

1 Longitudinal changes in mental health and the COVID-19 pandemic: Evidence from
2 the UK Household Longitudinal Study

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23 longitudinal research; nationally representative study

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Abstract

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Background

The COVID-19 pandemic has had a range of negative social and economic effects that may contribute to a rise in mental health problems. In this observational population-based study, we examined longitudinal changes in the prevalence of mental health problems from before to during the COVID-19 crisis and identified subgroups that are psychologically vulnerable during the pandemic.

Methods

Participants (N =14,393; Observations =48,486) were adults drawn from wave 9 (2017-2019) of the nationally representative United Kingdom Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS) and followed-up across three waves of assessment in April, May, and June, 2020. Mental health problems were assessed using the 12-item General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12).

Results

The population prevalence of mental health problems (GHQ-12 score ≥ 3) increased by 13.5 percentage points from 24.3% in 2017-2019 to 37.8% in April, 2020 and remained elevated in May (34.7%) and June (31.9%), 2020. All sociodemographic groups examined showed statistically significant increases in mental health problems in April, 2020. The increase was largest among those aged 18-34 years (18.6 percentage points, 95% CI [14.3%-22.9%]), followed by females and high income and education groups. Levels of mental health problems subsequently declined between April and June, 2020 but remained significantly above pre-COVID-19 levels. Additional analyses showed that the rise in mental health problems observed throughout the COVID-19 pandemic was unlikely to be due to seasonality or year-to-year variation.

Conclusions

This study suggests that a pronounced and prolonged deterioration in mental health occurred as the COVID-19 pandemic emerged in the UK between April and June, 2020.

Introduction

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The emergence of the highly infectious severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) has created a global health crisis that prompted governments to execute extraordinary social distancing measures and restrictions to curtail the number of deaths caused by COVID-19. In the UK, these restrictions have had wide ranging impacts, from limiting time outside of the home and the ability to work, to prompting the closing of childcare, and changing how and where education is delivered. An outcome of these restrictions has been a severe economic downturn causing job insecurity and unemployment (Bell & Blanchflower, 2020; ONS, 2020a).

There are concerns that the COVID-19 crisis has caused a tremendous amount of stress and anxiety for many (Holmes et al., 2020). The social distancing restrictions, for example, may have increased social isolation (Armitage & Nellums, 2020) and the widespread reports of the economic downturn may have caused concerns about financial insecurity (Fernandes, 2020). Given the alarmingly high recorded number of deaths caused by COVID-19, anxiety about personal health and worries about the health of family members with existing medical conditions may also be common (Shevlin et al., 2020). Because social isolation, financial insecurity and health concerns contribute to psychological distress (Brooks et al., 2020; Lades et al., 2020; Paul & Moser, 2009), the COVID-19 crisis is likely to be having a considerable burden on population wide mental health.

Previous public health pandemics have been linked to increases in mental health problems. For example, the 2014-2016 Ebola outbreak is thought to have caused considerable anxiety among members of the general population in affected countries (Jalloh et al., 2018; O’Leary, Jalloh, & Neria, 2018) and there was evidence of higher prevalence of mental health problems among populations affected by the virus (Cénat et al., 2020). The 2002 SARs (Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome) outbreak has commonalities with COVID-19 and there

76 are a number of studies which suggests that aspects of psychological well-being and mental
77 health were negatively impact among frontline workers and those infected with SARS (Lee et
78 al., 2007; Su et al., 2007). However, for both Ebola, SARS and more recently the Middle
79 Eastern Respiratory Syndrome (MERS) outbreak in 2012, there was a lack of large-scale
80 longitudinal evidence examining population level mental health difficulties during the
81 progression of the pandemics.

82 Tracking and understanding the mental health burden of the COVID-19 crisis has
83 been identified as a public health research priority (Holmes et al., 2020). Moreover, there is a
84 great need to understand the distribution of the mental health burden associated with COVID-
85 19 because the social circumstances of ‘at risk’ populations, such as older adults, the
86 socioeconomically disadvantaged, and those with existing medical conditions, may make
87 them particularly vulnerable to the damaging psychological effects of this pandemic
88 (Benzeval et al., 2020; Pfefferbaum & North, 2020; Yao, Chen, & Xu, 2020). Studies to date
89 are suggestive of declines in mental health as a result of the COVID-19 crisis (Daly et al.,
90 2020; Xie et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020). For example, a study of children in home
91 quarantine during the outbreak of COVID-19 in Hubei province reported a higher prevalence
92 of depressive symptoms than would normally be expected (Xie et al., 2020). Similarly, a US
93 study reported a higher incidence of mental distress amongst a general public sample of US
94 adults completing measures in April 2020 in comparison to a different nationally
95 representative probability sample of US adults from the 2018 National Health Interview
96 Survey (McGinty et al., 2020).

97 Although informative, these findings may be explained by differences in sampling
98 and measurement between the populations being compared. There is a need for longitudinal
99 research that allows for a direct comparison of person-by-person mental health both before
100 and throughout the duration of the pandemic using validated mental health measures. For

101 example, a small study of young adults in Switzerland has found an increase in perceived
102 stress and anger (but not internalizing symptoms) measured in lockdown compared to two
103 years earlier (Shanahan et al., 2020) and a study of US undergraduate students found that
104 levels of depression had increased when comparing pre-COVID-19 pandemic levels with
105 data collected early on in the pandemic (Huckins et al., 2020). However, the extent to which
106 these findings generalize to other groups in the population is unclear.

107 It is crucial that longitudinal research draw on probability-based samples drawn from
108 across the population where the response rate is known and factors determining non-response
109 can be accounted for (Pierce et al., 2020). A recent UK study examined mental health
110 problems among UK adults participating in the UK Household Longitudinal study, in which
111 the same nationally representative sample of UK adults completed a mental health screening
112 instrument in 2017-2019 and after the introduction of the UK government social lockdown
113 orders on the 23rd March, 2020 (Pierce et al., 2020). Compared with pre-lockdown, the
114 prevalence of mental health problems was significantly higher in late April, 2020
115 (approximately one month into lockdown) and this was particularly pronounced among
116 females and younger ages groups (Pierce et al., 2020).

117 However, it remains unclear how these trajectories will evolve over time. For
118 example, there is evidence that although psychological distress rose in the initial stages of the
119 pandemic in the US (April, 2020), by June levels of distress were similar to distress levels
120 measured pre-pandemic (Daly & Robinson, 2020). Moreover, there is a need to understand
121 how these trajectories develop for groups that may be most at risk of declines in mental
122 health, such as those vulnerable to developing complications if infected with COVID-19 and
123 those with pre-existing mental health conditions (Holmes et al., 2020). In the present research
124 we aimed to examine the extent to which mental health problems changed from before to
125 during the COVID-19 crisis among UK adults. We made use of data from the UK Household

126 Longitudinal Study and examined levels of mental health problems prior to the COVID-19
127 crisis and across three waves of assessment conducted between April and June, 2020.
128 Furthermore, to understand the distribution of the mental health burden of COVID-19, we
129 tested whether changes in such difficulties have been more pronounced in key groups,
130 including older adults, those at risk of complications due to medical conditions, those who
131 have been previously diagnosed with clinical depression, and gender, race, education,
132 income, and marital status subgroups.

133

134 **Methods**

135 **Sample**

136 We used data from the UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS or *Understanding*
137 *Society*) which collects high quality longitudinal information on the economic circumstances,
138 health, and well-being of households from across the United Kingdom. The sample comprises
139 of a general population sample, ethnic minority boost samples, and incorporates the former
140 British Household Panel Study (BHPS) sample into the overall sample design. All samples
141 are probability samples where each postal address in the UK has a known non-zero
142 probability of selection. In England, Wales and Scotland samples are stratified (equal
143 probability), clustered sample of residential addresses selected from throughout the whole of
144 the UK selected from the Postcode Address File. Northern Ireland used unclustered
145 systematic random samples. Starting in 2009-2010 (Wave 1), eligible participants have been
146 assessed annually through nine waves of data collection. In the UKHLS each wave is
147 conducted over a two-year period and survey waves partly overlap. Detailed information on
148 the study sampling methodology can be found elsewhere (Buck & McFall, 2011).

149 In this study, we utilized data from Wave 9 of the UKHLS (N =32,596) that ran from
150 the 5th of January 2017 to the 24th of May 2019. The household response rate (at least one

151 member responding) in Wave 9 was 83.2% and the individual response rate was (full
152 interview) was 67.9% (Institute for Social and Economic Research, 2019). We matched this
153 survey wave with data from three assessment waves conducted at the end of April, May, and
154 June 2020 as part of the UKHLS COVID-19 study (Institute for Social and Economic
155 Research, 2020). The UKHLS data is typically collected through either a self-completion
156 online survey or through a face-to-face interview in participant's homes but moved to an
157 online self-completion mode of data collection for the April-June COVID-19 surveys. In the
158 2017-2019 survey 88.1% of participants indicated they used the internet at least monthly,
159 suggesting the vast majority of participants were eligible to participate.

160 Of those who took part in the Wave 9 survey (N =32,596), 46% completed the April
161 COVID-19 survey (N =14,985) and response rates were similar amongst those issued the
162 May (48.5%) and June (48.6%) surveys and comparable with other large-scale national
163 surveys (Institute for Social and Economic Research, 2020; ONS, 2019). In total, 15,012
164 participants took part in the Wave 9/2017-2019 survey and at least one of the COVID-19
165 surveys and had survey weights available. Of this group, 619 were missing either GHQ-12
166 data or were excluded due to missing covariate data leaving a final sample size of 14,393
167 participants with 48,486 observations across the 2017-2019 and three COVID-19 survey
168 waves. The COVID-19 survey combines the strengths of the UKHLS probability samples
169 with inverse probability weights constructed using the rich representative Wave 9 data to
170 allow estimates to be produced that account for unequal selection probabilities, adjust for
171 differential nonresponse, and facilitate population inferences.

172 Survey weights were constructed using an extensive set of demographic, economic,
173 health related variables. Importantly, information on the mode of previous surveys was
174 incorporated into the survey weights to help capture the likelihood participants could respond
175 to a web survey (Benzeval et al., 2020). In addition to correcting for attrition bias by using

176 carefully constructed survey weights incorporating known predictors of attrition, we
177 conducted a further test for the presence of nonrandom attrition by examining the relationship
178 between mental health problems in 2017-2019 and loss to follow up in an unweighted
179 retention probit (Fitzgerald, Gottschalk, & Moffitt, 1998). We found that mental health
180 problems in 2017-2019 were unrelated to participation in the COVID-19 survey reducing
181 concerns that non-random attrition may bias the outcome model.

182 In this study, we also examined the full UKHLS dataset (Waves 1–9 and COVID-19
183 study waves) including the entire set of GHQ assessments conducted from 2009 to June,
184 2020 (N =65,821; Observations =325,684) treating the survey waves as repeated cross-
185 sections in order to estimate the population prevalence of mental health problems over the
186 past decade and to understand recent seasonal and year-to-year changes in mental health
187 problems.

188

189 **Measures**

190 **Demographic characteristics**

191 Participants reported their age, gender (male, female) and race (White, non-White
192 including Black, Asian, and Other races), as part of the COVID-19 study and we also utilized
193 information on the marital status and educational qualifications and household income of
194 participants as reported in Wave 9 of the UKHLS. To examine the association between
195 socioeconomic status and mental health problems we examined the participant's highest level
196 of education attainment (university degree, no degree) and net household monthly income
197 (grouped into tertiles: \leq £2,500, £2,500–£4,000, \geq £4,000). Participants were grouped into
198 one of four age groups based on their age during the pandemic: 18-34, 35-49, 50-64, and
199 aged 65+.

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201 **COVID-19 at risk group**

202 Participants were classified as in a at risk group if they were considered clinically
203 vulnerable to developing complications as a result of COVID-19. This was gauged by asking
204 participants if they received communications from the NHS or Chief Medical Officer
205 indicating they would be considered at risk of severe illness if they contracted coronavirus
206 because of an underlying disease or health condition.

207

208 **Diagnosis of clinical depression**

209 Drawing on data from across all study waves from 2009-2019 we identified whether the
210 study participants have previously been told by a doctor or other health profession that they
211 have clinical depression. In total 8% of the sample reported received a diagnosis of this kind
212 from their doctor.

213

214 **General Health Questionnaire-12**

215 Mental health problems were measured using the 12-item General Health
216 Questionnaire (Goldberg, & Williams, 1988) which is a widely used measure of non-
217 psychotic psychiatric cases in the general population. Participant's report the extent to which
218 12 symptoms are present in the past few weeks. The scale comprises items assessing
219 anxiety/depression (e.g. "been feeling unhappy and depressed", "lost much sleep over
220 worry"), social dysfunction (e.g. "felt capable of making decisions about things?" [reverse
221 coded]), and loss of confidence (e.g. "been thinking of yourself as a worthless person").

222 Participants rated the extent to which they have been experiencing each item on a
223 four-term scale (negatively worded items scaled as 1= "not at all", 2= "no more than usual",
224 3= "rather more than usual" and 4= "much more than usual"; positively worded items scaled
225 as 1= "better than usual", 2= "same as usual", 3= "less than usual" and 4= "much less than

226 usual”). As in prior research (Aalto, Elovainio, Kivimäki, Uutela, & Pirkola, 2012; Goldberg
227 et al., 1997) we use the GHQ-12 as a short screening instrument to detect probable mental
228 health problems. We implemented the standard system of scoring to dichotomize whether
229 participants experienced each GHQ symptoms and formed a scale ranging from 0–12
230 symptoms experienced. Following accepted convention (Goldberg et al., 1997), those scoring
231 3 or more were termed as achieving “psychiatric caseness” indicating likely risk of presenting
232 with mental health problems. The cut-off threshold has been validated against psychiatric
233 interviews for the detection of psychological disorders (Aalto et al., 2012; Goldberg et al.,
234 1997).

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236 **Data Analysis**

237 Our analyses were carried out in Stata version 15 using the *svy* commands and survey
238 weights. We first examined within-person change in the number of symptoms reported by
239 participants from 2017-2019 to April, May, and June, 2020 using fixed effects regression
240 with time invariant covariates omitted. Our main longitudinal analyses examined the
241 presence/absence of mental health problems using weighted logistic regression models with
242 clustered standard errors that adjusted for the statistical dependence of repeated observations
243 on the same individuals, unequal selection probabilities, and differential non-response to each
244 wave of the COVID-19 survey. First, we contrasted the probability of mental health problems
245 in 2017-2019 with the April, May, and June COVID-19 survey waves in a model that
246 adjusted for covariates. We then computed marginal effects to estimate percentage-point
247 changes using the Stata postestimation *margins* suite of commands. This allowed the
248 predicted marginal proportions of the binary outcome to be estimated while controlling for
249 the distribution of covariates (Long & Freese, 2014). Changes in predicted probabilities of
250 mental health problems were multiplied by 100 to represent percentage point changes. This

251 analysis provided our estimate of the discrete change in the prevalence of mental health
252 problems from 2017-2019 to April, May, and June, 2020.

253 Next, we examined changes in mental health problems over this period for population
254 subgroups (i.e. age groups, gender, race, marital status, education and income groups, and the
255 vulnerability to COVID-19 dichotomous variable). To test for the presence of systematic
256 differences in the level of change in mental health problems between population subgroups
257 we added interactions between the survey period dummy and each demographic/background
258 characteristic variable. Subgroup estimates of changes over time were produced using the
259 margins command after a logistic regression model including the relevant interaction terms.
260 We used the Stata *lincom* command to estimate whether changes in the prevalence of mental
261 health problems from 2017-2019 to subsequent COVID-19 survey waves differed between
262 populations subgroups. In supplementary analyses we also gauged whether changes in mental
263 health problems, as gauged using the GHQ ≥ 3 cut-off, differed between those with/without a
264 pre-existing diagnosis of clinical depression.

265 Finally, to contextualize our estimates, we examined all available GHQ data from the
266 12 waves of the UKHLS: waves 1-9 conducted between 2009 and 2019 and April, May, and
267 June, 2020 COVID-19 survey waves. We used weighted logistic regression analysis with
268 standard errors clustered at the individual level to produce estimates of the percentage of the
269 population experiencing mental health problems from 2009 to 2019 and during the COVID-
270 19 pandemic. In addition, we used the 2009-2019 UKHLS panel data to estimate typical
271 seasonal trends in mental health difficulties as gauged using the GHQ-12.

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Results

277 **Sample characteristics**

278 The analytical sample for our longitudinal analyses included 14,393 participants
279 (52.2% females). The sample was predominantly white (91.5%) and the average age was 50.7
280 (range 18-96). 40.3% of the sample possessed a degree and 52.1% were married (see Table
281 1). 7.7% of the sample were classified as at at risk/clinical vulnerability of COVID-19. The
282 number of mental health symptoms reported increased from 1.95 (SD=3.3) in 2017-2019 to
283 2.8 (SD=3.4) in April, 2020 and then declined to 2.7 (SD=3.5) in May, 2020 and 2.6 (SD =
284 3.6) in June, 2020. Similarly, a fixed effects regression examining within-person symptom
285 change (see Table S1) showed that 0.95 (95% CI[0.85-1.05], $p < .001$) more symptoms were
286 reported in April, 2020 compared to 2017-2019 and the number of symptoms reported
287 remained 0.69 (95% CI[0.57-0.81], $p < .001$) above baseline levels in June, 2020.

288 The prevalence of mental health problems was 24.7% at baseline and 37.4% in April,
289 2020 during the COVID-19 pandemic an increase of 12.7 percentage points and a 51%
290 increase from baseline levels (see Table 1). The increase in the prevalence of mental health
291 problems from the 2017-2019 wave to April 2020 appeared to be most pronounced amongst
292 those in the 18-34 years old group (increase from 31.5 to 50.8%), females (from 27.1 to
293 41.7%), those with a degree (from 23.1 to 39.3%) and those in the top income tertile (from
294 20.9 to 36.9%). Those at high clinical risk of COVID-19 showed the smallest increase in
295 mental health problems (increased from 39.7 to 45.6%). All sample characteristics and
296 changes in the prevalence of mental health problems are shown in Table 1.

297

298 **Longitudinal change in the prevalence of mental health problems**

299 There was a statistically significant change in the predicted probability of mental
300 health problems from 24.3 percentage points (95% CI [23.1%-25.5%]) to 37.8 points (95%

301 CI [36.4%-39.2%]) between 2017-2019 and April, 2020 in a fully adjusted model, an
302 increase of 13.5 percentage points (95% CI [11.8%-15.1%], $p < .001$) or 56% from baseline
303 levels, as shown in Table 2. Statistically significant increases in the probability of mental
304 health problems were evident for all population subgroups between 2017-2019 and April,
305 2020 with the exception of the COVID-19 at risk group, as outlined in Table 2. Mental health
306 difficulties increased by 10.3% for males (95% CI [8.0%-12.5%]) and by 16.4% for females
307 (95% CI [14.1%-18.7%]), as shown in Table 2. Our postestimation analysis indicated this
308 was a statistically significant difference of 6.1% (95% CI [3.0%-9.3%]), as shown in Table 3.

309 Younger adults (aged 18-34) experienced a 18.6% (95% CI [14.3%-22.9%]) increase
310 in risk of mental health problems whereas those aged 50-64 experienced a 9.3% (95% CI
311 [6.5%-12.2%]) increase, a significant difference of 9.3% (95% CI [4.2%-14.4%]), as shown
312 in Tables 2 and 3. Mental health problems increased by 5.3% more (95% CI [1.5%-9.2%]) in
313 the 35-49 year old group compared to the 50-64 group (see Table 3). Further, socioeconomic
314 status was associated with the rise in mental health problems. Those with a degree
315 experienced a 5.7% (95% CI [2.7%-8.8%]) greater increase in mental health problems than
316 those without a degree (see Table 3) and those in the top income tertile experienced a 5.6%
317 (95% CI[1.8-9.5]) larger increase than those in the bottom income tertile. The rise in mental
318 health problems did not differ significantly by race, marital status, or COVID-19 risk status.

319 We also observed some evidence of recovery in the population prevalence of mental
320 health problems. Our fixed effects analyses showed that the increase in the number of
321 symptoms reported between 2017-2019 and April, 2020 was reduced by 27% (from 0.95 to
322 0.69) between April and June, 2020 (see Table 1). Longitudinal analyses also revealed that
323 the mental health problems declined from a peak of 37.8% in April, to 34.7% in May, and
324 31.9% in June, 2020. Mental health problems recovered by 5.8 percentage points (95%
325 CI[4.3%-7.4%]) between April and June, 2020 representing a 43% decline from peak levels.

326 All subgroups showed a decline in mental health problems between April and June, 2020 (see
327 Table 2) with the exception of non-white participants, potentially reflecting a lack of
328 statistical power to detect changes in this group. Our regression analysis, which
329 simultaneously adjusted for each demographic characteristic of interest, showed that the 18-
330 34 year old group was associated with the largest decline in mental health problems (9.8%;
331 95% CI[5.2%-14.2%]), followed by being female (8%; 95% CI[5.8%-10.1%]) and possessing
332 a university degree (7.4%, 95% CI[5.3%-9.4%]).

333 In supplementary analyses we examined the 8% of the sample with a pre-existing
334 diagnosis of clinical depression. At baseline, our logistic regression analyses showed that
335 50.7% of this group scored above the GHQ threshold for mental health problems compared to
336 22.2% of other participants. However, those with a pre-existing diagnosis of depression did
337 not experience a statistically significant increase in the prevalence of mental health problems
338 during the pandemic (see Table S2) or a significant increase in symptoms (see Table S3). In
339 line with the overall study results, those who had not received a diagnosis of depression
340 experienced a marked increase in mental health problems and symptoms.

341

342 **Full UHKLS panel estimates**

343 Our initial weighted logistic regression models estimated across all survey waves and
344 GHQ-12 assessments administered within the UKHLS (N =65,821; Observations =325,684)
345 showed that there was little change in the prevalence of mental health problems from 2009–
346 2019 despite the presence of major national events such as the Great Recession and the Brexit
347 referendum during this period. The percentage of mental health difficulties was highest in
348 2018/2019 (24.0%/24.6%) and lowest in 2015 (21.8%), as shown in Table 1 and illustrated in
349 Figure 1. In contrast, levels of mental health problems were markedly elevated in April, 2020
350 (37.2%) and remained elevated in May (34.5%) and June, 2020 (31.9%). Further, the role of

351 seasonality was minimal. Our analysis of 2009-2019 data (N =65,098; Observations
352 =290,099) showed that the prevalence of mental health problems was highest in March
353 (23.9%) and December (23.7%) and lowest in August (21.8%) in regression models that
354 adjusted for year effects. Taken together, these analyses provide evidence that the rise in
355 mental health problems occurring during the COVID-19 pandemic is unlikely to be
356 attributable to typical year-to-year or seasonal variation in mental health.

357

358

Discussion

359 In this longitudinal population-based study we tracked changes in mental health problems
360 from before to throughout the COVID-19 crisis. Compared to 2017-2019, mental health
361 problems increased markedly by over 50%, from 24.3 to 37.8 percentage points at the end of
362 April 2020, a time when stay-at-home orders had been in place for over a month in the UK.
363 As well as estimating the extent of the deterioration in mental health during the pandemic, we
364 also examined the distribution of changes in population sub-groups. Although all
365 demographics displayed increases in mental health problems, findings differed based by
366 gender, age and socioeconomic status. Being female and having a higher education or
367 household income level were associated with particularly pronounced increases in mental
368 health problems. Compared to those aged 50-64, younger adults experienced greater declines
369 in mental health and this was particularly pronounced among 18-34 year olds. Adults aged
370 35-49 were also at increased risk of declines in mental health (compared to 50-64 year olds).
371 In line with overall trends, both white and non-white and married/non-married participants
372 experienced similar increases in mental health problems.

373 As such, our findings suggest that the mental health of a substantial proportion of the
374 population may have been affected during the social lockdown phase of the COVID-19 crisis.
375 Findings that younger adults and females showed particularly pronounced declines in mental

376 health may reflect that these groups are known to have an underlying vulnerability to mental
377 health problems (Weinberger et al., 2018). It is now imperative to understand the mechanisms
378 underlying these trends. Many young adults are at the margins of the labor market and may
379 be disproportionately impacted by the employment declines associated with the pandemic
380 (Bell & Blanchflower, 2020; Cortes, 2020). Females may also be experiencing a
381 disproportional burden of the economic shock associated with COVID-19. For example, in
382 the UK mothers in two-parent households have experienced greater increases in childcare
383 responsibilities, interruptions to paid work, and job loss compared to fathers in such
384 households (Andrew et al., 2020).

385 More participants with a university degree or high household income levels
386 experienced an increase in mental health problems at the time of the pandemic. This finding
387 is in line with a study of US adults which found that higher education level was associated
388 with greater concerns about the consequences of COVID-19 (e.g. becoming seriously ill)
389 (Sutin et al., 2020). During March-April there were over 33,000 deaths in the UK attributed
390 to COVID-19 and this information was widely reported in the media (ONS, 2020b). Higher
391 education level may be associated with greater engagement and interest in health information
392 (Saha, 2006), which during the current crisis may have been detrimental to the mental health
393 of some people. It is also plausible that the COVID-19 crisis has resulted in demands that
394 higher socioeconomic position groups are less likely to have previously experienced (e.g.
395 experiences of job instability, childcare difficulties) compared to those of lower
396 socioeconomic status.

397 Findings relating to those whose health may be most at risk because of COVID-19
398 were mixed. Membership of the ‘high risk’ medical conditions group have been advised to
399 socially isolate in the UK and are effectively ‘shielded’ from the virus. Older age (65 years
400 and above), but not at risk group membership was associated with pronounced increases in

401 mental health problems perhaps reflecting that many older adults will be aware they are at
402 increased risk of serious illness, yet because they are not being ‘shielded’ from the virus their
403 risk of infection remains substantial. In addition, we did not find evidence to suggest that
404 individuals with a previous diagnosis of depression were significantly more likely to report
405 an increase in mental health problems, instead prevalence of mental health problems (51%)
406 remained high in this group.

407 Although there has been considerable media coverage of the potentially damaging
408 effects of the COVID-19 crisis on mental health, few longitudinal studies have documented
409 changes in mental health problems from before to during the crisis in representative samples.
410 Studies investigating the link between the pandemic and mental health have been limited by a
411 set of methodological shortcomings including: small sample sizes (Schützwahl & Mergel,
412 2020), relying on the potentially biased recall of respondents to assess downturns in their
413 mental health (Holmes et al., 2020), snowball sampling strategies implemented during the
414 outbreak of COVID-19 (Wang et al., 2020), use of cross-sectional commercial panel surveys
415 rather than existing probability-based longitudinal samples that better represent the general
416 population (Twenge & Joiner, 2020), and employing short periods of follow-up to identify
417 immediate rather than medium term effects (Huckins et al., 2020; Pierce et al., 2020).

418 By using data from the UKHLS probability-based samples combined with survey
419 weights we could ensure that the study findings were generalizable. Further, by drawing on
420 longitudinal data we could ensure that the mental health declines could not be attributed to
421 differences in sampling strategies across time points. The large UKHLS sample also provided
422 sufficient power to estimate patterns of change in mental health problems across population
423 subgroups including those clinically vulnerable to COVID-19. Another strength of this
424 research is we used a well-validated mental health screening tool (GHQ-12) to assess the
425 incidence of mental health problems in the community, rather than rely on data from those

426 who present in healthcare settings with mental health difficulties. Finally, by utilizing three
427 waves of assessment conducted across the duration of the UK lockdown we could assess the
428 persistence of the deterioration in mental health since the onset of the pandemic.

429 In contrast to recent findings showing relatively quick psychological adaptation to the
430 pandemic in the US (Daly & Robinson, 2020), we found that the population increase in
431 mental health problems showed substantial persistence in the UK. Almost 60% of the
432 increase in the prevalence of mental health problems and over 70% of the increase in the
433 number of symptoms reported was maintained by the end of June, 2020. This persistence may
434 reflect the severity of the restrictions imposed throughout the period of April-June, 2020 and
435 the significant health and economic threat associated with COVID-19 in the UK at this time
436 (ONS, 2020a; WHO, 2020). It is also worth noting that on average our fixed effects
437 regression model identified an increase of just one symptom from 2017-2019 to April, 2020.
438 While this rise represents a 50% population increase in the number of symptoms reported
439 over this period, the clinical significance of this change is unclear and likely depends on the
440 extent to which certain individuals experienced a sharper and more sustained increase in
441 mental health symptoms than others.

442 While mental health problems levels did not return to pre-COVID-19 levels there was
443 evidence of adjustment and coping after the initial stress of the pandemic, as the proportion of
444 participants with mental health problems decreased from a high of 37.8% in April to 31.9%
445 in June. The initial rise in mental health problems followed by a downward trend observed
446 across May and June is consistent with a pattern of 'recovery', that is commonly observed in
447 response to stressful or traumatic life events (Infurna & Luther 2018). However, as social
448 lockdown measures continue to be eased in the UK for some, but not all (i.e. continued
449 shielding of at-risk groups), it will be imperative to understand whether these initial changes

450 in mental health return to baseline levels over a more prolonged period and whether there are
451 specific population sub-groups who experience lasting psychological consequences.

452 As the present findings indicate that a significant number of people are likely to be
453 experiencing mental health problems during the COVID-19 crisis, it will be important to
454 ensure that those most at risk receive support. In particular, the increased risk of developing
455 mental health problems among younger adults is concerning, as this is a group who may be
456 experiencing mental health difficulties for the first time and therefore in need of early
457 intervention. Previous research has established the substantial lifetime economic costs of
458 mental health problems (e.g. through sickness absence and job loss) (Trautmann, Rehm, &
459 Wittchen, 2016). As such, investment in mental health treatment programmes and supports is
460 crucial, both to mitigate debilitating mental health symptoms and help maintain labor market
461 prospects during and in the aftermath of the challenging period of the pandemic.

462 This research has several limitations. The response rate in the COVID-19 survey was
463 lower than typical in the UKHLS and although we adjusted for differential nonresponse
464 through weighting our analyses, it may be the case that findings underestimate the magnitude
465 of change in mental health problems (e.g. those experiencing declines in mental health during
466 the COVID-19 crisis may have been more likely to have been lost to attrition). The UKHLS
467 assesses those in private households only, meaning that those in at-risk settings such as
468 nursing homes, prisons, and in-patient psychiatric facilities were not sampled. Our sample
469 had few Black, Asian and minority ethnic participants (8.5%) and it will be important for
470 further research to identify the mental health burden associated with COVID-19 in BAME
471 groups. Finally, whilst the GHQ-12 has been shown to be a valid screening instrument for
472 assessing anxiety and depression (Aalto et al., 2012; Schmitz, Kruse, Heckrath, Alberti, &
473 Tress, 1999), the scale does not provide a clinical diagnosis of any specific condition.

474 Data were collected before the COVID-19 crisis and again during April-June, 2020.
475 Because data were collected between 1 and 3 years prior to the COVID-19 crisis, declines in
476 mental health may not be fully attributable to the emergence of the crisis. However, we drew
477 on over 300,000 mental health assessments taken over the course of a decade (2009–2019) to
478 show that there was little evidence of either year-to-year or seasonal changes in mental health
479 across previous waves of the UKHLS. As such, it appeared that the size of change observed
480 over a relatively short time span would be extremely unlikely under normal circumstances.

481 In summary, compared to before the emergence of the COVID-19 crisis, the
482 proportion of adults reporting significant mental health problems increased substantially as
483 the pandemic emerged in the UK. Further, the majority of the increase in mental health
484 problems was sustained throughout April to June, 2020. Although trends towards a
485 deterioration in mental health were observed across all demographic groups, initial declines
486 in mental health were particularly pronounced for females, those with higher socioeconomic
487 status and young adults. By late June, 2020 these groups showed significant improvements in
488 their mental health but continued to experience a markedly higher prevalence of mental
489 health problems than prior to the pandemic.

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499 **Data Sharing:** The research data are distributed by the UK Data Service and available at
500 <https://beta.ukdataservice.ac.uk/datacatalogue/studies/study?id=6614>

501

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503

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682 **Table 1.**

683 Sample characteristics and the prevalence of mental health problems for participants assessed in the 2017-2019 and April, May, and June 2020
 684 waves of the UKHLS (N = 14,393; Observations = 48,486).

Survey period	Sample characteristics		Mental health problems ^a						
	2017-2019	April, 2020	Change from 2017-2019	May, 2020	Change from 2017-2019	June, 2020	Change from 2017-2019	Recovery from April to June, 2020	
Variable	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Overall sample	–	24.7	37.4	+12.7***	34.6	+9.9***	31.9	+7.2***	-5.5***
Age group									
18 – 34 y	22.0	31.5	50.8	+19.2***	45.2	+13.7***	41.3	+9.7***	-9.5***
35 – 49 y	24.3	27.1	41.7	+14.7***	38.5	+11.5***	35.7	+8.6***	-6.1***
50 – 64 y	29.0	24.5	33.6	+9.1***	31.9	+7.4***	30.7	+6.2***	-2.9*
65+ y	24.8	15.2	27.7	+12.5***	24.2	+9.0***	21.8	+6.6***	-5.9***
Male	47.8	20.1	29.3	+9.2***	28.0	+7.9***	26.2	+6.1***	-3.1*
Female	52.2	29.1	44.6	+15.5***	40.7	+11.5***	37.0	+7.9***	-7.6***

White	91.5	24.4	37.1	+12.8***	34.2	+9.9***	31.4	+7.0***	-5.8***
Non-white	8.5	27.8	40.4	+12.6***	38.0	+10.2***	37.3	+9.6***	-3.0
Married	52.1	19.0	31.4	+12.4***	28.7	+9.7***	25.7	+6.7***	-5.7***
Not married	47.9	30.4	44.3	+13.9***	41.1	+10.7***	38.8	+8.4***	-5.5***
University degree	40.3	23.1	39.3	+16.1***	35.9	+12.8***	32.3	+9.2***	-6.9***
No degree	59.7	25.7	36.1	+10.4***	33.6	+7.9***	31.6	+5.9***	-4.4***
Income level ^b									
Bottom tertile	36.7	28.9	39.4	+10.5***	38.4	+9.5***	35.3	+6.4***	-4.1*
Middle tertile	31.2	23.6	35.5	+11.9***	32.6	+9.0***	29.6	+6.0***	-5.9***
Top tertile	32.1	20.9	36.9	+16.0***	32.2	+11.2***	30.3	+9.4***	-6.6***
COVID-19 risk	7.7	39.7	45.6	+6.1	40.0	+0.3	39.1	-0.6	-6.7
COVID-19 not elevated risk	92.3	23.4	36.7	+13.3***	34.1	+10.7***	31.3	+7.9***	-5.4***

685 Note: Estimates are derived from weighted data. Age groups are based on age reported during the COVID-19 surveys.

686 ^a Those with a GHQ 'caseness' score ≥ 3 were classified as experiencing mental health problems.

687 ^b Net household income in the 2017-2019 wave of the UKHLS.

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692 **Table 2.**

693 Regression estimates of percentage point changes in mental health problems in the UKHLS from 2017-2019 to April, May, and June 2020 by
 694 population subgroups (N = 14,393; Observations = 48,486).

Variable	Mental health problems ^a							
	Δ 2017-2019 to April, 2020		Δ 2017-2019 to May, 2020		Δ 2017-2019 to June, 2020		Recovery from April to June, 2020	
	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	%	95% CI
Overall	+ 13.5***	(11.8, 15.1)	+10.4***	(8.7, 12.1)	+7.6***	(5.9, 9.4)	-5.8***	(-7.4, -4.3)
Age group								
18 – 34 y	+ 18.6***	(14.3, 22.9)	+13.3***	(4.4, 13.2)	+8.8***	(4.4, 13.2)	-9.8***	(-14.2, -5.2)
35 – 49 y	+ 14.7***	(12.0, 17.3)	+11.9***	(9.1, 14.7)	+8.9***	(5.9, 11.8)	-5.8***	(-8.6, -2.9)
50 – 64 y	+ 9.3***	(6.5, 12.2)	+7.7***	(4.7, 10.8)	+6.2***	(3.0, 9.5)	-3.1*	(-5.6, -0.6)
65+ y	+ 12.4***	(9.3, 15.5)	+9.2***	(6.8, 11.7)	+6.7***	(3.5, 9.9)	-5.7***	(-8.8, -2.5)
Male	+ 10.3***	(8.0, 12.5)	+8.5***	(6.1, 10.8)	+6.8***	(4.4, 9.3)	-3.5**	(-5.8, -1.1)
Female	+ 16.4***	(14.1, 18.7)	+12.2***	(9.9, 14.6)	+8.4***	(6.0, 10.8)	-8.0***	(-10.1, -5.8)

White	+ 13.6***	(11.9, 15.2)	+10.4***	(8.7, 12.1)	+7.5***	(5.7, 9.3)	-6.1***	(-7.7, -4.4)
Non-white	+ 12.7***	(5.8, 19.6)	+10.1**	(3.4, 16.8)	+9.3**	(2.8, 15.8)	-3.4	(-9.3, 2.5)
Married	+ 13.6***	(11.6, 15.6)	+10.5***	(8.6, 12.4)	+7.5***	(5.5, 9.5)	-6.1***	(-7.9, -4.3)
Not married	+ 13.6***	(10.9, 16.3)	+10.5***	(7.7, 13.3)	+7.9***	(5.1, 10.8)	-5.6***	(-8.4, -2.9)
University degree	+ 16.9***	(15.0, 18.8)	+13.2***	(11.2, 15.2)	+9.5***	(7.6, 11.4)	-7.4***	(-9.4, -5.3)
No degree	+ 11.2***	(8.8, 13.6)	+8.6***	(6.1, 11.0)	+6.5***	(3.9, 9.0)	-4.8***	(-7.1, -2.4)
Income level ^b								
Bottom tertile	+11.2***	(8.0, 14.3)	+10.3***	(6.9, 13.7)	+7.0***	(3.6, 10.5)	-4.2**	(-7.1, -1.2)
Middle tertile	+ 12.8***	(10.0, 15.7)	+9.6***	(6.8, 12.3)	+6.4***	(3.5, 9.3)	-6.4***	(-9.3, -3.6)
Top tertile	+16.7***	(14.4, 19.0)	+11.3***	(9.1, 13.6)	+9.5***	(7.1, 11.9)	-7.2***	(-9.5, -4.8)
COVID-19 risk	+7.7	(-1.1, 16.4)	+2.1	(-5.5, 9.7)	-0.7	(-8.8, 7.4)	-8.3*	(-15.4, -12.7)
COVID-19 not elevated risk	+13.9***	(12.3, 15.5)	+11.0***	(9.3, 12.7)	+8.3***	(6.6, 10.0)	-5.6***	(-7.2, -4.0)

695 *Note:* Estimates are from marginal effects calculated after a logistic regression with standard errors adjusted for clustering at the individual-level
696 and controlling for all characteristics presented. Age groups are based on age reported in April-June, 2020 survey waves.

697 ^a Those with a GHQ ‘caseness’ score ≥ 3 were classified as experiencing mental health problems.

698 ^b Net household income in the 2017-2019 wave of the UKHLS.

699 * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

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702 **Table 3.**

703 Regression estimates of percentage point changes in mental health problems from 2017-2019 to April, 2020 and April to June, 2020 comparing
 704 differences between population subgroups.

Variable	Subgroup differences in changes in mental health		Subgroup differences in changes in mental health	
	from 2017-2019 to April, 2020		recovery from April to June, 2020	
	(%) ^a	95% CI	(%) ^a	95% CI
Age group				
(comparison is 50 – 64 y)				
18 – 34 y	+ 9.3***	(4.2, 14.4)	-6.7**	(-11.8, -1.6)
35 – 49 y	+ 5.3**	(1.5, 9.2)	-2.7	(-6.5, 1.1)
65+ y	+ 3.1	(-1.1, 7.3)	-2.6	(-6.7, 1.5)
Female ^b	+ 6.1***	(3.0, 9.3)	-4.6**	(-7.8, -1.3)
White ^c	+0.8	(-6.2, 7.9)	-2.5	(-8.6, 3.6)
Married ^d	0.0	(-3.4, 3.4)	-0.5	(-3.7, 2.8)
University degree ^e	+ 5.7***	(2.7, 8.8)	-2.6	(-5.7, 0.5)

Income level ^f (comparison is low)				
Middle tertile	+1.7	(-2.6, 6.0)	-2.2	(-6.3, 1.9)
Top tertile	+5.6**	(1.8, 9.5)	-3.0	(-6.7, 0.8)
COVID-19 risk	+6.5	(-2.3, 15.3)	-2.5	(-9.7, 4.7)

705 *Note:* Estimates are from marginal effects calculated after a population-averaged logistic regression with standard errors adjusted for clustering
706 at the individual-level and controlling for all characteristics presented. Age groups are based on age reported in April, 2020.

707 ^a Those with a GHQ ‘caseness’ score ≥ 3 were classified as experiencing mental health problems.

708 ^b Difference between females and males in the change in mental health problems between time points.

709 ^c Difference between whites and non-whites in the change in mental health problems between time points.

710 ^d Difference between married and non-married participants in the change in mental health problems between time points.

711 ^e Difference between those with/without a degree in the change in mental health problems between time points.

712 ^f Net household income in the 2017-2019 wave of the UKHLS.

713 * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

714 **Table 4.**

715 Logistic regression estimates of year-to-year (2009-2020) and seasonal changes in the percentage of mental health problems in the UKHLS.

Variable	Mental health problems (%) ^a	95% CI	Variable	Mental health problems (%) ^a	95% CI
Year			Month ^b		
2009	23.5	(22.8, 24.2)	January	23.2	(22.5, 23.9)
2010	23.0	(22.6, 23.5)	February	23.5	(22.7, 24.2)
2011	23.1	(22.6, 23.6)	March	23.9	(23.2, 24.7)
2012	23.1	(22.6, 23.5)	April	23.5	(22.7, 24.2)
2013	23.5	(23.0, 24.0)	May	23.3	(22.5, 24.0)
2014	23.0	(22.5, 23.5)	June	22.7	(21.9, 23.5)
2015	21.8	(21.3, 22.3)	July	22.1	(21.4, 22.8)
2016	22.5	(22.0, 23.1)	August	21.8	(21.0, 22.5)
2017	23.7	(23.1, 24.3)	September	22.7	(22.0, 23.5)
2018	24.0	(23.1, 24.9)	October	22.9	(22.2, 22.6)
2019	24.6	(22.0, 27.2)	November	23.5	(22.7, 24.2)

04/2020	37.2	(36.2, 38.3)	December	23.7	(22.9, .24.6)
05/2020	34.5	(33.1, 36.0)			
06/2020	31.9	(30.4, 33.4)			

716 Note. Estimates are derived from weighted data. Estimates are from marginal effects calculated after a logistic regression clustered by the
717 individual participant identifier.

718 Sample for year analysis: N = 65,821; Obs. = 325,684 and sample for month analysis: N = 65,098; Obs. = 290,099

719 ^a Those with GHQ ‘caseness’ score ≥ 3 classified as experiencing mental health problems.

720 ^b Analyses examine month effects from 2009 – 2019 in logistic regression models including year fixed effects.

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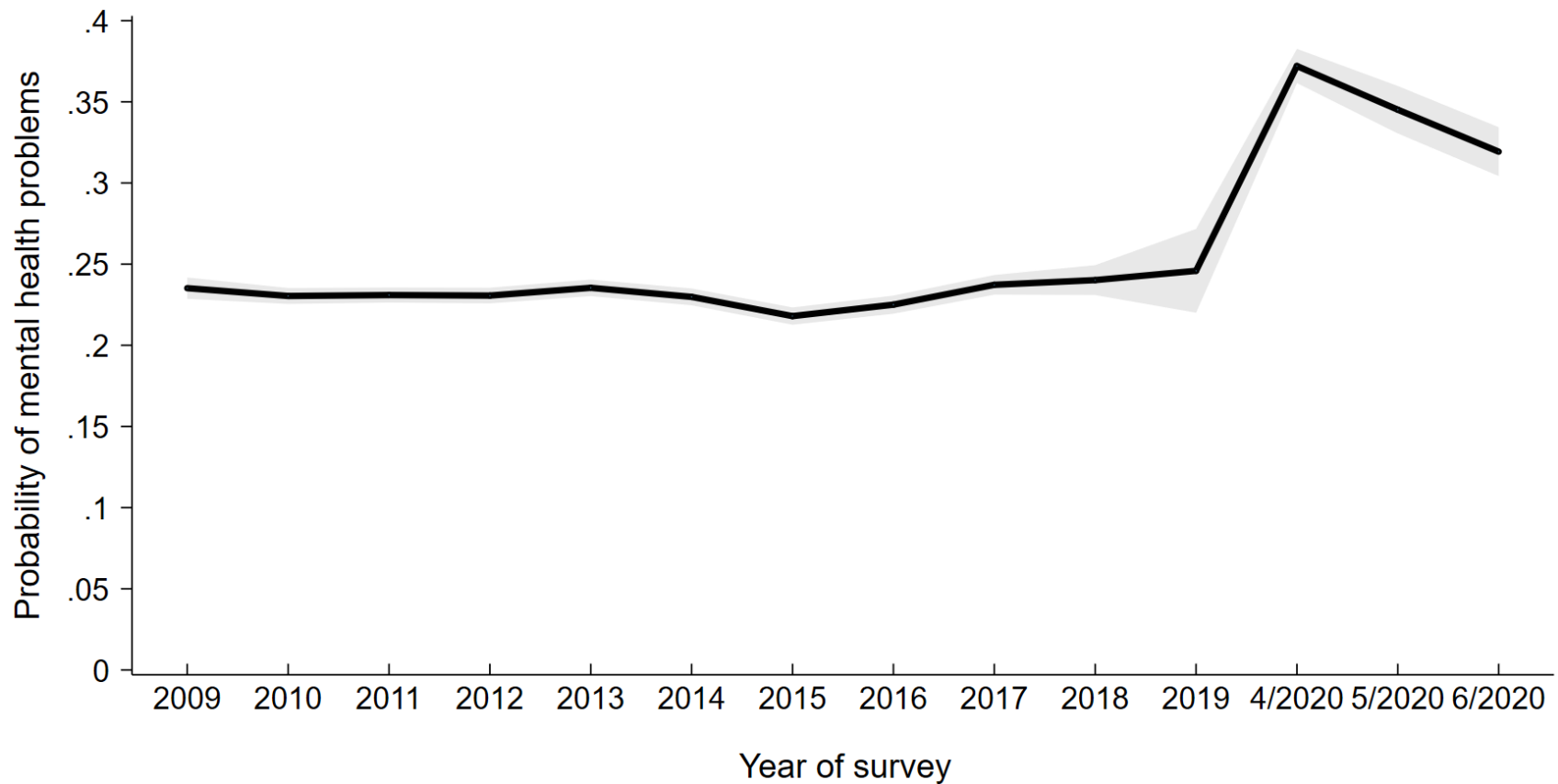
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736 **Figure 1.**

737 Predicted probability of mental health problems in each year of the UKHLS across nine waves of data collection from 2009-2019 and three
738 waves collected in April (4/2020), May (5/2020) and June (6/2020) of 2020. Trends shown are derived from a logistic regression model with
739 clustered standard errors (N =65,821; Observations =325,684). 95% confidence intervals presented in grey. *Note:* 2019 estimate includes a
740 reduced number of assessments (N = 1,454).

741 **Table S1.**

742 Fixed effects regression estimates of within-person changes in the number of mental health
 743 symptoms reported in the UKHLS from 2017-2019 to April, May, and June 2020.

Variable	Δ Mental health symptoms ^a	95% CI	p
Wave (comparison is 2017-2019)			
April, 2020	0.95	(0.85, 1.05)	< .001
May, 2020	0.81	(0.70, 0.92)	< .001
June, 2020	0.69	(0.57, 0.81)	< .001

744 *Note:* Estimates are from fixed effects regression models with survey weights applied and
 745 time invariant covariates omitted.

746 ^a Number of GHQ symptoms experienced in the past few weeks on a scale ranging from 0-12
 747 symptoms.

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757 **Table S2.**

758 Regression estimates of percentage point changes in mental health problems from 2017-2019 to April, May, and June, 2020 for those
 759 with/without a pre-existing diagnosis of clinical depression.

Variable	Mental health problems ^a							
	2017-2019		Δ 2017-2019 to April, 2020		Δ 2017-2019 to May, 2020		Δ 2017-2019 to June, 2020	
	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	%	95% CI
Clinical depression diagnosis	50.7	(46.1, 55.3)	+3.0	(-1.7, 7.7)	+2.9	(-4.1, 9.9)	0.0	(-7.0, 7.1)
No clinical depression diagnosis	22.2	(20.9, 23.4)	+14.5***	(12.7, 16.3)	+11.2***	(9.5, 12.9)	8.4***	(6.6, 10.2)

760 *Note:* Estimates are from marginal effects calculated after a logistic regression with standard errors adjusted for clustering at the individual-level
 761 and controlling for covariates (i.e. age, sex, race/ethnicity, marital status, educational attainment, household income, high clinical risk).

762 ^a Those with a GHQ ‘caseness’ score ≥ 3 were classified as experiencing mental health problems.

763 * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

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765 **Table S3.**

766 Regression estimates of changes in the number of mental health symptoms reported from 2017-2019 to April, May, and June, 2020 for those
 767 with/without a pre-existing diagnosis of clinical depression.

Mental health symptoms ^a						
Variable	Δ 2017-2019 to April, 2020		Δ 2017-2019 to May, 2020		Δ 2017-2019 to June, 2020	
	b	95% CI	b	95% CI	b	95% CI
Clinical depression diagnosis	0.25	(-0.12, 0.63)	0.32	(-0.11, 0.74)	0.28	(-0.19, 0.76)
No clinical depression diagnosis	1.01***	(0.91, 1.11)	0.85***	(0.74, 0.96)	0.72***	(0.61, 0.84)

768 *Note:* Estimates are from separate fixed effects regression analyses conducted for those with/without a diagnosis of clinical depression.

769 ^a Number of GHQ symptoms experienced in the past few weeks on a scale ranging from 0-12 symptoms.

770 * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

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