

## Original Article

**Cite this article:** Weinberger AH, Gbedemah M, Martinez AM, Nash D, Galea S, Goodwin RD (2018). Trends in depression prevalence in the USA from 2005 to 2015: widening disparities in vulnerable groups. *Psychological Medicine* **48**, 1308–1315. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0033291717002781>

Received: 15 March 2017  
Revised: 22 August 2017  
Accepted: 24 August 2017  
First published online: 12 October 2017

### Key words:

Age; depression; epidemiology; gender; race; socioeconomic status

### Author for correspondence:

R. D. Goodwin, Ph.D., M.P.H., E-mail: [renee.goodwin@sph.cuny.edu](mailto:renee.goodwin@sph.cuny.edu)

# Trends in depression prevalence in the USA from 2005 to 2015: widening disparities in vulnerable groups

A. H. Weinberger<sup>1,2</sup>, M. Gbedemah<sup>3</sup>, A. M. Martinez<sup>4</sup>, D. Nash<sup>3,5</sup>, S. Galea<sup>6</sup>  
and R. D. Goodwin<sup>3,4,5</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Ferkauf Graduate School of Psychology, Yeshiva University, Bronx, NY, USA; <sup>2</sup>Department of Epidemiology & Population Health, Albert Einstein College of Medicine, Bronx, NY, USA; <sup>3</sup>Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, CUNY School of Public Health, New York, NY, USA; <sup>4</sup>Department of Epidemiology, Mailman School of Public Health, Columbia University, New York, NY, USA; <sup>5</sup>Institute for Implementation Science in Population Health (ISPH), City University of New York, New York, NY, USA and <sup>6</sup>Department of Epidemiology, Boston University School of Public Health, Boston, MA, NY, USA

## Abstract

**Background.** Major depression is associated with significant disability, morbidity, and mortality. The current study estimated trends in the prevalence of major depression in the US population from 2005 to 2015 overall and by demographic subgroups.

**Methods.** Data were drawn from the National Survey on Drug Use and Health (NSDUH), an annual cross-sectional study of US persons ages 12 and over (total analytic sample  $N = 607\,520$ ). Past-year depression prevalence was examined annually among respondents from 2005 to 2015. Time trends in depression prevalence stratified by survey year were tested using logistic regression. Data were re-analyzed stratified by age, gender, race/ethnicity, income, and education.

**Results.** Depression prevalence increased significantly in the USA from 2005 to 2015, before and after controlling for demographics. Increases in depression were significant for the youngest and oldest age groups, men, and women, Non-Hispanic White persons, the lowest income group, and the highest education and income groups. A significant year  $\times$  demographic interaction was found for age. The rate of increase in depression was significantly more rapid among youth relative to all older age groups.

**Conclusions.** The prevalence of depression increased significantly in the USA from 2005 to 2015. The rate of increase in depression among youth was significantly more rapid relative to older groups. Further research into understanding the macro level, micro level, and individual factors that are contributing to the increase in depression, including factors specific to demographic subgroups, would help to direct public health prevention and intervention efforts.

## Introduction

Major depression has serious and significant consequences for millions of people in the USA and around the world. At least one in five US adults experience depression in their lifetime and the past-year prevalence of depression is approximately 6% (Hasin *et al.* 2005). Depression is associated with substantial individual suffering; occupational, social, and family role impairment; and is a leading cause of disability and mortality (Lopez & Mathers, 2006; Saint Onge *et al.* 2014; WHO, 2016). By the year 2030, it is estimated that depression will be the leading cause of illness globally, after HIV/AIDS (Mathers & Loncar, 2006). Depression is also the single strongest risk factor for suicide behavior (Hasin *et al.* 2005; Chang *et al.* 2013; WHO, 2016), which has increased over time (Case & Deaton, 2015; Rockett *et al.* 2016). While there has been substantial progress in both psychopharmacologic and psychotherapeutic treatments for depression (Shim *et al.* 2011), most individuals with depression remain untreated or experience extensive delays between the onset of depression and treatment (Riolo *et al.* 2005; Shim *et al.* 2011; Whiteford *et al.* 2013). Because depression impacts a significant percentage of the US population and has serious individual and societal consequences, it is important to understand whether and how the prevalence of depression has changed over time in the USA so that decisions about funding and strategies for public health efforts can be based on current population needs.

There has been a long-standing interest in estimating whether secular changes in depression and other disorders have occurred (e.g. Häfner, 1985). Several studies have reported increases in depression prevalence over time (e.g. Compton *et al.* 2006; Hidaka, 2012).

Building on this work by continuing to address this question with recent data is needed in order to identify trends in depression that can inform current public health efforts.

Further, prior cross-sectional epidemiologic studies have repeatedly identified substantial disparities in depression prevalence by demographic subgroups (e.g. gender, income, education). Yet, little data on trends in depression by these subgroups have been available. Younger and older adults report lower prevalences of depression than middle age groups (Pratt & Brody, 2014). With regard to race/ethnicity, people who identify as non-Hispanic White report a higher prevalence of depression than persons from other racial/ethnic groups with the exception of Native American persons (Hasin *et al.* 2005; Williams *et al.* 2007). Compared with non-Hispanic Black persons, non-Hispanic White persons exhibit stronger relationships between depression symptoms and a subsequent diagnosis of major depressive disorder (Moazen-Zadeh & Assari, 2016), depression and hopelessness (Assari *et al.* 2016), and depression and mortality (Assari *et al.* 2016). In terms of gender, it has been well-established that more women than men report depression (e.g. Hasin *et al.* 2005, Van de Velde *et al.* 2010, Pratt & Brody, 2014, Kuehner, 2017). Finally, indicators of lower socioeconomic status (SES) are associated with higher prevalences of depression (Everson *et al.* 2002; Lorant *et al.* 2003; Pratt & Brody, 2014; Hasin & Grant, 2015) and greater odds of chronic depression (Rubio *et al.* 2011). To our knowledge, there is no currently available information estimating trends in depression among demographic subgroups in the USA over the past decade. If depression is found to be increasing overall, or increasing to a greater degree among specific demographic subgroups, this information can help identify populations most in need of public health and outreach efforts.

The purpose of the current study was to examine changes in the prevalence of depression in the USA over an 11-year period. First, the study estimated trends in the prevalence of depression among US individuals, ages 12 and older from 2005 to 2015. Second, the study estimated trends in the prevalence of depression from 2005 to 2015 by demographic characteristics (i.e. age, race/ethnicity, gender, income, education).

## Methods

### Study population

Study data were drawn from the National Survey on Drug Use and Health (NSDUH) public data portal (<http://www.icpsr.umich.edu/>). The NSDUH provides annual cross-sectional national data on tobacco use, other substance use, and mental health in the USA and is described in depth elsewhere (SAMHSA, 2015). A multistage area probability sample for each of the 50 states and the District of Columbia was conducted to represent the male and female civilian non-institutionalized population of the USA aged 12 and older. The datasets from each year included in the current analyses (2005–2015) were concatenated, adding a variable for the survey year. Person-level analysis sampling weight for the NSDUH was computed to control for individual-level non-response, and were adjusted to ensure consistency with population estimates obtained from the US Census Bureau. In order to use the 11 years of combined data, a new weight was created upon aggregating the 11 datasets by dividing the original weight by the number of datasets combined. Further descriptions of the sampling methods and survey techniques for the NSDUH are found elsewhere (SAMHSA,

2015). For this study, analyses were restricted to participants who responded to questions about past-year depression at the time of the interview resulting in a total analytic sample of  $N = 607\,520$ .

### Measures

#### Past-year depression

Questions to assess major depressive episode (MDE) were based on DSM-IV criteria (American Psychological Association, 1994) and adapted from the depression section of the National Comorbidity Survey-Replication (Hedden *et al.* 2012) for adults and from the National Comorbidity Survey-Adolescent for youth. Separate depression modules were administered to adults (18 years old or older) and to youth (12–17 years old). Participants were classified as having had a lifetime MDE based on the report of having five or more out of nine symptoms for MDE, including either depressed mood or loss of interest or pleasure in daily activities, during the same 2-week period in their lifetime. Respondents with lifetime MDE were further classified as having past-year MDE if they met criteria for a lifetime MDE and reported feeling depressed or lost interest or pleasure in daily activities, as well as other symptoms, for at least 2 weeks during the past 12 months. Due to changes in the questionnaire in 2008, adjusted past-year MDE variables for adults were developed to allow for comparison between the years 2005 and 2008 and the later years. The past-year MDE variable for this study was created by combining the youth and adult variables.

#### Demographics

Demographic variables were categorized as follows: age (12–17 years old as reference group, 18–25 years old, 26–34 years old, 35–49 years old, 50 years or older), race/ethnicity (collapsed from seven to four categories: non-Hispanic White as reference group, non-Hispanic Black, Hispanic, and Other), gender (male as reference group, female), total annual family income (less than \$20 000 per year as reference group, \$20 000 to \$49 999 per year, \$50 000 to \$74 999 per year and greater than \$75 000 per year), education (less than high school as reference group, high school graduate, some college, college graduate), and marital status (collapsed from four to three categories: married as reference group, widowed, separated or divorced, never married).

#### Statistical analysis

First, the prevalence of past-year depression and associated standard errors among the whole population and stratified by each survey year were calculated from the year 2005 to the year 2015. Time trends in the prevalence of past-year depression were tested using logistic regression with continuous year as the predictor for the linear time trend. These analyses were conducted twice: first with no covariates (unadjusted) and then repeated while adjusting for age, gender, race/ethnicity, total annual family income, education, and marital status using the categories listed above.

Second, separate time trend analyses using logistic regression described above were conducted further stratified by either age, race/ethnicity, gender, total annual family income, or education. These analyses were conducted twice: once with no covariates (unadjusted model) and once controlling for the other demographic variables (adjusted model).

Differential time trends in past-year depression between each demographic variable were tested by two-way interactions of year  $\times$  each demographic in logistic regression. A logistic

regression of past-year depression found the two-way interaction of year  $\times$  age to be significant so the group-specific two-way interactions were further tested (i.e. 12–17 years old *v.* 18–25 years old; 12–17 years old *v.* 26–34 years old; 12–17 years old *v.* 35–49 years old; and 12–17 years old *v.* 50 years and older) in logistic regression. All analyses were performed incorporating the NSDUH sampling weights and controlling for the complex clustered sampling using SAS-callable SUDAAN Version 11.0.1 (RTI International, Research Triangle Park, NC) (<http://www.rti.org/sudaan/>).

## Results

### *Trend in depression in the USA: 2005–2015*

Overall, the prevalence of past-year depression increased significantly from 2005 to 2015 (see Fig. 1); this increase remained statistically significant after adjusting for demographic characteristics (see online Supplemental Table S1).

### *Depression in the USA from 2005 to 2015 by age*

Stratifying the population by age, and adjusting for other demographics, significant increases in depression from 2005 to 2015 were observed among those 12–17 years old, 18–25 years old, and 50 years and older (see Fig. 2 and online Supplemental Table S2). There were no significant increases in depression observed among those 26–34 years old or 35–49 years old. There was a significant year  $\times$  age interaction indicating that the increase in depression among youth ages 12–17 years old was significantly more rapid than the increases in every other age group.

These trends remained significant and relatively unchanged after adjusting for demographic characteristics.

### *Depression in the USA from 2005 to 2015 by race/ethnicity*

Stratifying the population by race/ethnicity, a significant increase in depression from 2005 to 2015 was observed among those who identified as non-Hispanic White (see Fig. 3 and online Supplemental Table S3). This increase remained significant after adjusting for demographic characteristics. Unadjusted analyses revealed a significant increase in depression among those who identified as Other race/ethnicity, though this increase was no longer significant after adjusting for other demographics. There was no significant change in depression observed among those of non-Hispanic Black or Hispanic race/ethnicity. The year  $\times$  race/ethnicity interaction was not significant.

### *Depression in the USA from 2005 to 2015 by gender*

The prevalence of depression increased significantly from 2005 to 2015 among both men and women (see Fig. 4 and online Supplemental Table S4). There was no significant difference in the rate of increase between men and women.

### *Depression in the USA from 2005 to 2015 by socioeconomic status indicators*

There was a significant increase in depression from 2005 to 2015 among those in the lowest annual household income group and

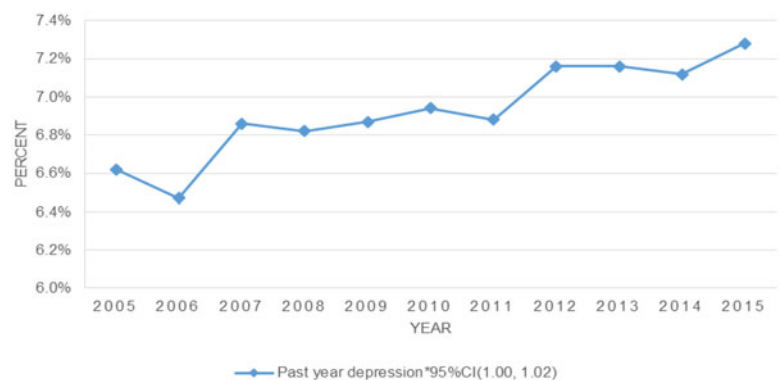


Fig. 1. Depression in the USA from 2005 to 2015.

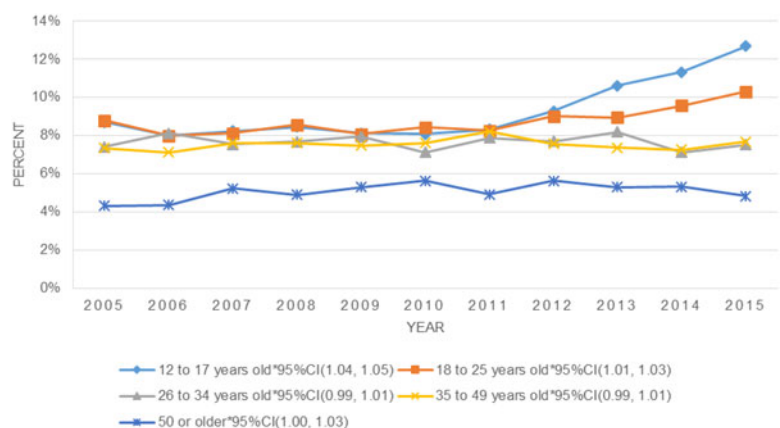


Fig. 2. Depression by age, 2005–2015.

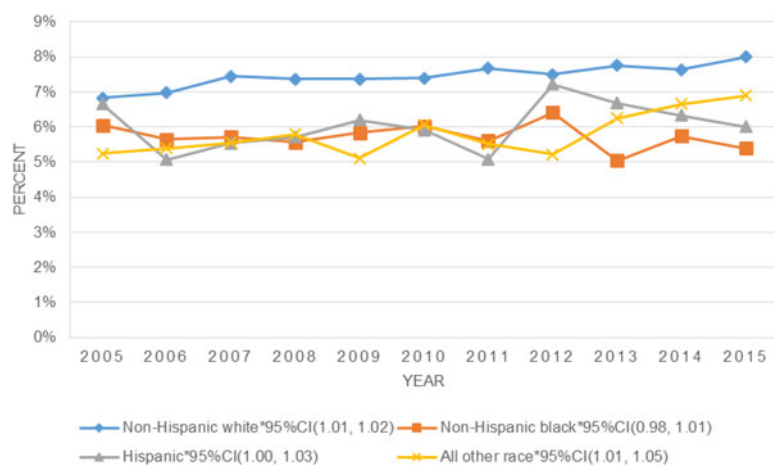


Fig. 3. Depression by race, 2005–2015.

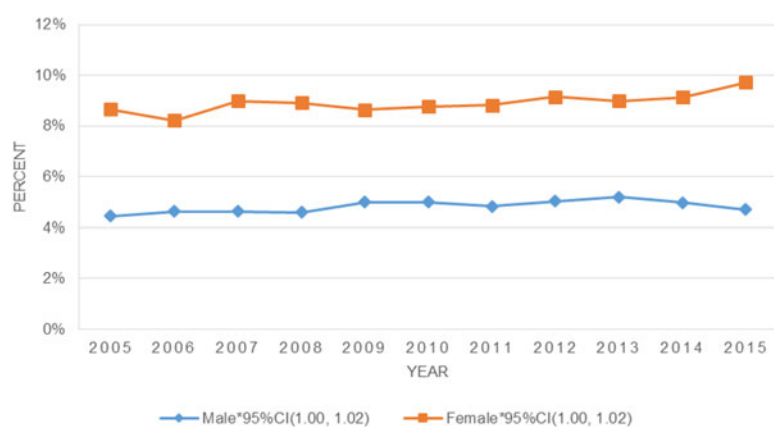


Fig. 4. Depression by gender, 2005–2015.

those in the highest annual household income group (see Fig. 5a and online Supplemental Table S5). These associations remained significant after adjusting for demographic characteristics. There was a significant increase in depression for those earning \$50 000 to \$74 999 per year; however, the increase did not remain significant after adjusting for other demographics. There were no changes observed in the prevalence of depression over time for the other middle-income group (i.e. \$20 000–\$49 000 per year). The year  $\times$  income interaction was not significant.

In unadjusted analyses, the prevalence of depression increased significantly from 2005 to 2015 among those with some college education (see Fig. 5b and online Supplemental Table S6). This association remained significant after adjusting for demographic characteristics. The increase in depression prevalence was also significant for college graduates after adjusting for demographics. There was no change in the prevalence of depression from 2005 to 2015 among those with less than a high school education or high school graduates. The year  $\times$  education interaction was not significant.

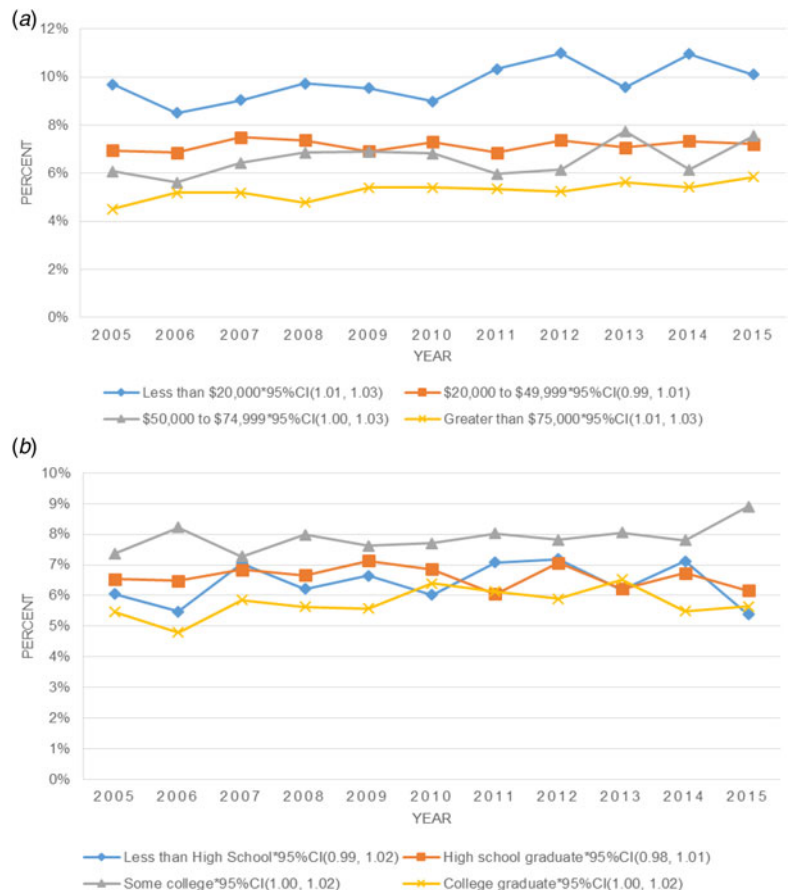
## Discussion

The goal of the current study was to investigate trends in the prevalence of past-year depression from 2005 to 2015 for US persons age 12 years and older. Several key findings emerged. First, the overall prevalence of depression increased significantly over this period of time. Second, more rapid increases in depression

prevalence occurred for specific demographic subgroups. Specifically, there was a significant increase in depression among the youngest (12–17 years old and 18–25 years old) and oldest (50 years and older) age groups and the increase was significantly more rapid among the youngest age group (12–17 years old) compared with every other age group. In terms of race/ethnicity, a significant increase in depression was seen only among non-Hispanic White individuals, though the rates of increase over time did not differ significantly by race/ethnicity. There were also significant increases in depression among those in the lowest income group and the highest income group; and among those in the highest education groups (some college or college degree and above) though, again, the rates of increase did not significantly differ by income or education.

Our data suggest an overall increase in depression prevalence in recent years among persons in the USA. The current study provides updated data on depression prevalences over time that are consistent with increases in depression prevalence found in older data on US and non-US adults (e.g. Compton *et al.* 2006; Hidaka, 2012) as well as increases in depression treatment (Olfson *et al.* 2002; Marcus & Olfson, 2010). The increase in depression prevalence over time is also consistent with increases in mental health problems over time seen in data from European countries (Katikireddi *et al.* 2012; Barr *et al.* 2015).

While demographic differences in depression prevalence at a single time point had been previously identified, the current study is novel in its examination of differences in trends in



**Fig. 5.** Depression by socioeconomic status indicators (*a*, income; *b*, education) 2005–2015.

depression over time by demographic subgroups. With regard to age, past research found lower depression prevalences for younger and older adults (Pratt & Brody, 2014) yet studies have also reported increases in depression for adolescents and older adults (e.g. Akincigil *et al.* 2011; Skovlund *et al.* 2017). Our data suggest that the prevalence of depression is increasing faster for younger age groups than for middle and older age groups which may, over time, reduce the previously found prevalence differences among age groups.

On the other hand, past research found a higher prevalence of depression for White persons than most other race/ethnicities (Hasin *et al.* 2005) as well as greater increases in suicide over time for midlife White adults compared with other racial/ethnic groups (Case & Deaton, 2015). Our findings suggest that differences in depression and suicidal behavior between Whites and other racial/ethnic groups may be growing over time. Even though the trend lines for White persons *v.* other racial/ethnic persons did not differ significantly, White persons were the only racial/ethnic group in the current study that showed a significant increase in depression prevalence over time. With regard to gender, more women report depression than men (e.g. Hasin *et al.* 2005) and we found that both women and men demonstrate increasing depression prevalences over time with no differences in the rate of increase by gender. Finally, not only are lower SES indicators associated with a greater prevalence of depression (e.g. Hasin *et al.* 2005), those with lower incomes showed significantly increasing prevalences of depression over time that were not found for middle income groups. Notably, the increases in mortality for White persons mentioned above (Case & Deaton,

2015) were found to be greatest for persons with a high school education or less. These data can inform public health efforts aimed at reducing consequences of depression by going beyond determining which groups are reporting higher depression prevalences to bring attention and resources to those groups whose increase in depression over time is greater than others.

Even though the changes in depression by race/ethnicity were not statistically significant between groups, persons who identify as White demonstrated a significant increase of depression while the increase in depression for other racial/ethnic groups, such as persons who identify as Black, were not significant. Other research has reported a higher prevalence of depression and suicide for persons who are White compared with persons who are Black (Barnes *et al.* 2013; Case & Deaton, 2015; Barnes & Bates, 2017). This lower prevalence of depression and other mental disorders among Blacks compared with Whites stands in contrast to greater distress, greater stressors including inequality and discrimination, poorer health outcomes, and greater mortality experienced by US persons who are Black compared with those who are White, a difference that has been called the Black–White paradox (Williams & Earl, 2007; Keyes, 2009; Barnes & Bates, 2017). Further, the relationship between depression and health conditions is stronger for White adults than Black adults (Assari *et al.* 2015). The gap between Black persons and White persons in mental health increases when controlling for perceived discrimination (Keyes, 2009) and with greater educational attainment (Barnes *et al.* 2013). As our results found a significant increase in depression prevalence during the study period for White persons and no significant change for Black persons, it

is possible that the mental health gap between Blacks and Whites may be widening over time.

There are a wide range of risk factors implicated in depression including environmental and genetic factors (e.g. Sullivan *et al.* 2000, Lorant *et al.* 2003, Kendler *et al.* 2006, Lopez-Leon *et al.* 2008, Colman & Atallahjan, 2010, Shim *et al.* 2011, Hidaka, 2012) and it is important to understand which factor/s relate to these changes in depression. One environmental factor that may be implicated in increases in depression prevalence over time is stress. The majority of US adults report that their level of stress has increased over time (American Psychological Association, 2014). Money and work are cited as the most common reasons for stress for US adults (American Psychological Association, 2016) and low income, job loss/unemployment, and negative life events are risk factors for depression (Bonde, 2008). The time frame of the current study included 2008 and there is evidence for increases in mental health issues, including depression, from the years before to the years after the 2008 recession from European countries (Katikireddi *et al.* 2012; Economou *et al.* 2013; Barr *et al.* 2015). Further, there is evidence for increases in completed suicides in the USA and other countries around the world in the years after the 2008 recession (Reeves *et al.* 2012; Chang *et al.* 2013). A better understanding of factors related to increases in depression can inform clinical and public health intervention efforts (e.g. targeting stress, policies to increase employment or reduce economic stress).

With regard to depression among demographic subgroups, several studies in the USA that either included samples from specific states or cities (e.g. Detroit, Michigan) or included subsamples of adults in the USA (e.g. adults age 57 or older) showed relationships between the financial crisis of 2008 and increased depression, anxiety, and suicide rates in various demographic subgroups (Burgard *et al.* 2012; McLaughlin *et al.* 2012; Osypuk *et al.* 2012; Reeves *et al.* 2012; Cagney *et al.* 2014) and our data demonstrated similar subgroup differences at a US population level. There is evidence that the impact of financial-related stress may be disproportionate among men (Chang *et al.* 2013; Azorin *et al.* 2014), who show a stronger relationship between stressful life events and depression compared with women (Rice *et al.* 2015; Assari & Lankarani, 2016b); non-Hispanic White adults, who evidence a stronger relationship between depression and hopelessness (Assari & Lankarani, 2016a) and between depression and mortality (Assari *et al.* 2016) compared with non-Hispanic Black adults; and persons with lower incomes and lower levels of formal education (Burgard *et al.* 2012; McLaughlin *et al.* 2012; Chang *et al.* 2013). Case & Deaton (2015) found that White midlife adults, the group that reported the largest increases in mortality, reported increases in poor mental health, psychological distress, and difficulties with activities of daily living including being able to work over time. While stress is one potential contributor to increases in depression prevalence, more research is needed to clarify the role of stress and other factors involved in the increase in depression. More research is also needed to determine the best ways to target implicated factors in order to reduce depression prevalence, duration, and consequences especially in subgroups that are showing quicker increases in depression.

Attention to age-specific risk factors for depression is also needed. In the USA, teens report levels of stress that are comparable with adults (American Psychological Association, 2014) and the mental health of children is impacted by financial stress (Solantaus *et al.* 2004). A report using NSDUH data

demonstrated an increase in the prevalence of depression in teens from 2005 to 2014 (Mojtabai *et al.* 2016) and our study expanded on these data to show that depression for youth is not just increasing but it is actually increasing faster than any other age group. Causes of the rise in depression in adolescents should be further explored as adolescents are increasingly exposed to risk factors derived from the use of new technologies, such as cyberbullying (Kessel Schneider *et al.* 2012) and problematic social media use (Lin *et al.* 2016; Shensa *et al.* 2017; see Seabrook *et al.* 2016 for a review and examination of moderators of social media and depression). Further, young adults may be impacted by economic-related stress through their family members or in terms of their own employment prospects. It is notable that Mojtabai *et al.* (2016) did not find a corresponding increase in mental health treatment along with the increase in depression prevalence for teens suggesting that the proportion of young people with depression who are not receiving treatment for their depression may be increasing over time as well. Efforts to understand depression among teens should also include examining ways to increase the utilization of depression treatments for this age group.

While there are a number of strengths to using the NSDUH data including yearly data collection, which allowed the examination of trends over time; the large sample sizes, which allowed the examination of trends in demographic subgroups; the recency of the data compared with other examinations of depression over time; and the representativeness of the sample to the US population, there are also a number of limitations. Additional research would also be needed to determine whether these results generalize to persons who were not included in the analytic sample (e.g. persons outside of the USA). An increase in depression prevalence over time may be due to an increase in the incidence of depression, an increase in the duration of depression, or a combination of both. We were not able to examine depression incidence in the current study due to the variables available for analysis. Additional important information would be gained from examining the incidence of depression over time overall and by demographic subgroups in future studies. Further, this study included waves of cross-sectional data that are subject to age, period, and cohort effects as well as biases related to retroactive recall. On a related note, cross-sectional data does not allow the examination of individuals over time, specifically the impact of changes in variables potentially related to depression (e.g. employment and financial issues) and how these changes are associated with changes in depression prevalence. Where these data exist, it is important for researchers to examine factors that may be driving changes in depression over time in longitudinal data.

Additional research is needed to understand potential mediators of the increase in depression overall and for specific demographic subgroups. It is likely that there are multiple pathways to increases in depression prevalence; including increases in incidence, increases in duration, and delayed or less access to treatment; and a well-considered model includes a combination of family/genetic and environmental factors (Rubio *et al.* 2011; WHO, 2016). While environmental changes are more likely to be related to the increase of depression incidence or duration than biological/genetic changes due to the short time frame, it would be important to study a range of potential variables that are associated with the increase in depression in order to provide the best prevention and intervention efforts to US persons. The subgroups most

affected by the increase in depression prevalence may offer some clues to what the underlying causes of the increase might be, and these require further research.

Over the past 11 years, the prevalence of past-year depression increased significantly overall in the USA and the increases were most concentrated among youth, non-Hispanic White persons, those in the lowest income group, and those in the highest education and income groups. While not always diagnosed, depression is among the most treatable mental disorders. Identifying subgroups that are experiencing significant and/or greater increases in depression over time can help guide the allocation of funding and resources toward the subgroups that are facing the greatest individual and societal consequences from depression. Further research into understanding the macro level, micro level, and individual factors that are contributing to the observed increase in depression, including factors specific to depression in demographic subgroups, would also help to direct public health prevention and intervention efforts.

**Supplementary Material.** The supplementary material for this article can be found at <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0033291717002781>

**Acknowledgments.** This work was supported by NIDA/NIH (grant #DA20892).

**Declaration of Interest.** None.

**Ethical Standards.** The authors assert that all procedures contributing to this work comply with the ethical standards of the relevant national and institutional committees on human experimentation and with the Helsinki Declaration of 1975, as revised in 2008.

## References

- Akincigil A, Olfson M, Walkup JT, Siegel MJ, Kalay E, Amin S, Zurlo KA, Crystal S (2011) Diagnosis and treatment of depression in older community-dwelling adults: 1992–2005. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society* **59**, 1042–1051.
- American Psychological Association (1994) *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 4th ed. (DSM-IV)*. American Psychiatric Association: Washington DC.
- American Psychological Association (2014) *Stress in American: Are Teens Adopting Adults' Stress Habits? Stress in America™ Survey*. American Psychological Association: Washington DC.
- American Psychological Association (2016) *Stress in America: The Impact of Discrimination. Stress in America™ Survey*. American Psychological Association: Washington DC.
- Assari S, Burgard S, Zivin K (2015) Long-term reciprocal associations between depression symptoms and number of chronic medical conditions: longitudinal support for Black-White health paradox. *Journal of Racial and Ethnic Health Disparities* **2**, 589–597.
- Assari S, Lankarani MM (2016a) Depressive symptoms are associated with more hopelessness among White than Black older adults. *Frontiers in Public Health* **4**, 82.
- Assari S, Lankarani MM (2016b) Stressful life events and risk of depression 25 years later: race and gender differences. *Frontiers in Public Health* **4**, 49.
- Assari S, Moazen-Zadeh E, Lankarani MM, Micol-Foster V (2016) Race, depressive symptoms, and all-cause mortality in the United States. *Frontiers in Public Health* **4**, 40.
- Azorin J-M, Belzeaux R, Fakra E, Kaladjian A, Hantouche E, Lancrenon S, Adida M (2014) Gender differences in a cohort of major depressive patients: further evidence for the male depression syndrome hypothesis. *Journal of Affective Disorders* **167**, 85–92.
- Barnes DM, Bates LM (2017) Do racial patterns in psychological distress shed light on the Black-White depression paradox? A systematic review. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology* **52**, 913–928.
- Barnes DM, Keyes KM, Bates LM (2013) Racial differences in depression in the United States: how do subgroup analyses inform a paradox? *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology* **48**, 1941–1949.
- Barr B, Kinderman P, Whitehead M (2015) Trends in mental health inequalities in England during a period of recession, austerity and welfare reform 2004 to 2013. *Social Science & Medicine* **147**, 324–331.
- Bonde JP (2008) Psychosocial factors at work and risk of depression: a systematic review of the epidemiological evidence. *Occupational and Environmental Medicine* **65**, 438–445.
- Burgard SA, Seefeldt KS, Zelner S (2012) Housing instability and health: findings from the Michigan recession and recovery study. *Social Science & Medicine* **75**, 2215–2224.
- Cagney KA, Browning CR, Iveniuk J, English N (2014) The onset of depression during the great recession: foreclosure and older adult mental health. *American Journal of Public Health* **104**, 498–505.
- Case A, Deaton A (2015) Rising morbidity and mortality in midlife among white non-Hispanic Americans in the 21st century. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* **112**, 15078–15083.
- Chang SS, Stuckler D, Yip P, Gunnell D (2013) Impact of 2008 global economic crisis on suicide: time trend study in 54 countries. *BMJ* **347**, f5239.
- Colman I, Ataullahjan A (2010) Life course perspectives on the epidemiology of depression. *Canadian Journal of Psychiatry - Revue Canadienne de Psychiatrie* **55**, 622–632.
- Compton WM, Conway FP, Stinson FS, Grant BF (2006) Changes in the prevalence of major depression and comorbid substance use disorders in the United States between 1991–1992 and 2001–2002. *American Journal of Psychiatry* **163**, 2141–2147.
- Economou M, Madianos M, Peppou LE, Patelakis A, Stefanis CN (2013) Major depression in the era of economic crisis: a replication of a cross-sectional study across Greece. *Journal of Affective Disorders* **145**, 308–314.
- Everson SA, Maty SC, Lynch JW, Kaplan GA (2002) Epidemiologic evidence for the relation between socioeconomic status and depression, obesity, and diabetes. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research* **53**, 891–895.
- Häfner H (1985) Are mental disorders increasing over time? *Psychopathology* **18**, 66–81.
- Hasin DS, Goodwin RD, Stinson FS, Grant BF (2005) Epidemiology of major depressive disorder: results from the national epidemiologic survey on alcoholism and related conditions. *Archives of General Psychiatry* **62**, 1097–1106.
- Hasin DS, Grant BF (2015) The national epidemiologic survey on alcohol and related conditions (NESARC) waves 1 and 2: review and summary of findings. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology* **50**, 1609–1640.
- Hedden S, Gfroerer J, Barker P, Smith S, Pemberton MR, Saavedra LM, Forman-Hoffman VL, Ringeisen H, Novak SP (2012) *CBHSQ Data Review: Comparison of NSDUH Mental Health Data and Methods with Other Data Sources*. Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, Center for Behavioral Health Statistics and Quality: Rockville, MD.
- Hidaka BH (2012) Depression as a disease of modernity: explanations for increasing prevalence. *Journal of Affective Disorders* **140**, 205–214.
- Katikireddi SV, Niedzwiedz CL, Popham F (2012) Trends in population mental health before and after the 2008 recession: a repeat cross-sectional analysis of the 1991–2010 health surveys of England. *BMJ Open* **2**, pii: e001790. doi: 10.1136/bmjopen-2012-001790.
- Kendler KS, Gatz M, Gardner CO, Pedersen NL (2006) A Swedish national twin study of lifetime major depression. *American Journal of Psychiatry* **163**, 109–114.
- Kessel Schneider S, O'Donnell L, Smith E (2012) Trends in cyberbullying and school bullying victimization in a regional census of high school students, 2006–2012. *The Journal of School Health* **85**, 611–620.
- Keyes CLM (2009) The Black-White paradox in health: flourishing in the face of social inequality and discrimination. *Journal of Personality* **77**, 1677–1706.
- Kuehner C (2017) Why is depression more common among women than among men? *Lancet Psychiatry* **4**, 146–158.

- Lin LY, Sidani JE, Shensa A, Radovic A, Miller E, Colditz JB, Hoffman BL, Giles LM, Primack BA (2016) Association between social media use and depression among U.S. young adults. *Depression and Anxiety* **33**, 323–331.
- Lopez AD, Mathers CD (2006) Measuring the global burden of disease and epidemiological transitions: 2002–2030. *Annals of Tropical Medicine and Parasitology* **100**, 481–499.
- Lopez-Leon S, Janssens AC, Gonzalez-Zuloeta Ladd AM, Del-Favero J, Claes SJ, Oostra BA, van Duijn CM (2008) Meta-analyses of genetic studies on major depressive disorder. *Molecular Psychiatry* **13**, 772–785.
- Lorant V, Deliege D, Eaton W, Robert A, Philippot P, Anseau M (2003) Socioeconomic inequalities in depression: a meta-analysis. *American Journal of Epidemiology* **157**, 98–112.
- Marcus SC, Olfson M (2010) National trends in the treatment for depression from 1998 to 2007. *Archives of General Psychiatry* **67**, 1265–1273.
- Mathers CD, Loncar D (2006) Projections of global mortality and burden of disease from 2002 to 2030. *PLoS Medicine* **3**, e442.
- McLaughlin KA, Nandi A, Keyes KM, Uddin M, Aiello AE, Galea S, Koenen KC (2012) Home foreclosure and risk of psychiatric morbidity during the recent financial crisis. *Psychological Medicine* **42**, 1441–1448.
- Moazen-Zadeh E, Assari S (2016) Depressive symptoms predict major depressive disorder after 15 years among Whites but not Blacks. *Frontiers in Public Health* **4**, 13.
- Mojtabai R, Olfson M, Han B (2016) National trends in the prevalence and treatment of depression in adolescents and young adults. *Pediatrics* **138**, e20161878.
- Olfson M, Marcus SC, Druss B, Elinson L, Tanielian T, Pincus HA (2002) National trends in the outpatient treatment of depression. *JAMA* **287**, 203–209.
- Osyuk TL, Caldwell CH, Platt RW, Misra DP (2012) The consequences of foreclosure for depressive symptomatology. *Annals of Epidemiology* **22**, 379–387.
- Pratt LA, Brody DJ (2014) *Depression in the U.S. Household Population, 2009–2012*. NCHS data brief, no 172. National Center for Health Statistics: Hyattsville, MD.
- Reeves A, Stuckler D, McKee M, Gunnell D, Chang SS, Basu S (2012) Increase in state suicide rates in the USA during economic recession. *Lancet* **380**, 1813–1814.
- Rice SM, Fallon BJ, Aucote HM, Möller-Leimkühler AM, Treeby MS, Amminger GP (2015) Longitudinal sex differences of externalising and internalising depression symptom trajectories: implications for assessment of depression in men from an online study. *International Journal of Social Psychiatry* **61**, 236–240.
- Riolo SA, Nguyen TA, Greden JF, King CA (2005) Prevalence of depression by race/ethnicity: findings from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey III. *American Journal of Public Health* **95**, 998–1000.
- Rockett IR, Lilly CL, Jia H, Larkin GL, Miller TR, Nelson LS, Nolte KB, Putnam SL, Smith GS, Caine ED (2016) Self-injury mortality in the United States in the early 21st century: a comparison with proximally ranked diseases. *JAMA Psychiatry* **73**, 1072–1081.
- Rubio JM, Markowitz JC, Alegría A, Pérez-Fuentes G, Liu SM, Lin KH, Blanco C (2011) Epidemiology of chronic and nonchronic major depressive disorder: results from the national epidemiologic survey on alcohol and related conditions. *Depression and Anxiety* **28**, 622–631.
- Saint Onge JM, Krueger PM, Rogers RG (2014) The relationship between major depression and nonsuicide mortality for U.S. Adults: the importance of health behaviors. *Series B: Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences* **69**, 622–632.
- SAMHSA (2015) *National Survey on Drug Use and Health, 2016*. Codebook. SAMHSA: Rockville, MD.
- Seabrook EM, Kern ML, Rickard NS (2016) Social networking sites, depression, and anxiety: a systematic review. *JMIR Mental Health* **3**, e50.
- Shensa A, Escobar-Viera CG, Sidani JE, Bowman ND, Marshal MP, Primack BA (2017) Problematic social media use and depressive symptoms among U.S. young adults: a nationally-representative study. *Social Science & Medicine* **182**, 150–157.
- Shim RS, Baltrus P, Ye J, Rust G (2011) Prevalence, treatment, and control of depressive symptoms in the United States: results from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES), 2005–2008. *Journal of the American Board of Family Medicine* **24**, 33–38.
- Skovlund CW, Kessing LV, Mørch LS, Lidgaard O (2017) Increase in depression diagnosis and prescribed antidepressants among young girls. A national cohort study 2000–2013. *Nordic Journal of Psychiatry* **71**, 378–385.
- Solantaus T, Leinonen J, Punamaki RL (2004) Children's mental health in times of economic recession: replication and extension of the family economic stress model in Finland. *Developmental Psychology* **40**, 412–429.
- Sullivan PF, Neale MC, Kendler KS (2000) Genetic epidemiology of major depression: review and meta-analysis. *American Journal of Psychiatry* **157**, 1552–1562.
- Van de Velde S, Bracke P, Levecque K (2010) Gender differences in depression in 23 European countries. Cross-national variation in the gender gap in depression. *Social Science & Medicine* **71**, 305–313.
- Whiteford H, Harris M, McKeon G, Baxter A, Pennell C, Barendregt J, Wang J (2013) Estimating remission from untreated major depression: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Psychological Medicine* **43**, 1569–1585.
- WHO (2016) Depression (<http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs369/en/>). Accessed 18 February 2017.
- Williams DR, Earl TR (2007) Commentary: race and mental health: more questions than answers. *International Journal of Epidemiology* **36**, 758–760.
- Williams DR, González HM, Neighbors H, Nesse R, Abelson JM, Sweetman J, Jackson JS (2007) Prevalence and distribution of major depressive disorder in African Americans, Caribbean blacks, and non-Hispanic whites: results from the National Survey of American Life. *Archives of General Psychiatry* **64**, 305–315.