics Quarterly* 02:25-32
15. WHO World Mental Health Survey Consortium (2004) Prevalence, severity, and unmet need for treatment of mental disorders in the World Health Organization World Mental Health Surveys. *JAMA* 291 (21):2581-2590
16. Kawakami N, Shimizu H, Haratani T, Iwata N, Kitamura T (2004) Lifetime and 6-month prevalence of DSM-III-R psychiatric disorders in an urban community in Japan. *Psychiatry Research* 121:293-301 doi:10.1016/S0165-1781(03)00239-7
17. Ministry of Health (2012) *The Health of New Zealand Adults 2012/12: Key Findings of the New Zealand Health Survey.* Ministry of Health, Wellington

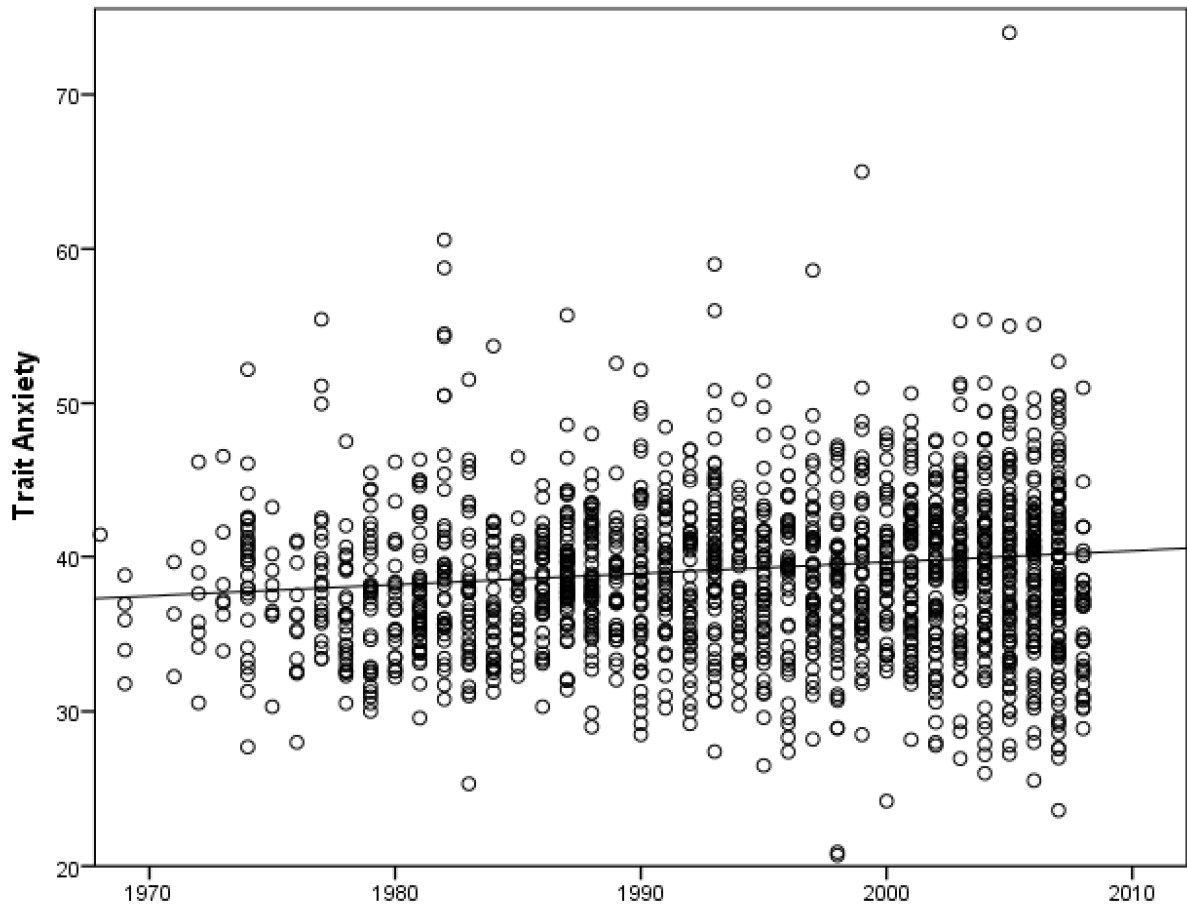
18. Tanios CY, Abou-Saleh MT, Karam AN, Salamoun MM, Mneimneh ZN, Karam EG (2009) The epidemiology of anxiety disorders in the Arab world: A review. *Journal of Anxiety Disorders* 23:409-419 doi:10.1016/j.janxdis.2008.10.009
19. Sartorius N, Üstün TB, Lecrubier Y, Wittchen H-U (1996) Depression comorbid with anxiety: Results from the WHO study on "Psychological disorders in primary health care". *British Journal of Psychiatry* 168 (Supp 30):38-43
20. Hoffman DL, Dukes EM, Wittchen H-U (2008) Human and economic burden of generalized anxiety disorder. *Depression and Anxiety* 25:72-90 doi:10.1002/da.20257
21. Kessler RC, Frank RG (1997) The impact of psychiatric disorders on work loss days. *Psychological Medicine* 27:861-873
22. Jenkins R (1998) On *The State of the Public Health: The annual report of the Chief Medical Officer of the Department of Health for England, 1995: An example of increased visibility of mental health at a national level*. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology* 33:579-580
23. Bowling A (1990) The prevalence of psychiatric morbidity among people aged over 85 and living at home. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology* 25:132-140
24. Copeland JRM (1987) Prevalence of depressive illness in the elderly community. *Journal of the Royal College of General Practitioners: Occasional Papers* 36:5-8
25. Piotrowski C (1999) The status of the Beck Anxiety Inventory in contemporary research. *Psychological Reports* 85 (1):261-262 doi: 10.2466/PR0.85.5.261-262
26. Sylvers P, Lilienfeld SO, LaPrairie JL (2011) Differences between trait fear and trait anxiety: Implications for psychopathology. *Clinical Psychology Review* 31:122-137 doi: 10.1016/j.cpr.2010.08.004

27. Spielberger CD, Gorsuch RL, Lushene RE (1970) Manual for the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory. Consulting Psychologist Press, Palo Alto, CA
28. Spielberger CD, Reheiser EC (2009) Assessment of emotions: Anxiety, anger, depression, and curiosity. *Applied Psychology: Health and Well-Being* 1 (3):271-302 doi: 10.1111/j.1758-0854.2009.01017.x
29. Barnes LLB, Harp D, Jung WS (2002) Reliability generalization of scores on the Spielberger State-Trait Anxiety Inventory. *Educational and Psychological Measurement* 62 (4):603-618 doi: 10.1177/0013164402062004005
30. Twenge JM (2009) Generational changes and their impact in the classroom: Teaching Generation Me. *Medical Education* 43:398-405 doi:10.1111/j.1365-2923.2009.03310.x
31. Khramov V, Lee JR (2012) The Economic Performance Index: An intuitive indicator for assessing a country's economic performance dynamics in an historical perspective. Working Paper WP/13/214, International Monetary Fund,
32. OECD (2011) Education at a glance, 2011: Highlights. OECD Publishing, Paris
33. Johnson A, Van Ostern T, White A (2012) The student debt crisis. Center for American Progress, Washington, DC
34. Beck AT, Ward CH, Mendelson M, Mock J, Erbaugh J (1961) An inventory for measuring depression. *Archives of General Psychiatry* 4 (6):561-571 doi:10.1001/archpsyc.1961.01710120031004
35. Beck AT, Rush AJ, Shaw BF, Emery G (1979) Cognitive therapy of depression. Guilford Press, New York

36. Beck AT, Steer RA, Brown GK (1996) Manual for the Beck Depression Inventory-II. Psychological Corporation, San Antonio, TX
37. Twenge JM, Nolen-Hoeksema S (2002) Age, gender, race, socioeconomic status, and birth cohort differences on the Children's Depression Inventory: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology* 111 (4):578-588 doi: 10.1037//0021-843X.111.4.578
38. Bieling PJ, Antony MM, Swinson RP (1998) The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory, Trait version: Structure and content re-examined. *Behaviour Research and Therapy* 36:777-788 doi: 10.1016/S0005-7967(98)00023-0
39. Twenge JM, Im C (2007) Changes in the need for social approval, 1958-2001. *Journal of Research in Personality* 41:171-189 doi: 10.1016/j.jrp.2006.03.006
40. Mackenzie CS, Reickson J, Deane FP, Wright M (2014) Changes in attitudes toward seeking mental health services: A 40-year cross-temporal meta-analysis. *Clinical Psychology Review* 34:99-106 doi: 10.1016/j.cpr.2013.12.001
41. Mojtabai R (2009) Americans' attitudes toward psychiatric medications: 1998-2006. *Psychiatric Services* 60:1015-1023
42. Bathje GJ, Pryor JB (2011) The relationships of public and self-stigma to seeking mental health services. *Journal of Mental Health Counseling* 33 (2):161-176
43. Caci H, Baylé FJ, Dossios C, Robert P, Boyer P (2003) The Spielberger trait anxiety inventory measures more than anxiety. *European Psychiatry* 18:394-400 doi: 10.1016/j.eurpsy.2003.05.003



44. Bados A, Gómez-Benito J, Balaguer G (2010) The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory, Trait version: Does it really measure anxiety? *Journal of Personality Assessment* 92 (6):560-567 doi: 10.1080/00223891.2010.513295
45. Grös DF, Antony MM, Simms LJ, McCabe RE (2007) Psychometric properties of the State-Trait Inventory for Cognitive and Somatic Anxiety (STICSA): Comparison to the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI). *Psychological Assessment* 19 (4):369-381 10.1037/1040-3590.19.4.369
46. Watson D, Clark LA (1984) Negative affectivity: The disposition to experience aversive emotional states. *Psychological Bulletin* 96 (3):465-490 10.1037/0033-2909.96.3.465



**Fig. 1** Worldwide dataset, showing a significant increase in anxiety. STAI trait anxiety scores can vary between 20 and 80. Fit line is weighted by the size,  $N$ , of each sample in the dataset

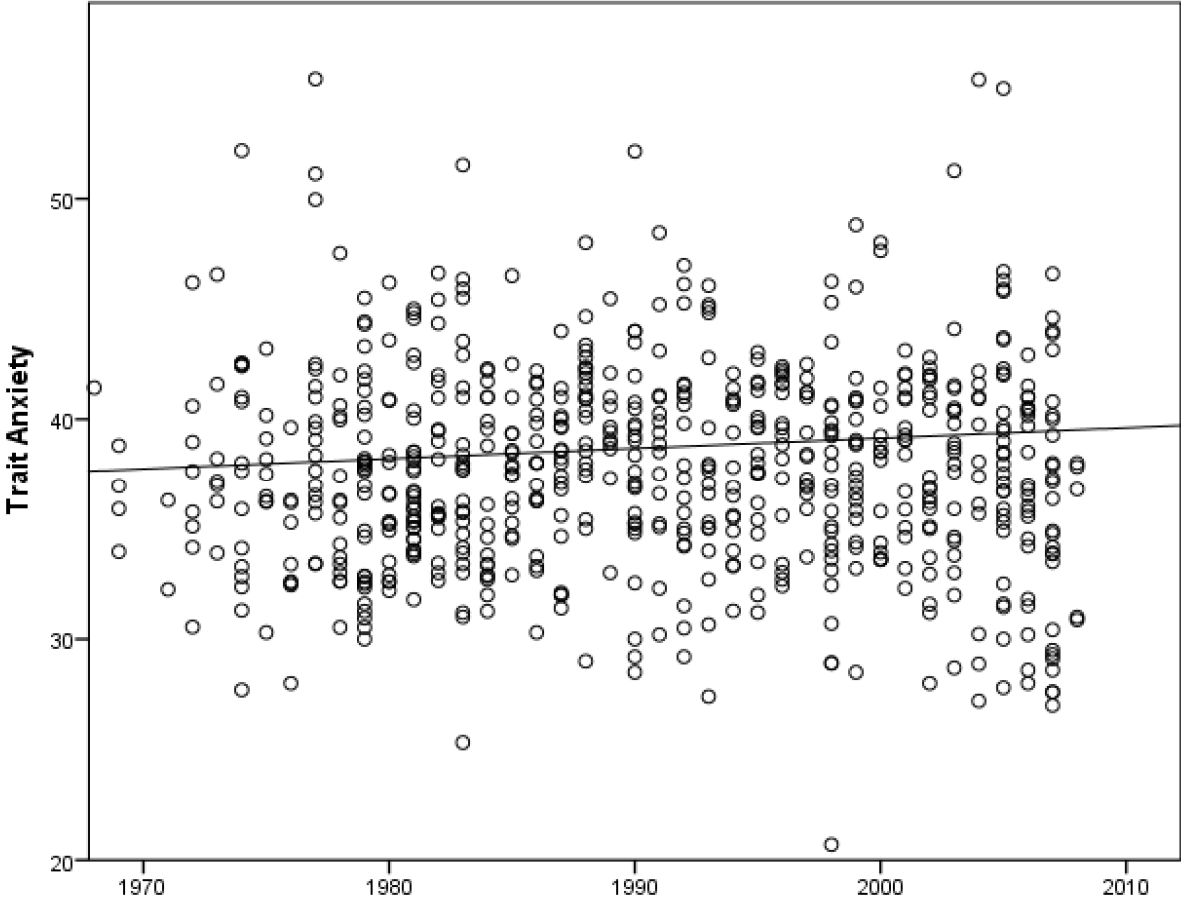


Fig. 2 USA data. The increase in anxiety is significant, but only among student samples

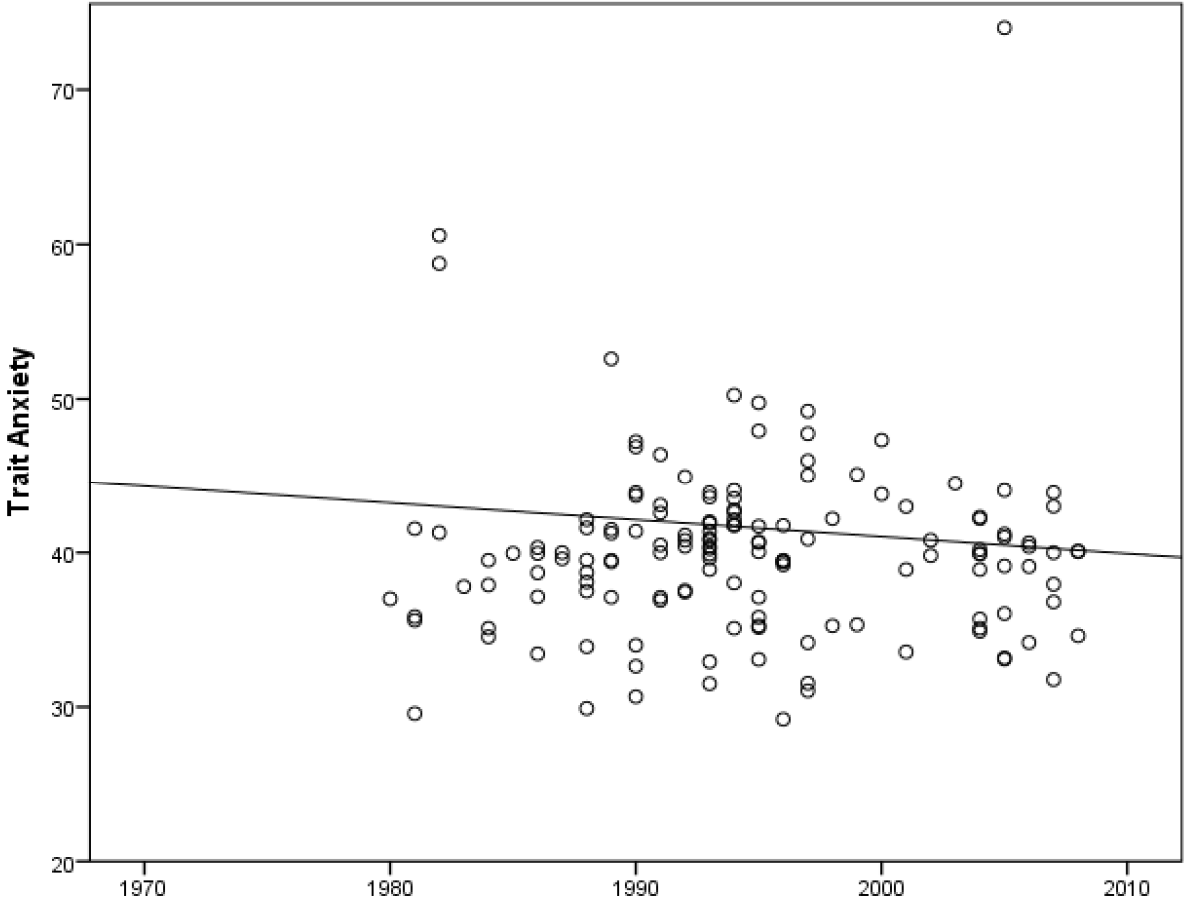
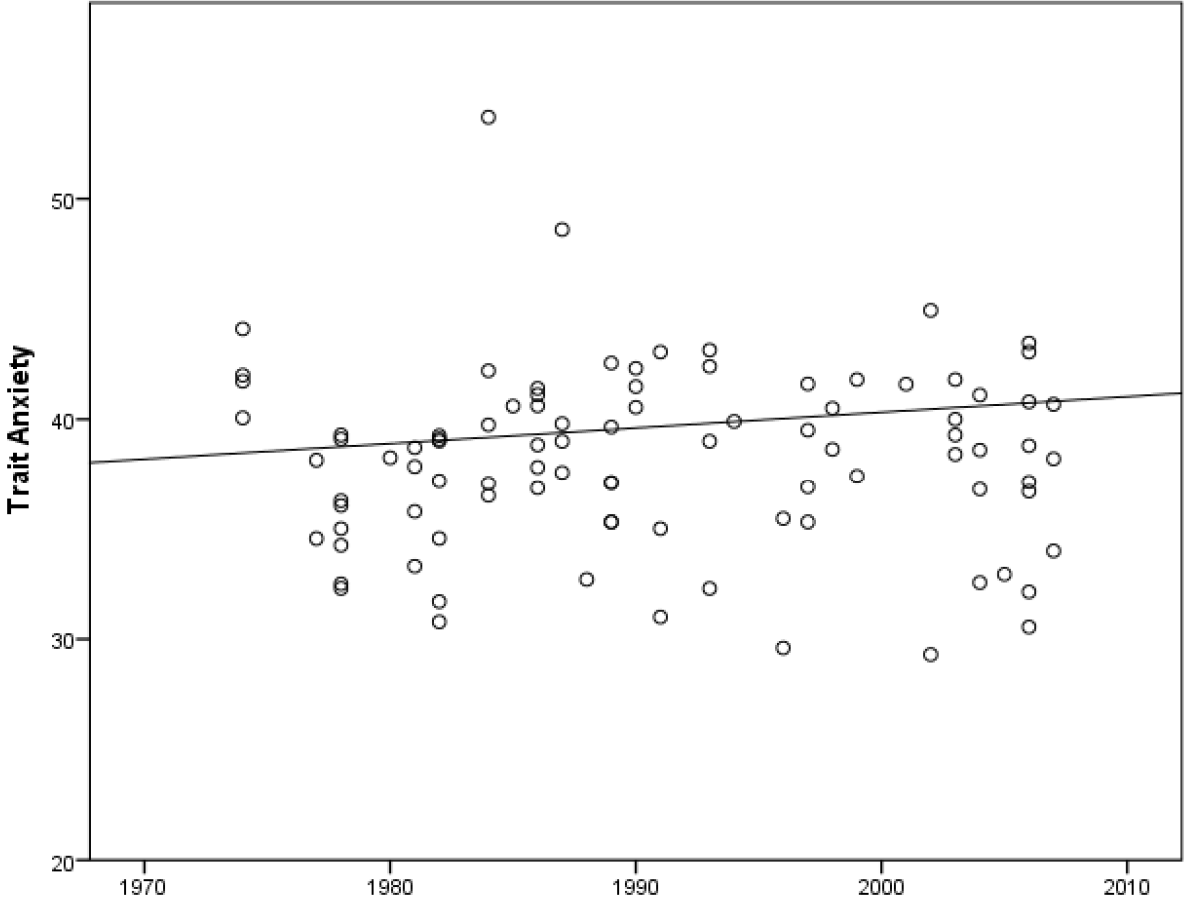


Fig. 3 UK data, showing a significant decrease in anxiety



**Fig. 4** Canada data. Increase in anxiety is significant, but not significant when controlling sex

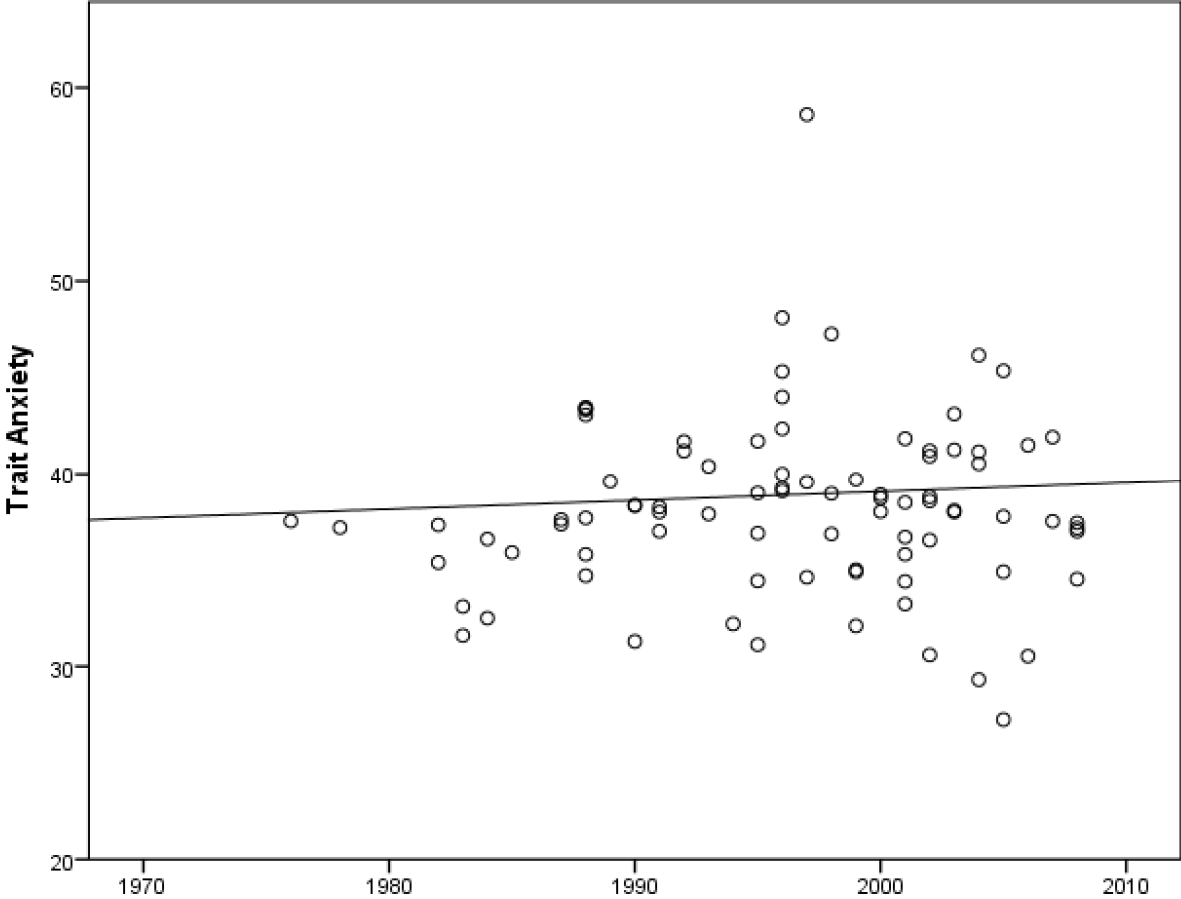


Fig. 5 Australia data, showing no change in anxiety