

2 **Anxiety Linked to COVID-19: A Systematic Review**

3 **Comparing Anxiety rates in Different populations**

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11 **Abstract:** The COVID-19 pandemic has incited a rise in anxiety, with uncertainty
12 regarding the specific impacts and risk factors across multiple populations. A
13 qualitative systematic review was conducted to investigate the prevalence and
14 associations of anxiety in different sample populations in relation to the COVID-
15 19 pandemic. Four databases were utilised in the search (Medline, EMBASE,
16 CINAHL and PsycINFO). The review period commenced in April 2021 and was
17 finalised on the 5th of July (2021). A total of 3537 studies were identified of which
18 87 were included in the review (sample size: 755,180). Healthcare workers had the
19 highest prevalence of anxiety (36%), followed by university students (34.7%), the general
20 population (34%), teachers (27.2%), parents (23.3%), pregnant women (19.5%) and
21 police (8.79%). Risk factors such as being female, having pre-existing mental conditions,
22 lower socioeconomic status, increased exposure to infection and being younger all
23 contributed to worsened anxiety. The review included studies published before July
24 2021, due to the ongoing nature of the COVID-19 pandemic, this may have
25 excluded relevant papers. Restriction to only English papers and sample size >
26 1000 may have also limited the range of papers included. These findings identifies
27 groups who are most vulnerable to developing anxiety in a pandemic and what
28 specific risk factors are most common across multiple populations.

29 **Keywords:** COVID-19; Anxiety; Mental Health; Qualitative systematic review

31 **1. Introduction**

32 Infectious disease outbreaks have plagued human history for
33 millennia, with an occurrence not unknown to man, the effects of these
34 outbreaks have eluded many. With the complexities of society, there are
35 a plethora of ways these events may cause mental turmoil. Anxiety is a
36 condition perpetuated by stressful environments, when worry and fear
37 regarding real or perceived threats hijacks an individual's ability to
38 regulate these emotions. Infectious disease outbreaks often evolve into
39 epidemics or pandemics, which bring about financial instability,
40 quarantine and lockdowns, social isolation and the complete disturbance
41 of the norm. It is in this state of pandemonium that mental health
42 deterioration may occur.

43 Officially declared by the World Health Organisation (WHO) as a
44 pandemic in March 2020 (WHO, 2021), COVID-19 has transformed the
45 way the world functions and triggered an altered perception of the effects

46 and consequences of infectious disease. Originating in Wuhan, China,
47 COVID-19 has spread rapidly worldwide, with 4,574,089 globally
48 reported deaths as of September 2021 (WHO, 2021). An epidemiological
49 measurement called the basic reproduction number, or R_0 , is the average
50 number of secondary cases that are derived from a single primary
51 infection, with any number over one causing exponential infection
52 growth (Locatelli et al., 2021). With an average R_0 of 3.38, COVID-19 is
53 highly transmissible (Alimohamadi et al., 2020). This transmissibility has
54 resulted in astonishing rates of infection and has placed a massive
55 demand on hospital resources, challenging even the most established
56 healthcare systems (Liu et al., 2020a). The physical manifestations of
57 COVID-19 are apparent in the overburdened hospitals and long-lasting
58 adverse effects of the disease. The scale of infection has been linked to
59 psychological distress, implying something sinister may be emerging, a
60 mental health crisis (Rajkumar, 2020).

61 Past infectious disease outbreaks, such as the severe acute
62 respiratory syndrome (SARS), swine flu (H1N1) and Ebola, have, in each
63 case, shown an increased prevalence of anxiety (Lee et al., 2007b;
64 Lehmann et al., 2016). In the last two years, similar findings have been
65 widely published regarding the COVID-19 pandemic (Bendau et al.,
66 2021). A delineation between the COVID-19 pandemic and past
67 infectious disease outbreaks are apparent through the unprecedented
68 implementation of lockdowns, social isolation and quarantines effecting
69 the global populace. The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) reported
70 that the incidence of anxiety had doubled in 2020 compared to previous
71 years (ABS, 2020). A longitudinal study conducted in the United
72 Kingdom (UK) stipulated that one month into lockdown orders, mental
73 distress levels well exceeded the predicted trajectories of previous years
74 (Pierce et al., 2020).

75 As the COVID-19 pandemic is ongoing, the long-term mental health
76 effects are not yet known (Wu et al., 2021). During the SARS outbreak a
77 range of literature concluded that the mental health consequences of
78 SARS were not entirely immediate and lagged in comparison to the
79 infectious outbreak (Chen et al., 2006; Lancee et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2007a;
80 Lee et al., 2007b; Mak et al., 2009). Psychological distress among SARS
81 survivors showed a 64% prevalence one year after the initial outbreak
82 (Lee et al., 2007b). These results may be indicative of the effects we can
83 expect from the current pandemic.

84 Studies exploring different population groups affected by COVID-
85 19 have identified some common risk factors associated with a higher
86 likelihood of developing anxiety symptoms, including; younger age
87 groups, being female, having pre-existing mental health issues and lower
88 socioeconomic status (SES) populations (Bohlken et al., 2021; Daly et al.,
89 2020). The effects of COVID-19 on healthcare workers, the general
90 population and other vulnerable groups such as pregnant women have
91 been well documented. Reviews conducted on the comparison between
92 health care workers and the general population have been extensive.
93 However, no review comparing multiple different groups, namely, that
94 of healthcare workers, the general population, university students, and
95 other vulnerable groups (pregnant women, the elderly, teachers and
96 police) currently exists.

97 The present study aims to, (1) systematically review and identify the
98 prevalence and associations of anxiety in COVID-19 within multiple
99 affected populations and (2) identify common risk factors across the

100 population groups, to aid the treatment of global mental health. The
101 identification of vulnerable groups may aid in developing stronger
102 accuracy in intervention strategies for future pandemics.

103 **2. Methods**

104 This qualitative systematic review was conducted to compare the
105 anxiety levels amongst different sample populations in relation to the
106 COVID-19 pandemic. The present review was structured on the Preferred
107 Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analyses (PRISMA)
108 criteria (Moher et al., 2009).

109 *2.1. Eligibility Criteria*

110 The inclusion of only full peer-reviewed journal publications with
111 available full text was sourced for the present review. Only papers
112 published within the last two years (2020-2021) were included. The
113 purpose of the implementation of this timeframe was to limit the results
114 to the COVID-19 pandemic. Non-English language publications and
115 papers with formats such as letters to the editor, books/book chapters,
116 short commentaries, review articles, news releases and research
117 highlights were excluded.

118 Further exclusions included any studies on participants less than 18
119 years of age and those focused on populations containing comorbidities.
120 Qualitative and mixed-method studies were also excluded from the
121 study. Reasons pertaining to this exclusion include a higher likelihood of
122 methodological bias and difficulties, as well as issues relating to the
123 appraisal and synthesis of such data (Dixon-Woods et al., 2001). Studies
124 that implemented self-made, unvalidated methods such as
125 questionnaires were also excluded to ensure the papers included were of
126 a uniform standard. The final mode of exclusion was based on sample
127 size. The initial search on COVID-19 yielded many results to confirm that
128 only the most vital papers were included; any studies with sample sizes
129 less than 1000 were excluded (Turner et al., 2013).

130 *2.2. Literature Search*

131 The review period commenced in April of 2021, and was followed
132 by further updates in May, June and July. The final search was updated
133 on the 5th of July. Papers reporting the prevalence of anxiety in COVID-
134 19 were selected for the review. The databases selected for the search
135 were EMBASE, OVID MEDLINE, PsycINFO and CINAHL. These
136 databases were chosen as they are likely to yield the most relevant results
137 targeting the research question and selection criteria. The relevance of
138 these databases is attributed to their comprehensive coverage and
139 inclusion of various academic journals. Table 1 shows the full search
140 strategy implemented for each database.

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Table 1. – Search strategy implemented and results generated from each of the four databases utilised.

| Database | Search Terms | Search Limiters | Result | |
|-------------------------|--------------|-----------------|--------------------|------|
| EMBASE (Ovid) | (Coronavirus | OR | Journal Article | 226 |
| | COVID-19) | AND | English | |
| | (Anxiety) | | 2020-2021 | |
| | | | No Medline Results | |
| Medline (Ovid) | (Coronavirus | OR | Journal Article | 2641 |
| | COVID-19) | AND | English | |
| | (Anxiety) | | 2020-2021 | |
| | | | | |
| CINAHL (EBSCO) | (Coronavirus | OR | Journal Article | 268 |
| | COVID-19) | AND | English | |
| | (Anxiety) | | 2020-2021 | |
| | | | No Expanders | |
| psycINFO (EBSCO) | (Coronavirus | OR | Journal Article | 402 |
| | COVID-19) | AND | English | |
| | (Anxiety) | | 2020-2021 | |
| | | | No Expanders | |

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2.3. Study selection

The total number of search results from all four databases were imported into the Endnote version 20.1 (Australia) software. A final number of 3537 journal articles were imported for the review on COVID-19 and anxiety. Figure 1 summarises the methodology and shows the steps taken to derive the final number of papers. During the identification phase, 3537 papers were identified as relevant to the search terms, and a total of 547 duplicate papers were removed. Following the subsequent screening, 2990 studies were screened and from these, 2822 were excluded for various reasons. Reasons for exclusion included studies not meeting the inclusion criteria (44), being outside of the scope of the project (19) and not reporting on anxiety (18). One hundred and sixty-eight papers were sought for retrieval in full text, with a further 81 articles excluded for reasons detailed in Figure 1. A total of 87 papers were deemed eligible for inclusion in the present review.

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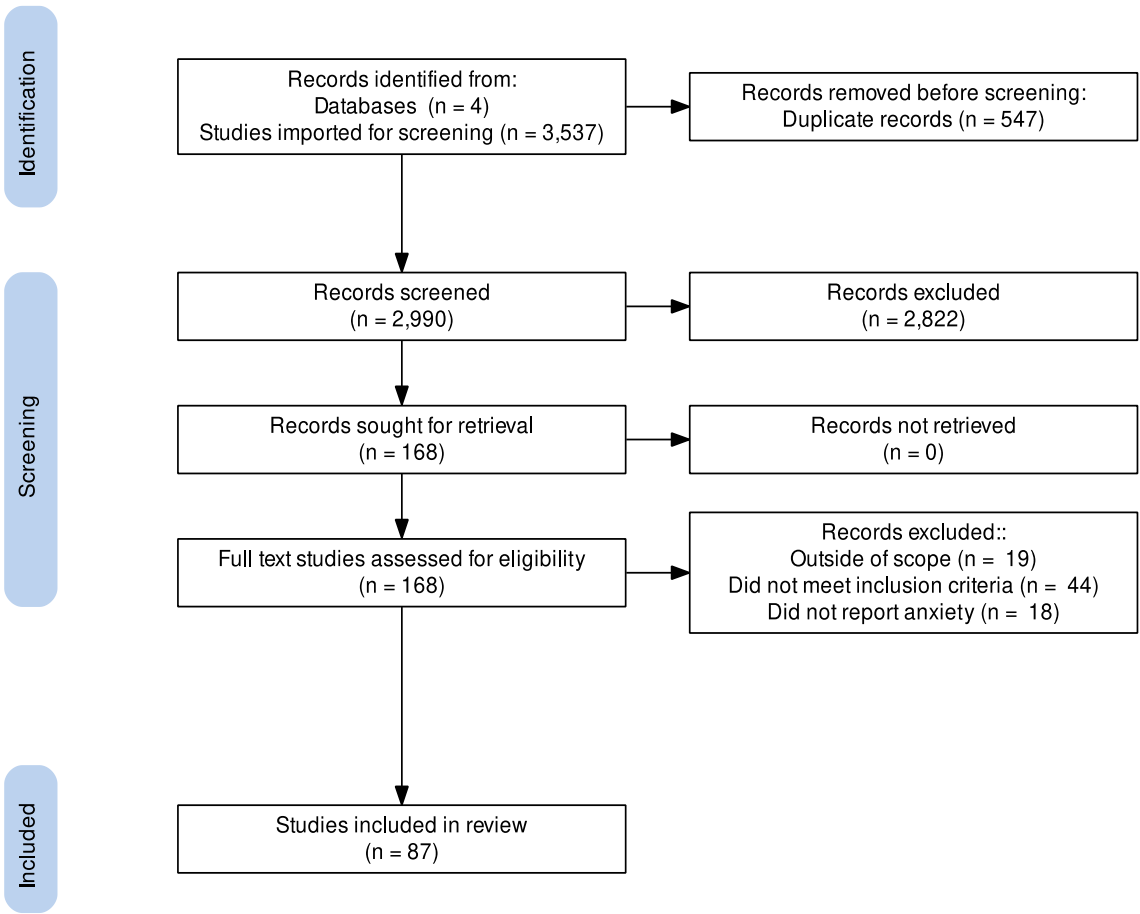


Figure 1. PRISMA flow diagram. The final number of papers included in the review was 87.

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2.4. Quality assessment

Two authors, HS and AE, screened the studies in full text to determine the eligibility for inclusion. Any dispute in the inclusion of studies were resolved as the authors came to an agreement. The study design, quality, and methods were compared against The Joanna Briggs Institute (JBI) critical appraisal tool to ensure an adequate standard to be included in the review (Munn et al., 2014). The JBI critical appraisal tool provided varying checklists depending on the nature and design of the paper, with the most utilised checklist in this review being the checklist for analytical cross-sectional studies, as the majority of the selected papers used a cross-sectional study design.

2.5. Data Extraction and Synthesis

The studies were imported into Microsoft Excel version 16.54 (Australia), where the data for the results were extracted. The sample sizes, other study characteristics, study design, psychometric scores, results, and main findings of each study were extracted for the review. The results were collated into groups corresponding to the different population types.

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3. Results

3.1. Study Characteristics

The sample size assessed in this review, derived from the total sample size of each study included in the review, was $n = 755,180$ with approximately $n = 432,944$ females, $n = 280,089$ males and $n = 42,147$ participants that identified as other or did not report their sex. The age range of individuals within the included papers was 18-100 years and encompassed participants from 32 countries, with the highest number of studies originating from China (26/87 studies). The majority of studies were cross-sectional in design (70 studies), followed by longitudinal studies (13 studies), cohort studies (3 studies) and one case-control. All studies utilised validated psychometric measures, with the most common measure being the generalised anxiety disorder (GAD) 7 item scale (Williams, 2014) (43 studies). A summary of the study characteristics and anxiety prevalence is detailed in Table 2.

| reference | Study design | Population Type | Country | Sample size | Sex | Assessment Tools | Prevalence of Anxiety (%) |
|--------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|-------------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Aharon et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | General population | Israel and Italy | 1015 | Sex (f/m): 506/509 | PHQ-4, SF-8 | 50.2% of Italian and 42.2% of Israelis |
| Albagmi et. al, 2012 | Cross-sectional | General population | Saudi Arabia | 3017 | Sex: (f/m) 1690/1327 | GAD-7 | 80% (mild), 11.4% (moderate), 8.2% (severe) |
| Alshekaili et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | Healthcare workers | Oman | 1139 | Sex (f/m): 911/228 | DASS-21 | 34.1% |
| Antonijevic et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | Healthcare workers | Serbia | 1678 | Sex (f/m): 1315/363 | GAD-7 | 43.31% (minimal), 30.9% (mild), 12.99% (moderate), 12.8% (severe). |
| Ausin et. al, 2020 | longitudinal | General population | Spain | 1041 | Sex (f/m): 841/ 200 | GAD-2 | N/A |
| Batterham et. al, 2021 | longitudinal | General population | Australia | 1296 | Sex (f/m): 649/647 | GAD-7, PHQ-9 | 77% |
| Bendau et. al, 2020 | Longitudinal Observational | General population | Germany | 2376 | Sex (f/m): 1822/542 | GAD-2, PHQ-4 | N/A |
| Budimir et. al, 2021 | Cross-sectional | General population | Austria and UK | 2011 | Sex (f/m): 1067/944 | GAD-7 | 18.9% UK and 6% Austria |
| Cai et. al, 2020 | case-control | Healthcare workers | China | 2346 | Sex (f/m): 1644/702 | BAI | Frontline 15.7%, non-frontline 7.4% |
| Canet-Juric et. al, 2020 | longitudinal | General population | Argentina | 6057 | Sex (f/m): 4886/1131 - 20: other | STAI | N/A |
| Cao et. al, 2020 | Cluster Sampling | University Students | China | 7143 | Sex (f/m): 4975/2168 | GAD-7 | Mild (21.3%), moderate (2.7%), severe (0.9%) |
| Chen et. al, 2021 | Cross-sectional | General population (quarantined) | China | 1837 | Sex (f/m): 1512/325 | STAI | 16.3% |
| Chew et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | Healthcare workers | India, Indonesia, Singapore, Malaysia and Vietnam | 1146 | Sex(f/m): 2544/923 | DASS-21 | India (0.8%), Singapore (3.6%), Vietnam (6.7%), Indonesia (6.8%) and Malaysia (14.9%) |
| Dawel et. al, | longitudinal | General population | Australia | 1296 | Sex (f/m): 649/645 | GAD-7, PHQ-9, WHO-5 | N/A |
| Denning et. al, 2021 | Cross-sectional | Healthcare workers | UK, Poland and Singapore | 3537 | Sex (f/m): 2544/923 | HADS | 20% |
| Di Blasi et. al, 2021 | longitudinal | General population | Italy | 1129 | Sex (f/m): 893/236 | DASS-21 | N/A |
| Di Giuseppe et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | General population | Italy | 5683 | Sex (f/m): 4256/1427 | SCL-90 | 51.1% |
| Di Mattei et. al, 2021 | Baseline assessment | Healthcare workers | Italy | 1055 | Sex (f/m): 799/256 | DASS-21 | 69.4% |

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|-------------------------------|-----------------|-------------------------------------------|------------|--------|---------------------------------------------------------------|--------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Fiorillo et. al, 2020 | longitudinal | General population | Italy | 20,720 | Sex (f/m): 14,720/6000 | DASS-21, GHQ | Moderate (16.7%) and severe or extremely severe (17.6%) |
| Fisher et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | General Population | Australia | 13,829 | Sex (f/m): 10,434/3328 | GAD-7, PHQ-9 | 21% |
| Fu et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | General population | China | 1242 | Sex (f/m): 866/376 | GAD-7, PHQ-9 | 27.6% |
| Fu et. al, 2021 | Cross-sectional | University students | China | 89,588 | Sex (f/m): 50, 394/39,194 | GAD-7 | 41.1% |
| Gainer et. al, 2021 | Cross-sectional | Healthcare workers | US | 1724 | Sex (f/m): 959/750 | GAD-7, PHQ-9 | 36.5% |
| Garcia-Fernandez et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | Elderly population | Spain | 1639 | Sex (f/m): | HARS | N/A |
| Garcia-Fernandez et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | General population | Spain | 1635 | Sex (f/m): 1115/520 | HARS | N/A |
| Giardino et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | Healthcare workers | Argentina | 1059 | Sex (f/m): 770/287 | DASS-18 | 76.5% |
| Gundogmus et. al, 2021 | longitudinal | Healthcare Workers | Turkey | 2460 | Sex (f/m): 1637/823 | DASS-21 | 29.6% |
| Hacimusalar et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | Healthcare, non-healthcare | Turkey | 2156 | Sex (f/m): 1547/609 | STAI | 89.5% |
| Halperin et. al, 2021 | Cross-sectional | University students | US | 1428 | Sex (f/m): 952/462 (12 non-binary/3rd gender, 2 not answered) | GAD-7, PHQ-9 | 30.6% |
| Hammarberg et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | General population | Australia | 13,762 | Sex (f/m): 10,434/3328 | GAD-7 | 21.8% females, 14.2% males |
| Hassannia et. al, 2021 | Cross-sectional | Healthcare workers and general population | Iran | 2045 | Sex (f/m): 1374/671 | HADS | 65.6% |
| He et. al, 2021 | Cross-sectional | Healthcare workers | China | 1971 | Sex (f/m): 1899/35 | GAD-7 | 29.3% |
| Hennein et. al, 2021 | Cross-sectional | Healthcare workers | US | 1092 | Sex (f/m): 72%/28% | GAD-7 | 15.6% |
| Huang et. al, 2021 | Cross-sectional | Healthcare workers | Singapore | 1638 | Sex (f/m): 1249/389 | GAD-7 | 12.5% |
| Islam et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | University students | Bangladesh | 3122 | Sex (f/m): 40.5%/59.5% | DASS-21 | Mild anxiety (71.5%), moderate (63.6%), severe (40.3%) and very severe (27.5%). |
| Jacques-Avino et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | General population | Spain | 7053 | Sex (f/m): 5014/2039 | GAD-7 | 31.2% females, 17.7% males |

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|----------------------------|-----------------|------------------------------------------|---------|--------|----------------------------------|--------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Jia et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | General population | UK | 3097 | Sex (f/m): 2618/479 | GAD-7 | 57% (26% moderate to severe anxiety) |
| Jiang et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | General population | China | 60,199 | Sex (f/m): 34,418/25,781 | SAI | Mild (33.21%), moderate (41.27%) and severe (22.99%). |
| Johnson et. al, 2021 | longitudinal | Parents | Norway | 2868 | Sex (f/m): 2278/590 | GAD-7 | N/A |
| Kantor and Kantor, 2020 | Cross-sectional | General population | US | 1005 | Sex (f/m): 518/494 | GAD-7 | 52.1% mild, 26.8% anxiety disorder |
| Karaivazoglou et. al, 2021 | Cross-sectional | General population | Greece | 1443 | Sex (f/m): 1052/391 | HADS | 20% |
| Khubchandani et. al 2021 | Cross-sectional | General population | US | 1978 | Sex (f/m): 1008/970 | GAD-2, PHQ-4 | 42% |
| Kim et. al, 2021 | longitudinal | University Students | US | 8613 | Sex (f/m): 2662/977 (2 intersex) | GAD | No significant changes were found in the rates of anxiety from before the pandemic. |
| Lai et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | Healthcare workers | China | 1257 | Sex (f/m): 964/293 | GAD-7 | 44.6% |
| Lei et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | General population | China | 1593 | Sex (f/m): 976/617 | SAS | 8.3% |
| Li et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | Teachers | China | 88,611 | Sex (f/m): 68,169/20,442 | GAD-7 | 13.67% |
| Li et. al, 2021 | Cross-sectional | General population | China | 1201 | Sex (f/m): 763/438 | DASS-21 | 34.2% |
| Liu et. al, 2021 | Cross-sectional | Healthcare workers | China | 1090 | | GAD-7 | 13.3% |
| Liu et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | Healthcare workers (paediatric) | China | 2031 | Sex (f/m): 1737/294 | DASS-21 | 18.3% |
| Lu et. al, 2020a | Cross-sectional | General population and frontline workers | China | 1417 | Sex (f/m): | GAD-7 | 52.1% of the general public and 56% of frontline workers |
| Lu et. al, 2020b | Cross-sectional | Healthcare workers | China | 2299 | Sex (f/m): 1591/451 | HAMA | 22.6% of medical staff showed mild to moderate anxiety and 2.9% were severe |
| Luceno-Moreno et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | Healthcare workers | Spain | 1422 | Sex (f/m): 1228/194 | HADS | 58.6% healthcare workers presented with an anxiety disorder. |
| Mattila et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | Healthcare workers | Finland | 1995 | Sex (f/m): 1731/255 | GAD-7 | 30% mild anxiety, 10% moderate and 5% severe anxiety. |
| Meesala et. al, 2021 | Cross-sectional | General population | India | 1346 | Sex (f/m): 594/752 | CAS-7 | N/A |
| Mosheva et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | Healthcare workers | Israel | 1106 | Sex (f/m): 542/564 | PROMIS | 52.8% |
| Duong et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | General population | Vietnam | 1385 | Sex (f/m): 505/880 | DASS-21 | 14.1% |
| Nkire et. al, 2021 | Cross-sectional | General population | Canada | 6041 | Sex (f/m): 5186/855 | GAD-7 | 46.7% |

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|---------------------------------|-----------------|-------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------|--------|------------------------|--------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Odriozola-Gonzalez et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | University students and workers. | Spain | 2530 | Sex (f/m): 1672/858 | DASS-21, IES | 21.34% |
| Ozamiz-Etxebarria et. al, 2021 | Cross-sectional | Teachers | Spain | 1633 | Sex (f/m): 1293/330 | DASS-21 | 49.5% (8.1% extreme severe and 7.6% severe) |
| Ozamiz-Etxebarria et. al, 2020 | longitudinal | General population | Spain | 1933 | Sex (f/m): 1584/401 | DASS-21 | 26.9% |
| Pandey et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | General population | India | 1395 | Sex (f/m): 805/582 | DASS-21 | Anxiety prevalence was 22.4% in the second week and 26.6% in the third week of lockdowns |
| Passavanti et. al, 2021 | Cross-sectional | General population | Australia, Iran, China, Ecuador, Italy, Norway and the US | 1612 | Sex (f/m): 968/644 | DASS-21 | 44.7% (5.2% mild, 17.4% moderate, 5.8% severe and 16.3% extremely severe). |
| Pieh et. al, 2021 | Cross-sectional | General population | UK | 1006 | Sex (f/m): 544/462 | GAD-7 | 39% |
| Peih et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | General population | Austria | 1005 | Sex (f/m): 530/475 | GAD-7 | 19% |
| Planchuelo-Gomez et. al, 2020 | longitudinal | General population | Spain | 4724 | Sex (f/m): 2304/1246 | DASS-21 | 49.66% |
| Robb et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | Elderly population | UK | 7127 | Sex (f/m): 3855/3114 | HADS | N/A |
| Rossi et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | Healthcare workers and general population | Italy | 24,050 | Sex (f/m): 19334/4717 | GAD-7 | 21.25% in the general population, 18.05% in second line healthcare workers and 20.55% in frontline workers. |
| Ruengorn et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | General population | Thailand | 2303 | Sex (f/m): 1382/921 | GAD-7 | 56.9% |
| Serafim et. al, 2021 | Cross-sectional | General population | Brazil | 3000 | Sex (f/m): 2493/507 | DASS-21 | 39.7% |
| Shen et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | Healthcare Workers | China | 1637 | Sex (f/m): 1471/166 | SAS | 10.02% |
| Sinawi et. al, 2021 | Cross-sectional | General Population | Oman | 1538 | Sex (f/m): 1148/309 | GAD-7 | 22% |
| Solomou et. al, 2020 | Cohort study | General population | Cyprus | 1642 | Sex (f/m): 1176/466 | GAD-7 | 41% mild, 23.1% moderate-severe |
| Sun et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | University Students | China | 1912 | Sex (f/m): 1334/578 | GAD-7 | 34.73% |
| Tang et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | General population | China | 1389 | Sex (f/m): 696/464 | GAD-7 | 70.78% |
| Van der Velden et. al, 2020 | Longitudinal | General population | Holland | 3983 | Sex (f/m): 2020/1963 | GAD-7 | No significant anxiety found |
| Wang et. al, 2021a | Case-control | General population | China | 1674 | Sex (f/m): 843/840 | ADS | 27% in quarantined, 11.2% in general population |
| Wang et. al, 2021b | Cross-sectional | Healthcare workers | China | 1063 | Sex (f/m): 10,396/5427 | GAD-7 | 48.7% in patients, 25.7% general population, 13.3% healthcare |

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| Wang et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | General, covid and health | China | 49,015 | N/A | DASS-21 | 10.02% |
| Wanigasooriya et. al, 2021 | Cross-sectional | Healthcare workers | UK | 2638 | Sex (f/m): 2096/524 | PHQ-4 | 34.31% |
| Warren et. al, 2021 | Cross-sectional | General population | United States | 5023 | Sex (f/m): 2981/2042 | PHQ-4 | 14.4% |
| Wathelet et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | University Students | France | 69,054 | Sex (f/m): 50,251/18,019 | STAI | 27.47% |
| Wu et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | General population | China | 24,789 | Sex (f/m): 11,485/13,304 | STAI | 51.6% |
| Yuan et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | Police | China | 3517 | Sex (f/m): 557/2960 | HADS | 8.79% |
| Zhang et. al, 2020a | Cross-sectional | Healthcare workers | China | 2143 | Sex (f/m): 1890/197 | GAD-7 | 14.23% |
| Zhang et. al, 2020b | Cross-sectional | General population | China | 123,768 | Sex (f/m): 36,438/87,330 | GAD-7 | 3.4% |
| Zhou et. al, 2020 | Cross-sectional | Healthcare workers | China | 1705 | Sex (f/m): 1255/450 | SAS | 45.4% |
| Zilver et. al, 2021 | Cohort study | Pregnant women | Holland | 1466 | 100% female | GAD-7 | 19.5% |

Key: **GAD-7** – Generalised Anxiety Disorder – 7 Item Scale; **DASS-21** – Depression Anxiety Stress Scale – 21 Item; **PHQ-4** – Patient Health Questionnaire – 4 Item; **SAS** – Self-Rating Anxiety Scale; **HARS** – Hamilton Anxiety Rating Scale; **SCL-90** – Symptom Checklist – 90 Item; **CAS** – Coronavirus Anxiety Scale; **PROMIS** – Patient-Reported Outcomes Measurement Information System; **STAI** – State-Trait Anxiety Inventory; **HADS** – Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale.

3.2. *The General Population Group*

The general population was the most common group studied amongst the studies included in the review, with 47 papers focusing on anxiety assessment. The 47 papers comprised of a sample size of $n = 421,598$ participants, with $n = 208,675$ females, $n = 178,187$ males, and $n = 34,736$ other or sex not reported. The prevalence of anxiety ranged from 3.4% - 97.47% across the 47 study populations. The overall pooled anxiety prevalence was 34%, although eight studies did not directly report the prevalence of anxiety in their populations.

Amongst the general population, three studies (Aharon et al., 2021; Dawel et al., 2020; Pieh et al., 2020) showed that the prevalence of anxiety during the COVID-19 pandemic had risen when compared to data from preceding years. That is, in 2017 anxiety rates were 6%, but after the pandemic hit, this figure inflated to 19% (Pieh et al., 2020). Conversely, Velden (2020) reported no significant increase in the prevalence of anxiety in a before and after study comparing mental health rates in 2019 and 2020. However, the authors did note that despite an absence of an increase in anxiety, the risk factors predisposing participants to mental distress had changed since the onset of the pandemic, leaving students, job seekers, those with children and those who housekeep more at risk in 2020 compared to the previous year.

Geographical locations that were identified as COVID-19 epicentres had higher instances of anxiety compared to non-epicentre areas (Aharon et al., 2021; Albagmi et al., 2021; Canet-Juric et al., 2020; Di Giuseppe et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021; Ngoc Cong Duong et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020b). Moreover, COVID-19 prevalent areas that exemplified elevated testing rates reported decreased anxiety (Tang et al., 2020). Those with increased contact with COVID-19 infected individuals exhibited stronger associations with anxiety (Fisher et al., 2020; Passavanti et al., 2021; Serafim et al., 2021), especially if the individual was exposed to COVID-19 in a working environment such as healthcare (Hassannia et al., 2021; Khubchandani et al., 2021). Populations infected with COVID-19 expressed more anxiety than those who were not infected (Fiorillo et al., 2020; Hassannia et al., 2021; Jacques-Avino et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021b). Job loss or financial hardship due to COVID-19 was often a predictor or factor for worse anxiety (Dawel et al., 2020; Ruengorn et al., 2021).

Quarantine and lockdown orders proved detrimental to mental health, as seen in ten studies (Aharon et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2021a; Di Giuseppe et al., 2020; Fisher et al., 2020; Nkire et al., 2021; Ozamiz-Etxebarria et al., 2020a; Pandey et al., 2020; Tang et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021a) with increased loneliness and isolation being the cause of significant increases in anxiety. In an Australian longitudinal study (Batterham et al., 2021), there was a 23% increase in anxiety over a 12-week restriction period. Quarantining alone resulted in lower anxiety than people isolating with elderly dependents (Canet-Juric et al., 2020). Three studies concluded that anxiety levels in populations decreased when rules were eased or when participants were exempted from participating in quarantines (Bendau et al., 2021; Canet-Juric et al., 2020; Lu et al., 2020a).

Certain demographic groups were identified as having a higher prevalence of anxiety or being more at risk of developing adverse mental health issues. Twenty-two studies found that females consistently had

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higher levels of anxiety than males. However, two studies found that males were more anxious when living with dependents under 18 (Garcia-Fernandez et al., 2021; Jacques-Avino et al., 2020) and that younger males had higher instances of anxiety (Hassannia et al., 2021). One study reported that males had higher rates of anxiety than females overall (Wu et al., 2020). Two studies (Nkire et al., 2021) and (Wang et al., 2021a) did not delineate any significant differences between the sexes. Five studies reported that lower socioeconomic status was representative of greater anxiety (Chen et al., 2021a; Fisher et al., 2020; Khubchandani et al., 2021; Lei et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021a). Prior mental illness was also a contributing factor for worse mental health after COVID-19 (Dawel et al., 2020; Fiorillo et al., 2020; Jiang et al., 2020; Kantor & Kantor, 2020; Solomou & Constantinidou, 2020). Younger age groups showed more anxiety than older age groups in sixteen studies (Albagmi et al., 2021; Batterham et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2021a; Dawel et al., 2020; Di Giuseppe et al., 2020; Fisher et al., 2020; Jacques-Avino et al., 2020; Jia et al., 2020; Ozamiz-Etxebarria et al., 2020a; Pandey et al., 2020; Pieh et al., 2020; Serafim et al., 2021; Solomou & Constantinidou, 2020; Wang et al., 2021a; Wang et al., 2021b).

Contrastingly, four studies identified an opposite trend, with elderly and older populations experiencing more anxiety than younger groups (Fu et al., 2020; Meesala et al., 2020; Nkire et al., 2021; Planchuelo-Gomez et al., 2020). Six studies identified having a higher education being associated with worse anxiety (Budimir et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2021a; Fu et al., 2021; Karaivazoglou et al., 2021; Khubchandani et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021a) while two studies identified that lower education equated to increased anxiety (Pandey et al., 2020; Solomou & Constantinidou, 2020). Living alone or remotely and being unemployed were influences on increased anxiety (Fisher et al., 2020; Kantor & Kantor, 2020; Pieh et al., 2020; Solomou & Constantinidou, 2020). Adversely, Fu and colleagues (2020b) indicated that living in a city may be predictive of worse mental health. Two studies reported no difference in the anxiety levels between different demographics, including sex, age, education or socioeconomic status (Passavanti et al., 2021; Rossi et al., 2020).

3.3. Healthcare Worker Group

Healthcare workers constituted the subject of 25 of the 87 studies included in this review, with a total sample size of 43,387 participants. This sample consisted of n = 32,185 females, n = 9675 males, and n = 1527 participants who identified as other. The prevalence of anxiety ranged from 13.3% - 100% in all study populations, with a pooled prevalence of 36%.

Five studies found that the prevalence of anxiety was higher in healthcare workers than in other professions and this included clinical, non-clinical and administrative healthcare workers (Antonijevec et al., 2020; Denning et al., 2021; Mattila et al., 2021; Mosheva et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2020). A greater prevalence of anxiety was found in frontline healthcare responders compared to second-line or non-COVID-19 healthcare workers and this was highlighted in twelve papers (Alshekaili et al., 2020; Antonijevec et al., 2020; Cai et al., 2020; Di Mattei et al., 2021; Gainer et al., 2021; Giardino et al., 2020; Hacimusalar et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2021; Lai et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2020b; Lu et al., 2020b; Zhang et al., 2020a). This was further endorsed as healthcare staff not working in COVID-19 epicentres scored lower for anxiety (He et al., 2021). Amongst

322 clinical healthcare workers, more studies found that nurses suffered to a
323 greater level from anxiety than physicians (Hacimusalar et al., 2020; Lai
324 et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021; Shen et al., 2020). However, this was countered
325 by Lie et al (Liu et al., 2020b), where it was found that physicians
326 displayed more anxiety-like symptomology than nurses. Non-clinical
327 healthcare workers, such as administrative staff and clerks, scored higher
328 on anxiety psychometric measurements than clinical staff (Chew et al.,
329 2020; Giardino et al., 2020; Hennein et al., 2021). One study contradicted
330 this suggesting that anxiety in clinical staff was more significant than that
331 seen in non-clinical staff (Lu et al., 2020b).

332 A lack of resources, including testing equipment and personal
333 protective equipment (PPE), increased the likelihood of anxiety
334 symptoms amongst hospital staff (Huang et al., 2021; Wanigasooriya et
335 al., 2020). Additional anxiety was promoted by the worry of infecting
336 family members with COVID-19 or being infected themselves (Lai et al.,
337 2020; Luceno-Moreno et al., 2020), hence there was a strong association
338 between job risk and anxiety (Shen et al., 2020). Hacimusalar and
339 colleagues found that situational anxiety was much higher in healthcare
340 staff, whereas general anxiety was more common in the broader
341 population (Hacimusalar et al., 2020). During subsequent waves of
342 COVID-19 infection, anxiety levels worsened among healthcare workers
343 (Gundogmus et al., 2021). The increased demand in working hours
344 exposed Healthcare workers, both clinical and non-clinical, to be more at
345 risk (Huang et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2020b). The occurrence of medical
346 violence during peak COVID-19 periods also exacerbated mental health
347 conditions. In ten studies females were found to have increased levels of
348 anxiety (Chew et al., 2020; Gainer et al., 2021; Giardino et al., 2020; He et
349 al., 2021; Huang et al., 2021; Lai et al., 2020; Luceno-Moreno et al., 2020;
350 Shen et al., 2020; Wanigasooriya et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020a). Five
351 papers reported that younger healthcare workers such as trainees
352 experienced more anxiety than older workers (Gainer et al., 2021;
353 Giardino et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2021; Lai et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021),
354 but others reported that older healthcare workers were the more affected
355 group (He et al., 2021; Hennein et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2020a). The
356 existence of a prior mental health illness or living alone were also
357 reported as significant risk factors (Hennein et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2021;
358 Wanigasooriya et al., 2020).

359 *3.4. University Students*

360 Eight papers focused on the prevalence of anxiety in university
361 students (Cao et al., 2020; Fu et al., 2021; Halperin et al., 2021; IslamI et
362 al., 2020; Kim et al., 2021a; Odriozola-Gonzalez et al., 2020; Sun et al.,
363 2021; Wathelet et al., 2020). The total sample size of the student group
364 was $n = 183,390$, with $n = 113,504$ females, $n = 64,114$ males and $n = 2,772$
365 participants who identified as other. The prevalence of anxiety ranged
366 from 0% - 71.5% in all study populations, with the pooled prevalence
367 being 34.7%.

368 IslamI and colleagues (2020) reported that anxiety amongst
369 university students had worsened compared to pre-pandemic rates and
370 with the duration of lockdowns. Conversely, Kim et al., (2021) reported
371 no significant changes in anxiety throughout lockdowns (Kim et al.,
372 2021a). Two papers denoted adverse anxiety related to worry about
373 academics and dissatisfaction with COVID-19 distance learning
374 measures (Cao et al., 2020; IslamI et al., 2020). The impact of restrictions

375 on daily life was proven detrimental to anxiety symptoms (Cao et al.,
376 2020; Odriozola-Gonzalez et al., 2020). The implications of lockdowns
377 resulted in increased loneliness and lack of social support, and both of
378 these factors were uncovered to be responsible for a rapid increase in
379 clinical anxiety scores (Cao et al., 2020; Fu et al., 2020). Although
380 restrictive orders caused some populations to experience more anxiety,
381 another study showed that self-efficacy as a result of isolation decreased
382 anxiety (Sun et al., 2021). Living in a COVID-19 hotspot or personally
383 knowing an infected person were predictors of higher anxiety (Halperin
384 et al., 2021; Wathelet et al., 2020). Sun and colleagues (2021) found that
385 the threat of being infected with COVID-19 and the stigma associated
386 with that caused university students to be more anxious about
387 contracting the infection (Sun et al., 2021). Being exposed to more news
388 and to COVID-19 related social media was strongly associated with
389 worsened anxiety (Sun et al., 2021; Wathelet et al., 2020). Financial
390 instability caused by the pandemic was a significant factor for increased
391 anxiety in four studies (Cao et al., 2020; Fu et al., 2021; Sun et al., 2021;
392 Wathelet et al., 2020). Further, residing with more than five family
393 members was also predictive of anxiety (Halperin et al., 2021). Five
394 studies identified female students as having higher scores of anxiety
395 compared to male students (Fu et al., 2021; Halperin et al., 2021; Sun et
396 al., 2021; Wathelet et al., 2020). Two studies found that postgraduate
397 students aged in their mid-to-late 20s had higher levels of anxiety when
398 compared to undergraduates (Fu et al., 2021; IslamI et al., 2020). This was
399 opposed by Odriozola-Gonzalez and colleagues (2020), where it was
400 established that undergraduate students were more anxious than
401 postgraduates.

402 3.4.1. Other Adults of the General Population

403 The remaining seven studies focused on multiple different groups,
404 including parents, teachers, the elderly, police and pregnant women, in
405 which the effects of COVID-19 on anxiety level varied as detailed below.

406 **Anxiety in Parents**

407 Johnson and colleagues (2021) conducted a longitudinal study on the
408 mechanisms of parental distress during the COVID-19 pandemic. This
409 study had a sample size of $n = 2868$, consisting of $n = 2278$ females and n
410 $= 590$ males. They found that at T1, when lockdowns were strictest, 23.3%
411 of participants met the clinical cut-off for generalised anxiety and at T2,
412 when restrictions were being eased, anxiety prevalence was lowered to
413 13.8% (Johnson et al., 2021). Anxiety was also higher in females than
414 males (T1: 25.7% vs 14%) (Johnson et al., 2021).

415 **Anxiety in Teachers**

416 Two studies focused on teachers with a combined sample size of $n =$
417 $90,244$, with $n = 69,462$ females and $n = 20,772$ males. The pooled
418 prevalence of anxiety in both populations was 27.2%, with either 49.5%
419 (Ozamiz-Etxebarria et al., 2020b) or and 26.6% (Li et al., 2020b) of
420 participants reporting COVID-19 related anxiety. In both studies, female
421 teachers experienced more anxiety than male teachers and older teachers
422 more so than younger teachers.

423 **Anxiety in the Elderly Population**

424 Two studies focused on the elderly with a sample size of $n = 8766$,
425 with $n = 4817$ females and $n = 3791$ males (Garcia-Fernandez et al., 2020;
426 Robb et al., 2020). Both studies concluded that those living alone,
427 experiencing financial hardship, not exercising and being widowed
428 indicated increased anxiety. Robb and colleagues (2020) reported that
429 with every five-year increase in age group within the study population,
430 there was a 22% decrease in anxiety results. This was contrasted in a
431 study by Garcia-Fernandez and colleagues (2020), which found no
432 differences in anxiety based on age. Thirty four percent of participants
433 reported anxiety when they scored within the normal clinical range
434 (Robb et al., 2020).

435 **Anxiety in Police**

436 Yuan and colleagues (2020) investigated the psychological impact of
437 COVID-19 on police officers in a sample size of $n = 3517$, with $n = 557$
438 females and $n = 2960$ males. Of this population group, 8.79% reported
439 moderate to severe anxiety, with older, more educated officers residing
440 in or near a city having higher anxiety levels (Yuan et al., 2020). Males
441 had a lower frequency of anxiety than females (34.1% vs 37.7%) (Yuan et
442 al., 2020).

443 **Anxiety in Pregnant Women**

444 Zilver and colleagues (2021) assessed a sample of $n = 1466$ pregnant
445 women and found a 19.5% prevalence of anxiety in the study sample but
446 the study concluded this was not a significant increase compared to
447 anxiety rates before the pandemic (Zilver et al., 2021).

448 **4. Discussion**

449 There have been many recent systematic reviews published on the
450 mental health effects of the COVID-19 pandemic. The majority of these
451 studies however, focus on specific sample populations (Johns et al., 2022).
452 Wu and colleagues (2021) completed a systematic review of various
453 mental health outcomes related to COVID-19 in multiple sample groups.
454 However, this review was limited to the early phase of the pandemic
455 (January – March, 2020) and mostly was contained to China (Wu et al.,
456 2021).

457 The results of this systematic review show that the COVID-19
458 pandemic has negatively impacted the mental health of many
459 populations in society. Anxiety is prevalent within the general
460 population, healthcare workers, university students and other vulnerable
461 groups (Albagmi et al., 2021; Denning et al., 2021; Giardino et al., 2020;
462 IslamI et al., 2020; Jia et al., 2020), and the onset of COVID-19 has
463 exacerbated it (Planchuelo-Gomez et al., 2020). The main contributors to
464 this observed increase in anxiety are unique to this current outbreak
465 alone. The implementation of stringent global lockdowns and quarantine
466 orders have been one of the primary methods to achieve infection control.
467 Although proven as effective measures to reduce transmission and
468 COVID-19 case numbers, they have brought about great mental turmoil
469 globally (Huang et al., 2020).

470 Social isolation was common during previous episodes of infectious
471 disease outbreaks such as the quarantining of populations during the
472 SARS and Ebola outbreaks, although this was mostly restricted to those
473 infected or in contact with the disease (Drazen et al., 2014; Reynolds et al.,

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2008). However, the COVID-19 pandemic has set a new precedent in this regard as orders of social isolation, quarantine, and lockdowns have, to some level, been imposed upon the majority of the world's populations. Literature shows that individuals with otherwise good mental health at the start of lockdown experienced mental decline the longer and more stringent the lockdown was (Santabárbara et al., 2021). This coincides with the findings of this systematic review that shows quarantine and lockdown orders increased the instances of loneliness and isolation, which in turn promoted anxiety levels. Sharma and colleagues (2020) found that 50% of participants showed anxiety symptoms after being subjected to quarantine (Sharma et al., 2020). This alarmingly high figure is indicative of a more significant issue at hand that demonstrates that the support networks in place are lacking. As apparent in the recent, more than 100-day (June – October) lockdown in Sydney in 2021, the mental health risk associated with longer more stringent lockdowns could see anxiety cases reach a much higher level should such lockdowns continue into the future.

Alternatively, some studies indicate that lockdown and quarantine orders have a small or no impact on mental health (van der Velden et al., 2020). However, these findings can be explained by the limited sample size in some of these studies that did not include a wide range of socioeconomic diversity and a degree of heterogeneity in the data (Qian et al., 2020).

4.1. Anxiety Before and After COVID-19

The majority of papers in the present systematic review found that the prevalence of anxiety was higher in 2020 when compared to the rates of previous years (2019) (Cai et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2021a; Tang et al., 2020). The Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW) reported that the COVID-19 related restriction on movement, physical and social isolation, loss of employment and other adverse effects of the lockdowns resulted in an 18.4% and 30.7% increase in calls to Lifeline and Beyond Blue, respectively (AIHW, 2021). The call volume had increased compared to the volume of calls received at the same time the previous year in 2019 (AIHW, 2021). Following the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, the Australian Government implemented a range of mental health services under the Medicare Benefits Schedule (MBS), which included subsidising telehealth services (AIHW, 2021). The AIHW reported that after the new telehealth items were added to the MBS, there was a high uptake in the number of people accessing these services (AIHW, 2021).

4.2. Anxiety in Different Populations during COVID-19

The results indicate that COVID-19 affected anxiety levels in all the different study populations evaluated (general population, healthcare workers, university students, teachers, pregnant women, the elderly, parents, and police). The degree of anxiety varied, as groups such as healthcare workers, females and younger populations were more vulnerable than others (Hou et al., 2020; Korkmaz et al., 2020). During COVID-19, the overall prevalence of anxiety was highest in the initial stage of the outbreak with the highest rate among healthcare workers (36%), followed by university students (34.7%) and the general population (34%). Among the other groups, teachers experienced the most anxiety (27.2%) compared to police officers, who had the lowest

526 prevalence (8.79%). As discussed below, many factors are attributed to
527 the variation in anxiety levels among different study samples.

528 **Anxiety in the General Population**

529 In this systematic review, the prevalence of anxiety among the
530 general population (34%) coincided with the prevalence of anxiety found
531 in other studies (Kantor & Kantor, 2020). A systematic review (Kantor &
532 Kantor, 2020) concluded that the prevalence of anxiety in 103 studies on
533 the general population was 27.3%. Other studies reported levels as low
534 as 21.6% (Shevlin et al., 2020) or as high as 81.9% (Goularte et al., 2021).

535 The present study found that anxiety was significantly higher in
536 populations living in epicentre regions, such as Wuhan, China (Zhang et
537 al., 2020a). This is supported by Zhao and colleagues (2020), who found
538 that those who residing within high infection areas, such as Hubei, China,
539 showed higher moderate to severe anxiety rates than those who lived in
540 lower epidemic areas (less affected regions of mainland China) (Zhao et
541 al., 2020). The increased health-related anxiety can explain this
542 phenomenon in regions of more significant infectious outbreaks (Zhao et
543 al., 2020). The escalation of health anxiety was predictive of generalised
544 anxiety during the COVID-19 pandemic (Nikčević et al., 2021). Within
545 epicentre regions, additional testing carried out above the average rate
546 resulted in a marked reduction in population anxiety (Ran et al., 2020),
547 reducing the overall health anxiety and exemplifying a control over the
548 outbreak. Increased exposure to COVID-19 was an indicator of worse
549 anxiety, whether through casual contacts, workplace environments or
550 being infected with COVID-19 directly (Kharroubi & Saleh, 2020).
551 Literature suggests that exposure to COVID-19 infection results in a
552 much higher prevalence of anxiety, especially if the contact is through
553 family members (Huang et al., 2020). Huang and colleagues (2020)
554 reported that of the populations presenting with COVID-19 related
555 anxiety, those with higher contact histories and those with confirmed
556 infections displayed an elevated risk of anxiety symptoms (Huang et al.,
557 2020).

558 Sex was a major determinant for anxiety amongst the general
559 population, with twenty-two studies finding that females experienced
560 significantly higher anxiety levels than males. Multiple studies support
561 these findings, suggesting that females do, in fact, experience higher
562 levels of mental distress and anxiety concerning COVID-19 (Hou et al.,
563 2020; Kantor & Kantor, 2020; Özdin & Bayrak Özdin, 2020). Evidence
564 shows that this increased effect on females could be attributed to the
565 burden many females feel as primary caregivers. With the added stressor
566 of the pandemic, females are more likely than males to care for dependent
567 family members (Rodríguez-Rey et al., 2020). Fu and colleagues (2020a)
568 also suggested that females were more likely to score positive for anxiety
569 because they were more likely to convey their emotions than males.
570 Divergencies in neurochemistry may expose females to a slightly
571 heightened risk of developing anxiety disorders (Fu et al., 2020). One
572 study analysed in this review found that males had experienced higher
573 levels of anxiety than females (Wu et al., 2020). This can be attributed to
574 the decreased likelihood of males to seek mental health assistance due to
575 the perceived stigma (Chatmon, 2020). An additional two studies found
576 that although females experienced higher anxiety levels overall, males
577 who care for dependents under the age of 18 had higher instances of
578 anxiety than other male groups (Garcia-Fernandez et al., 2021; Jacques-

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Avino et al., 2020). The additional stress of caring for young children during lockdown, whilst working from home can explain this trend (Johnson et al., 2021).

Socioeconomic status was another contributor to the severity of anxiety, with the COVID-19 related lockdowns resulting in a peak unemployment rate of 7.5%, the highest rate in the last 20 years, as reported by the ABS (ABS, 2020). A multitude of studies found that job loss as a result of COVID-19 was a major contributor to significant surges in anxiety and attributed financial instability as a leading cause of a myriad of other severe mental health issues (Nagasu et al., 2021; Nicola et al., 2020). The present review also found that those with pre-existing mental health issues were at a heightened risk of aggravating their conditions. These findings are supported within current literature as the implication of quarantine and restriction has disrupted the routines of daily life many individuals rely on to uphold their mental health (Pashazadeh et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2021). As access to health services have been restricted due to the pandemic, relapses in anxiety attacks and disorders have seen a marked escalation (Prati & Mancini, 2021).

Age was yet another factor linked to heightened anxiety levels with the majority of included papers identifying younger age groups as more at risk for anxiety (Bendau et al., 2021; Canet-Juric et al., 2020; Dawel et al., 2020; Fisher et al., 2020; Halperin et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2021a). Recent findings have also concluded that younger age groups have higher rates of anxiety as they often experience more financial and employment instability than older groups (Bonanad et al., 2020). In conjunction with this, younger age groups are much more likely to consume more media coverage on the pandemic than older groups, with up to 3 hours of social media exposure a day. This increased exposure has been found to increase anxiety odds by up to 3 times (Bonanad et al., 2020; Halperin et al., 2021). However, four studies identified higher anxiety levels in older groups (Fu et al., 2021; Meesala et al., 2020; Nkire et al., 2021; Planchuelo-Gomez et al., 2020), which can be explained by older groups being more likely to suffer from more extreme effects of COVID-19 (Khademi et al., 2021). The vulnerability of older populations is evident as mortality rates of those aged over 70 are upwards of 22.8% compared to a rate of 1.1% for those aged below 50 (Bonanad et al., 2020). This increased mortality rate is directly linked to worse psychological outcomes, with increased occurrences of death anxiety (Khademi et al., 2021).

Anxiety in Healthcare Workers

The prevalence of anxiety experienced by healthcare workers was the highest rate amongst all the population groups, with a pooled prevalence of 36% from 25 studies. This finding is greater than the frequency found in the current literature. The prevalence in a systematic review on healthcare workers found that 23.2% of the population experienced anxiety (Pappa et al., 2020). An Indonesian study did find a more similar prevalence of 33% (Setiawati et al., 2021).

Frontline healthcare workers were found to experience more anxiety than non-frontline healthcare workers and non-clinical healthcare staff (administrative clerks). This finding can be justified as studies show that increased exposure to COVID-19 infection via a workplace setting is responsible for higher anxiety (Antonijevic et al., 2020). As frontline healthcare workers are at a greater risk of becoming infected, job anxiety is more prevalent in these populations than healthcare workers who have

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limited contact with infected patients (Cai et al., 2020). Due to the influx of hospitalisations related to covid, healthcare staff have had to work longer hours with limited resources increasing their vulnerability to burnout and stress (Hacimusalar et al., 2020). This has, in turn, drastically affected mental health, with reports of heightened anxiety found in frontline healthcare staff across many countries (Bohlken et al., 2021; Cheng & Cheung, 2005). Non-frontline workers also had an increase in anxiety. However, frontline workers were more impacted as the lack of hospital resources and diminished staffing due to need in COVID-19 wards caused a stretch in healthcare systems (Setiawati et al., 2021). Some studies in the present review found that the non-clinical healthcare workers presented with higher anxiety levels than the clinical staff (Chew et al., 2020; Giardino et al., 2020; Hennein et al., 2021). This was attributed to limited training in regard to infectious disease and crisis management (Hennein et al., 2021). It was found that upon completion of crisis training, the anxiety psychometric measures of non-clinical healthcare workers decreased drastically (Hennein et al., 2021).

The fear of healthcare workers infecting their families was a major determinant for health and job-related anxiety. This is supported by Dai and colleagues (2020) who found that one of the greatest fears healthcare workers expressed was infecting others outside of the workplace (Dai et al., 2020). Younger healthcare workers also expressed higher scores of anxiety, which could be explained by their lack of training and experience in the role (Gainer et al., 2021; Giardino et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2021; Lai et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021). This also coincides with the findings in the general population, as younger age groups were found to be more at risk. However, three papers reported higher anxiety levels in older groups, with the vulnerability of older aged populations to COVID-19 infection, and the increased likelihood of older participants having dependants could explain this finding (He et al., 2021; Hennein et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2020a). Similar to the results of the general population, females experienced higher anxiety than males amongst the healthcare workers.

Anxiety in University Students

The prevalence of anxiety among university students was 34.7%, which was close to the prevalence found in the general population (34%) and is in line with literature as Halperin and colleagues (2021) reported anxiety prevalence among university students to be 30.6%.

Two studies conflicted in their findings on the prevalence of anxiety in university students before and after the pandemic (IslamI et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2021a). The study that did not identify an increase in anxiety from before the pandemic highlights that introducing university aid and classes moving to pass/fail systems may have dampened the mental effects of COVID-19 (Kim et al., 2021a). Literature also suggests that the introduction of lockdowns has allowed students to focus on hobbies and get more sleep as classes moved online (Rizun & Strzelecki, 2020). In contrast to this, a plethora of studies have supported the finding that anxiety has increased significantly since that onset of the COVID-19 pandemic (Fu et al., 2021; Halperin et al., 2021; IslamI et al., 2020). Students living on campus were found to have more anxiety symptoms than those who did not. The financial instability of living on campus while not being able to work to support themselves has caused many university students to become vulnerable to mental deterioration (Halperin et al., 2021). Literature also supports the finding that the

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increased loneliness experienced by students living on campus is determinative of higher anxiety psychometric scores (Arslan et al., 2020). Academic anxiety was a significant source of stress among university students. With the transition of classes to an online setting, the cracks in many education systems have begun to show (Sun et al., 2021). The transition to online schooling has caused distress in many students who have issues with self-learning, which has caused an upsurge in anxiety related to academics and with isolation, and a lowered perception of academic self-efficacy (Alemany-Arrebola et al., 2020). Due to the younger age demographic of university students, they consume more social media akin to the younger age groups in the general population and the mass consumption of COVID-19 related media indicates increased anxiety (Bendau et al., 2021; Hou et al., 2020). Parallel to the other population groups, those living in hotspot areas and females had higher levels of anxiety. Literature supports that female students were more likely to score positively for anxiety than male students (Odriozola-Gonzalez et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2021). Although females may experience higher anxiety for many reasons, the greater percentage of females that participate in studies may explain this phenomenon (Zhan et al., 2021).

Anxiety in Other Adults of the General Population

There were 7 papers assessing the other adult populations that varied in the severity of anxiety present (Garcia-Fernandez et al., 2020; Johnson et al., 2021; Li et al., 2020b; Ozamiz-Etxebarria et al., 2020b; Robb et al., 2020; Yuan et al., 2020; Zilver et al., 2021). The levels of anxiety found in the different sample populations had a direct correlation to the degree of vulnerability they experienced as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Teachers had the highest prevalence of anxiety with 49.5% of teachers reporting COVID-19 related anxiety (Ozamiz-Etxebarria et al., 2020b). The additional strain placed on education systems due to the closing of schools and online learning has resulted in teachers experiencing high levels of mental distress (Allen et al., 2020). Contrastingly, the delayed closure of schools caused teachers to have increased anxiety regarding their safety and risk of contracting COVID-19 (Wakui et al., 2021). Parents had the second highest prevalence of anxiety with 23.3% having anxiety induced by lockdowns (Johnson et al., 2021). Similar to teachers, the closure of schools exacerbated anxiety in parents as they were left responsible for their children's education (Johnson et al., 2021). Due to lockdowns, movement outside of the home was limited on a necessity basis, such as grocery shopping or work, anxiety in parents were elevated due to the confinement of children within the home (Johnson et al., 2021).

The elderly population did not have significant levels of anxiety and anxiety symptoms were found to be lowered by 22% as age increased (Garcia-Fernandez et al., 2020; Robb et al., 2020). The already limited mobility of older populations outside of the home promoted lower levels of anxiety as many did not perceive themselves to be at risk of transmission (Garcia-Fernandez et al., 2021). Anxiety was present in 19.5% of pregnant women, although this was not significant from pre-pandemic rates (Zilver et al., 2021). This was attributed to COVID-19 hospital interventions that allowed pregnant women to have their partners present while giving birth (Zilver et al., 2021). Finally, police officers were the least impacted group, exhibiting low anxiety rates at

738 8.79% (Yuan et al., 2020). The COVID-19 pandemic did not have an
739 impact on police officers due to the overall compliance of the general
740 population in adhering to regulations and lockdowns (Yuan et al., 2020).

741 4.3. Limitations

742 The strengths of the present review were in the extensive
743 comparison of anxiety in multiple sample population groups. To the best
744 of the authors' knowledge, the comparison between the general
745 population, healthcare workers, university students, teachers, parents,
746 the elderly, pregnant women and police officers has not been drawn
747 before.

748 Although the present systematic review presents some important
749 findings, various limitations were noted during the process. Firstly,
750 restricting the review to only English language publications may have
751 potentially introduced language bias into the study. Language bias is the
752 phenomenon where studies of languages other than English, the
753 predominant language utilised within research, may be overlooked and
754 thus potentially limit the scope of the review (Egger et al., 1997).
755 Secondly, the sample size constraint implemented also posed a limitation.
756 The exclusion of studies that did not meet the 1000 sample size criteria
757 may have possibly excluded many relevant studies. As the COVID-19
758 pandemic is ongoing, the mental health effects are not fully characterised
759 and are transforming as more literature is being published. In light of this
760 information, this review was restricted to papers published before
761 August 2021.

762 5. Conclusions

763 The COVID-19 pandemic has been shown to have significantly
764 contributed to worse anxiety in all populations studied. Those most
765 exposed to infection, such as healthcare workers, are at risk of
766 succumbing to immense mental pressure. If this is not remedied, a
767 multitude of issues will arise as a healthy state of mind is vital to the
768 success of society (Prince et al., 2007). Without addressing the high rates
769 of anxiety, we may see the breakdown of healthcare systems struggling
770 to cope, a general population hounded by economic and personal strain
771 and university students, the professionals of the future, being inflicted
772 with mental anguish. Further longitudinal study is required to better
773 understanding the factors and associations contributing to anxiety during
774 pandemics and will help guide such future outbreaks as well as prepare
775 for emergency situations, this is critical for success in the future.

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781 selected the studies (H. S, A. E, S. L.) analysed the data and interpreted the
782 findings (H. S.), drafted the manuscript for submission (H. S, N. N, A. M. S, S. L,
783 A. E.). The final manuscript was approved by all authors before submission.

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