Boise State University

ScholarWorks

Public Health and Population Science Faculty Publications and Presentations

School of Public and Population Health

5-2023

Social Support and Perceptions of COVID-19-Related Emotional Impact on Mental Health Among Early Adolescents in Appalachia

Hannah M. Layman West Virginia University School of Public Health

Michael J. Mann Boise State University

Megan L. Smith Boise State University

Steven M. Kogan University of Georgia College of Family and Consumer Sciences

Alfgeir L. Kristjansson West Virginia University School of Public Health



Research Article



Social Support and Perceptions of COVID-19-Related Emotional Impact on Mental Health Among Early Adolescents in Appalachia

HANNAH M. LAYMAN, MPH^a Michael J. MANN, PhD^b Megan L. Smith, PhD^c Steven M. Kogan, PhD^d Alfgeir L. Kristjansson, PhD^e

ABSTRACT

BACKGROUND: Young people who experience higher levels of social support from their schools and families have been shown to be less likely to develop symptoms of negative mental health outcomes such as depression and anxiety.¹⁻⁴ This raises questions concerning how young people's stress and psychological changes due to the COVID-19 pandemic as well as social support during this time have affected their overall mental health. The aim of this study was to assess the association between sources of parental- and school-level social support and youth perceptions of COVID-19-related emotional impact on mental health among early adolescent girls and boys in Appalachia.

METHODS: Using linear regression, we analyzed the first and third wave of survey data from the larger parent study (Young Mountaineer Health Study) cohort, collected in 20 middle schools throughout West Virginia in the fall of 2020 and fall of 2021 (N = 1349, mean age: 11.5, response rate: 80.7%).

RESULTS: Approximately half of participants reported knowing someone that had been sick with COVID-19. Those experiencing higher levels of perceived COVID-19-related emotional impact reported greater levels of depression, anxiety, and anger. Both parental and school-level social support were associated with better mental health outcomes.

CONCLUSIONS: Early adolescent perceptions of COVID-19-related emotional impact were associated with depression, anxiety, and anger and moderated by social support at home and in school among 11-12-year-old youth in Appalachia.

Keywords: early adolescents; COVID-19; mental health; stress; Appalachia.

Citation: Layman HM, Mann MJ, Smith ML, Kogan SM, Kristjansson AL. Social support and youth perceptions of COVID-19-related emotional impact on mental health among early adolescents in appalachia. J Sch Health. 2023; 93: 370-377. DOI: 10.1111/josh.13296

Received on March 8, 2022 Accepted on February 6, 2023

BACKGROUND

As of February 2022, the COVID-19 pandemic has taken the lives of over 928,000 people in the United States.⁵ In addition to lives lost, the pandemic has created multiple challenges for families and children such as increased risk of financial hardship, job loss, school closures, social isolation, and fear of infection. Children and youth are at a high risk of stress related to the wider psychosocial impact of the pandemic.⁶ A recent systematic review showed an overall increase in youth symptoms of anxiety, depression, and psychological distress due to the pandemic.⁷ Given that adolescence is a common developmental period for the onset of many mental health disorders such as anxiety, depression, and schizophrenia early detection and prevention of mental health consequences of the pandemic has been called for.^{8,9} An important concern associated with the pandemic is its potential impact on stress among younger adolescents (eg, 11- to 12-year-old) and how the pandemic may have impacted stress levels among

370 • Journal of School Health • May 2023, Vol. 93, No. 5

© 2023 The Authors. Journal of School Health published by Wiley Periodicals LLC on behalf of American School Health Association.

This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs License, which permits use and distribution in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited, the use is non-commercial and no modifications or adaptations are made.

^aPhD Candidate, (hmlayman@mix.wwu.edu), Department of Social and Behavioral Sciences, West Virginia University School of Public Health, PO Box 9190, 3314 HSC South, 64 Medical Center Drive, Morgantown, WV, 26505.

^bAssociate Professor, (mikemann@boisestate.edu), Department of Community and Environmental Health, Boise State College of Health Sciences, Health Science Riverside Building (HSRV), 950 S Lusk Street, Boise, ID, 83725.

^cAssociate Professor, (mlsmith@boisestate.edu), Department of Community and Environmental Health, Boise State College of Health Sciences, Health Science Riverside Building (HSRV), 950 S Lusk Street, Boise, ID, 83725.

specific subgroups (gender race, family structure, etc.) at this age. Such findings could be important for early detection and the development of interventions.

School-level social support can be vital to the mental development of students. School social support includes students having adults at their school that care about them, are kind and fair to them, that they feel safe around, notice when they are having a hard time and offer help, and/or that believes the student can help make the world a better place. Prior to the pandemic, students in most US states attended at least 180 days of in-person schooling with at least 5 hours of instruction a day. This does not include lunchtime, free periods, or after-school activities. Because of this, other than caretakers, the most present adults in students' lives are school personnel. Since school personnel spend so much time with students, they are well-positioned to recognize signs of poor mental health and provide support for students in need. Put simply, school-level social support plays an important role in the mental development of students. For example, a study in Finland demonstrated that students who report lower levels of school social support were 2.5 times as likely to show negative mental health symptoms, such as depression, compared to those who reported higher levels of school social support.¹ Further, students who reported no school social support were 8 times as likely to show negative mental health symptoms compared to those who reported low levels of school social support. This shows that even small amounts of social support can make a big difference compared to none at all. Other studies have reported similar findings.¹⁰⁻¹⁴ The COVID-19 pandemic undoubtedly has disrupted the ability of schools to provide social support for their students. Thus, it is imperative to assess the importance of school-level support and how it may impact youth mental health among students in the United States.

Research has also identified parental social support as a protective factor for many negative health outcomes such as depression, anxiety, alcohol use, and chronic health conditions.²⁻⁴ Parental social support includes young people having a caregiver who is able to make them feel better when they are upset, enjoys doing things with them, cheers them up when they are sad, gives them a lot of care and attention, and/or is easy to talk to. Further, research has shown that parental social support has positive impact on academic outcomes, create less negative reactions to parental monitoring, and decreases sexual risk-taking behaviors.¹⁵⁻¹⁷ For instance, a recent study showed that youth who have low levels of parental social support and high friend social strain (decreased socialization and interactions with friends) suffer more from chronic health conditions, such as mental health, than those with low levels of parental social support alone.⁴ Since the pandemic has been a time of separation from friends, these findings highlight the importance of parental social support during a pandemic that has had dramatic effects on "friend social strain."

Historically, children and youth that grow up with financial hardship have been more likely than youth that grow up in better-off environments to depend on institutional structures such as schools to provide resources beyond education such as food, social support, and counseling.¹⁸ Studies have also shown that vouth self-reported economic stress has been related to higher levels of negative mental health outcomes (such as symptoms of anxiety and depression).^{19,20} A meta-analysis including 44 studies showed that of all health outcomes, youth self-reported socioeconomic status (SES) showed the strongest relationship with mental health outcomes (low SES being related to higher reporting of negative mental health issues).²¹ It should be noted that youth self-reported SES is used because this is what is perceived by the young person and therefore will affect their thoughts, beliefs, and behaviors surrounding their SES. It is therefore conceivable that youth perceptions of emotional impact related to the psychosocial changes brought about with the COVID-19 pandemic has affected young adolescents who live with financial scarcity, and depend on outside resources, greater than those from better-off backgrounds.²² Thus, it is expected that with regards to the COVID-19 pandemic children and youth from lower-income families will report different levels of mental health indicators compared to children from higher-income families.

Numerous studies of gender differences in mental health have been conducted over the last 20 years. The seminal review work by Kawachi and Berkman,²³ showed that females generally tend to report higher psychological distress compared to males and pointed in particular to observed gender differences in their reliance on and mobilization of social support networks to combat mental health challenges. Another key reflection by Kawachi and Berkman²³ was that "women's propensity for intimate social involvements may predispose them to the 'contagion of stress' when stressful life events afflict those to whom they feel emotionally close" (p. 462). Recent studies suggest that adolescent girls are more likely than boys to

^d Professor, (smkogan@uga.edu), Department of Human Development and Family Science, University of Georgia College of Family and Consumer Sciences, 204 Family Science Center II (House D), 405 Sanford Drive, Athens, GA, 30602.

^e Associate Professor, (alkristjansson@hsc.wvu.edu), Department of Social and Behavioral Sciences, West Virginia University School of Public Health, PO Box 9190, 3314 HSC South, 64 Medical Center Drive, Morgantown, WV, 26505.

Address correspondence to: Alfgeir L. Kristjansson, Associate Professor, (alkristjansson@hsc.wvu.edu), Department of Social and Behavioral Sciences, West Virginia University School of Public Health, PO Box 9190, 3314 HSC South, 64 Medical Center Drive, Morgantown, WV 26505.

react negatively to the pandemic due to this higher distress.²⁴ This is why it is also expected that girls will report different levels of mental health indicators compared to boys in this study.

In 2018, youth born between 1997 and 2012 reported higher levels of stress than any other age group before them.²⁵ This age group also showed a significant increase in the rates of serious psychological distress, major depression, and suicide compared to previous birth cohorts.²⁶ Given that these statistics were gathered and published prior to the COVID-19 pandemic and that the pandemic has caused many disruptions in young people's lives, one would expect that these negative health outcomes may have been exacerbated during the pandemic. Contemporary research has shown that the pandemic has caused increased rates of mental health symptoms²⁷; however, no study to date has empirically tested whether youth perceptions of COVID-19related emotional response or levels of social support are associated with mental health indicators such as depression, anxiety, and anger among young adolescents. Hence, the purposes of this study were to test: (1) the relations between levels of youth perceived COVID-19-related emotional impact and indicators of mental health (depression, anxiety, and anger) and (2) the relationship between parental and/or school-level social support on these outcomes.

METHODS

Participants

The present analyses are based on 2 waves (waves 1 and 3 out of 6) of survey data from the larger parent study, the Young Mountaineer Health Study (YMHS) cohort, where students enrolled in 20 public middle-schools in 5 counties in West Virginia are being followed twice per year from grades 6 through 8. Baseline (wave 1) data were collected in the fall of 2020 during the height of the pandemic and before vaccines had become widely available in the population. Wave 3 occurred 1 year later in the Fall of 2021 as more children returned to face-to-face methods of instruction. Across the 2 waves, of 1671 students that were enrolled in either face-to-face or hybrid school format (part in person, part virtual) at the time (ie, not in virtual-only format) and thus accessible to the study team, 1349 completed the study survey. The overall response rate was 80.7%.

Instruments

Dependent variables. In order to investigate mental health outcomes for adolescents, we chose 3 indicators; depression, anxiety, and anger which were all measured using the outpatient psychiatric rating scale²⁸ which has been widely used in both adult and

adolescent populations. Depression was measured with 10 items (Cronbach's $\alpha = .91$). Items included "In the past week I had little interest in doing things." Anxiety was measured with 3 items (Cronbach's $\alpha = .83$). Items included "In the past week I felt tense." Anger was measured with 5 items (Cronbach's $\alpha = .88$). Items included "In the past week I wanted to break or damage things." Response option for all 3 indicators were 1 = "Never" to 4 = "Often."

Control variables. Race (white vs all other), youth self-reported family income status (assessed with the question "How well off financially do you think your family is in comparison to other families in West Virginia?" Response options ranged from 1 = "much worse off'' to 7 = "much better off"), and gender was assessed with a 4-category question pertaining to 1 = boy, 2 = girl, 3 = gender nonconforming, 4 = other. Due to low number of respondents in the latter 2 groups (n = 34) those responses were omitted from the analysis resulting in a dichotomized variable (girls = 1, boys = 0). We also controlled for individual experiences of COVID-19 ("Do you personally: (1) know anyone who has been sick with COVID-19 and (2) know someone who died from COVID-19?" Response options: me, a parent/caregiver, another family member, a friend, someone else) were employed as dichotomized control variables.

Independent variables. Students' perception of COVID-19-related emotional impact was assessed with 5 questions designed for this study headed by the statement: "How true are the following statements about you": "Because of COVID-19 I am: (1) stressed, (2) lonely, (3) bored, (4) sad, (5) angry." Response options that ranged from 1 = "not true at all" to 5 = "very true" were summed to form a scale ranging from 5 to 25 (Skew = .81, Kurtosis = -.40, Cronbach's $\alpha = .85$). To further substantiate this new measure, an exploratory factor analysis was assessed and indicated a solid 1 factor model (KMO = .84, $\chi^2 = 2547.2$, p < .001, all communalities above 3, 1 factor explained 63% of the variance). Parental social support was assessed with 5 questions from the questionnaire for children and youth (CRPBI-30)²⁹ headed by the statement: "These next questions are about your relationship with your primary caregiver. Are the following statements not like primary caregiver, like primary caregiver, or a lot like primary caregiver?": "My primary caregiver: (1) is able to make me feel better when I am upset, (2) enjoys doing things with me, (3) cheers me up when I am sad, (4) gives me a lot of care and attention (5) is easy to talk to." Response options that ranged from 1 = "not like" to 3 ="a lot like" were summed to form a scale ranging from 5 to 15 (Skew = -1.45, Kurtosis = 1.49, Cronbach's $\alpha = .87$). School social support was assessed with 5 questions from first subscale on the school as a protective factor measure (Mann et al.,

unpublished data, February 2020), headed by the statement: "The following questions ask you to think about your school. Please select the response that best captures your experience.": "The adults at my school: (1) care about me, (2) are fair and kind to me, (3) are safe to be around, (4) notice when I'm having a hard time and offer to help me, (5) believe I can make the world a better place." Response options that ranged from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree" were summed to form a scale ranging from 5 to 25 (Skew = -1.33, Kurtosis = 2.06, Cronbach's $\alpha = .86$). To further substantiate this newer measure, an Exploratory Factor Analysis was assessed and indicated a solid 1 factor model (KMO = .86, $\chi^2 = 3034.88$, p < .001, all communalities above 3, 1 factor explained 66% of the variance).

Procedure

The YMHS employs a network that consists of an investigative team, study manager, 3 county data collection leaders, and 20 supervising contact agents (1 in each school), to organize all data collection efforts. All 5 county superintendents and 20 school principals approved participation in the study. In September 2020, an introductory letter was sent to all parents and caregivers to notify them about the study where they were offered the opportunity to optout of participation. The institutional review board of West Virginia University approved all study protocols (#1903499093A001). Data collection was supervised by research staff. Students were accessed either inside schools or during designated classroom hours from home, depending on accessibility based on state and county mitigation efforts to the COVID-19 pandemic at the time.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed with a series of hierarchical linear regression models in SPSS version 27. Each model employed depression, anxiety, or anger as the dependent variable with the controls (race, income, gender, covid experience of illness, and death) entered on the first step. On the next step key variables of interest (covid emotional impact, parent social support, and school social support) were entered. We ran these 3 models in each wave to assess if there were differences in the trends of association across time points. Table 1 includes descriptive statistics for all study variables. Tables 2-4 include the multivariate ordinary least squares regression findings.

RESULTS

Table 1 includes descriptive statistics for all study variables. The mean score of the COVID-19-related emotional impact scale was 11.7 (range 5-25) which

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for All Study Samples

	-	
	n	%
Total	1349	
Gender		
Female	660	52.6
Male	594	47.4
Race		
White	1155	85.6
All other	194	14.4
Family structure		
Lives with both biological parents	650	48.2
Other forms	699	51.8
Individual experiences of COVID-19		
Know someone who has been sick with COVID-19		
Yes	599	48.9
No	627	51.1
Know someone who died from COVID-19		
Yes	114	8.5
No	1235	91.5
	Mean	SD
Youth perceived COVID-19-related emotional impact (range 5-25)	11.70	5.97
Youth self-reported family income status (range 1-7)	3.06	1.36
Parental social support (range 5-15)	13.20	2.43
School social support (range 5-25)	20.98	3.96

is skewed toward the lower end. Majority of the study population were female (52.6%) and white (85.6%). The mean score of the school social support variable was 13.20 (range 5-15) and the mean score of the parental social support variable was 20.98 (range 5-25). Approximately half the participants reported knowing at least 1 person that had been sick with COVID-19 or reported having the virus themselves, and 8.5% reported having known someone who died because of the virus. Although race, family structure, and individual experiences of COVID-19 were not significant, the variables were still included in each model to demonstrate that they did not affect the relationship of the other predictors with the outcome.

Depression

Table 2 includes the results from the hierarchical multiple linear regression analyses for depression in waves 1 and 3. Across both waves, the variables included accounted for between 33% (W1 R² = .33) and 31% (W3 R² = .31) of the variance in depression. For wave 1 data, gender, youth self-reported family income status, Covid-related emotional impact, parental social support, and school social support were all significantly associated with depression. Girls and those reporting lower family income reported slightly increased depression. For every 1-point increase in parental social support, the depression score decreased by .21, and for every 1-point increase in school social support, depression decreased by .15 points. The largest

Table 2. Regression Coefficients (Dependent Variable: Depression)

	Wave 1			Wave 2			
	Parameter Estimate (SE)	Standardized Estimate	p-Value	Parameter Estimate (SE)	Standardized Estimate	p-Value	
Intercept	26.57 (1.79)		<.001	24.14 (1.35)		<.001	
Control variables							
Race	36 (.59)	02	.546	.54 (.57)	.02	.340	
Youth self-reported family income	.36 (.14)	.06	.012	.37 (14)	.06	.007	
Gender	1.72 (.38)	.11	<.001	2.96 (.36)	.18	<.001	
Knows someone who has been sick with COVID-	.06 (.06)	.02	.370	77 (.50)	04	.120	
Knows someone who died from COVID-19	49 (.66)	02	.459	.37 (.42)	.02	.384	
Independent variables							
Youth perceived COVID-19-related emotional impact	.52 (.03)	.40	<.001	.56 (.03)	.37	<.001	
Parental social support	69 (.09)	21	<.001	48 (.07)	16	<.001	
School social support	29 (.05)	15	<.001	35 (.04)	19	<.001	

Table 3. Regression Coefficients (Dependent Variable: Anxiety)

	Wave 1			Wave 2			
	Parameter Estimate (SE)	Standardized Estimate	p-Value	Parameter Estimate (SE)	Standardized Estimate	p-Value	
Intercept	7.45 (.68)		<.001	6.31 (.48)		<.001	
Control variables							
Race	19(.23)	02	.400	.13 (.20)	.02	.509	
Youth self-reported family income	.08 (.05)	.04	.160	.11 (.05)	.05	.021	
Gender	.59 (.14)	.11	<.001	1.38 (.13)	.24	<.001	
Knows someone who has been sick with COVID-	.01 (.02)	.01	.744	41 (.18)	06	.021	
Knows someone who died from COVID-19	23 (.25)	03	.353	.15 (.15)	.03	.328	
Independent variables							
Youth perceived COVID-19-related emotional impact	.16(.01)	.35	<.001	.17 (.01)	.33	<.001	
Parental social support	20 (.03)	17	<.001	08 (.03)	08	.001	
School social support	05 (.02)	07	.019	09 (.02)	14	<.001	

Table 4. Regression Coefficients (Dependent Variable: Anger)

	Wave 1			Wave 2			
	Parameter Estimate (SE)	Standardized Estimate	p-Value	Parameter Estimate (SE)	Standardized Estimate	p-Value	
Intercept	14.42 (1.05)		<.001	13.22 (.74)		<.001	
Control variables							
Race	35 (.35)	03	.318	.08 (.31)	.01	.798	
Youth self-reported family income	.20 (.08)	.07	.014	.22 (.08)	.06	.005	
Gender	.11 (.22)	.01	.611	1.26 (.20)	.14	<.001	
Knows someone who has been sick with COVID-	.04 (.04)	.026	.321	86 (.27)	08	.002	
Knows someone who died from COVID-19	42 (.39)	03	.279	.10 (.23)	.01	.663	
Independent variables							
Youth perceived COVID-19-related emotional impact	.23 (.02)	.32	<.001	.24 (.02)	.30	<.001	
Parental social support	30 (.05)	17	<.001	23 (.04)	14	<.001	
School social support	18 (.03)	17	<.001	20 (.02)	20	<.001	

© 2023 The Authors. Journal of School Health published by Wiley Periodicals LLC on behalf of American School Health Association.

association to depression in wave 1 was Covid-related emotional impact with a 1-point increase leading to higher depression score by .40.

Wave 3 data follows then same trend, gender, youth self-reported family income status, Covid-related emotional impact, parental social support, and school social support were all significantly associated with depression. Girls and those reporting lower family income reported slightly increased depression. For every 1-point increase in parental social support, the depression score decreased by .16, and for every 1-point increase in school social support, depression decreased by .19 points. The largest association to depression in Wave 3 was Covid-related emotional impact with a 1-point increase increasing depression by .37. Importantly, those findings hold when controlling for prior COVID-19-related experiences.

Anxiety

Table 3 includes the results from the hierarchical multiple linear regression analyses for anxiety in both wave 1 and 3. Across both waves, the variables included accounted for between 22% (W1 $R^2 = .22$) and 25% (W3 $R^2 = .25$) of the variance in anxiety. For wave 1 data, gender, Covid-related emotional impact, parental social support, and school social support were all significantly associated with anxiety. Girls reported slightly increased anxiety. For every 1-point increase in parental social support, the anxiety score decreased by .17, and for every 1-point increase in school social support, anxiety decreased by .07 points. The largest association to anxiety in wave 1 was Covid-related emotional impact with a 1-point increase leading to higher anxiety score by .35.

Wave 3 data shows gender, youth self-reported family income status, Covid-related emotional impact, parental social support, and school social support all significantly associated with anxiety. Girls and those reporting lower family income and knowing someone sick, reported slightly increased anxiety. For every 1-point increase in parental social support, the anxiety score decreased by .08, and for every 1-point increase in school social support, anxiety decreased by .14 points. The largest association to anxiety in wave 3 was Covid-related emotional impact with a 1-point increase increasing anxiety by .33.

Anger

Table 4 includes the results from the hierarchical multiple linear regression analyses for anger in both wave 1 and 3. Across both waves, the variables included accounted for between 23% (W1 R² = .23) and 25% (W3 R² = .25) of the variance in depression. For wave 1 data, self-reported family income, Covid-related emotional impact, parental social support, and school social support were all significantly associated

with anger. For every 1-point increase in parental social support, the anger score decreased by .17, and for every 1-point increase in school social support, anger decreased by .17 points. The largest association to anger in wave 1 was Covid-related emotional impact with a 1-point increase leading to higher anger score by .32.

Wave 3 data shows gender, youth self-reported family income status, knowing someone sick, Covidrelated emotional impact, parental social support, and school social support all being significantly associated with anger. Boys and those reporting lower family income or knowing someone sick reported slightly increased anger. For every 1-point increase in parental social support, the anger score decreased by .14, and for every 1-point increase in school social support, depression decreased by .20 points. The largest association to depression in wave 3 was Covid-related emotional impact with a 1-point increase leading to higher depression by .30.

DISCUSSION

Our results show that among 11- to 12-year-old youth in Appalachia, and during the height of the pandemic before vaccines had become available in the population, youth self-reports on mental health outcomes (depression, anxiety, and anger) varied considerably by COVID-19-related emotional impact (higher for those experiencing greater levels of emotional impact) and by levels of social support at home and in school (higher in participants reporting lower levels of support). Importantly, these findings hold despite controlling for gender, race, youth self-reported family income status, and prior experiences of COVID-19, such as being sick with the virus or knowing someone that had been sick with the virus or having experienced death due to the virus in one's immediate environment.

Our regression models indicated that youth perceived COVID-related emotional response, parental support, and school support are all related to youth mental health indicators in the expected direction. Thus, (1) perceived COVID-related emotional impact is strongly related to youth depression, anxiety, and anger (increased emotional impact leads to higher reporting of negative mental health indicators) and (2) levels of parental and school social support serve to decrease youth mental health indicators regardless of race, family income, gender, and COVID-19 experiences.

Conclusions

Studies show that youth who experience high levels of stress and negative mental health are more likely to be disengaged in the classroom, have lower grades, and drop out of school.³⁰⁻³³ A series of studies has also indicated that youth coping and regulatory abilities

are related to academic performance and grade point average.³⁴ The consequences of not addressing youth stress and mental health not only affect academic outcomes in adolescence, but can also lead to physiological, psychological, and emotional problems in adulthood.³⁵ Among 11- to 12-year-old youth in Appalachia, girls reported greater overall levels of mental health indicators compared to boys. Youth perceived family income status was also inversely related to these mental health indicators. Our findings show that strengthening levels of social support, both in the homes of early adolescents, as well as by caring adults in schools, can decrease levels of depression, anxiety, and anger in 11- to 12-year-old adolescents. Our findings support the importance of targeted interventions to youth, specifically girls and those from low-income families, to provide the coping skills and resources needed to alleviate negative mental health outcomes and perceived COVID-19-related emotional impact.

Limitations

Our study has both strengths and limitations. We were able to collect data from a particularly vulnerable group of young adolescents during the midst of the COVID-19 pandemic from a diverse set of rural, suburban, and urban areas in West Virginia (WV) with high response rates.³⁶ On the other hand, our report is based on cross-sectional data which precludes us drawing causal inferences from the findings. However, the temporal association of events may be particularly challenging to assess given the rapid changes associated with the COVID-19 pandemic. Additionally, all data were self-reported rendering recall bias unaccounted for.

IMPLICATIONS FOR SCHOOL HEALTH

This study demonstrates that many early adolescents self-reported loneliness, sadness, boredom, stress, and anger during the COVID-19 pandemic and that those students experienced higher rates of depression, anxiety, and anger as measured by validated scientific measures. This finding suggests that early adolescent students' perceptions of the emotional impact of COVID-19 may be a reliable indicator of likely clinical mental health challenges. As such, we recommend that middle school teachers, counselors, and administrators carefully assess student self-reports of COVID-19-related emotional impacts, being especially careful not to assume that student concerns related to their mental health can be easily dismissed or responses delayed.

Additionally, both family and school-related social support moderated the levels of depression, anxiety, and anger among struggling early adolescent students. For depression and anxiety, family social support appeared to have a moderately larger protection on student mental health outcomes while school social support also helped moderate negative outcomes. For anger, family and school social support appeared to offer equal protection. In all cases, the combination of family and school social support offered early adolescent students the best protection from negative mental health outcomes. As such, it seems especially important for schools and families to work in concert when providing social support to early adolescents. School-based approaches to promoting student wellbeing that support school-family partnerships, eg, the Whole School, Whole Community, Whole Child Model, may have been especially important and relevant during the initial and middle phases of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Finally, although this study was conducted during the pandemic, these findings also suggest schools and families continue to enhance their partnerships during the current recovery phase of the COVID-19 pandemic. Having faced a global trauma, it is likely that many early adolescents are still recovering from the past and current impacts of COVID-19 and that schoolfamily partnerships will remain important for the foreseeable future. At a minimum, this data suggests that working together to increase social support at school and in families will help moderate rates of depression, anxiety, and anger. However, the positive impacts associated with adults ensuring supportive environments at school and at home for vulnerable students are likely to extend to a much wider range of benefits-eg, improved academic achievement and decrease substance use-and to be an essential element in the recovery of this generation of students' sense of security and wellbeing.

REFERENCES

- Ellonen N, Kääriäinen J, Autio V. Adolescent depression and school social support: a multilevel analysis of a Finnish sample. *J Community Psychol.* 2008;36(4):552-567. https://doi.org/10. 1002/jcop.20254.
- 2. Shaw BA. Lack of emotional support from parents early in life and alcohol abuse later in life. *Int J Aging Hum Dev.* 2006;63(1):49-72. https://doi.org/10.2190/0V1L-0X1C-NB3D-V6A8.
- 3. Moran KM, Turiano NA, Gentzler AL. Parental warmth during childhood predicts coping and well-being in adulthood. *J Fam Psychol.* 2018;32(5):610-621. https://doi.org/10.1037/fam0000401.
- Romm KF, Metzger A, Turiano NA. Parental emotional support and health problems: the role of social support and social strain. J Adult Dev. 2021;28(4):319-331. https://doi.org/10. 1007/s10804-021-09379-z.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Daily Updates of Totals by Week and State; 2021. Available at: https://www. cdc.gov/nchs/nvss/vsrr/covid19/index.htm. Accessed February 4, 2020.
- Waselewski EA, Waselewski ME, Chang T. Needs and coping behaviors of youth in the U.S. during COVID-19. *J Adolesc Health*. 2020;67(5):649-652. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. jadohealth.2020.07.043.

- Nearchou F, Flinn C, Niland R, Subramaniam SS, Hennessy E. Exploring the impact of COVID-19 on mental health outcomes in children and adolescents: a systematic review. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2020;17(22):8479. https://doi.org/10.3390/ ijerph17228479.
- de Figueiredo CS, Sandre PC, Portugal LCL, et al. COVID-19 pandemic impact on children and adolescents' mental health: biological, environmental, and social factors. *Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry*. 2021;106:110171. https:// doi.org/10.1016/j.pnpbp.2020.110171.
- Galea S, Merchant RM, Lurie N. The mental health consequences of COVID-19 and physical distancing. JAMA Intern Med. 2020;180(6):817. https://doi.org/10.1001/ jamainternmed.2020.1562.
- Hamre BK, Pianta RC. Early teacher-child relationships and the trajectory of children's school outcomes through eighth grade. *Child Dev.* 2001;72(2):625-638. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8624.00301.
- 11. Reddy R, Rhodes JE, Mulhall P. The influence of teacher support on student adjustment in the middle school years: a latent growth curve study. *Dev Psychopathol*. 2003;15(1):119-138. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0954579403000075.
- Tian L, Zhao J, Huebner ES. School-related social support and subjective well-being in school among adolescents: the role of self-system factors. *J Adolesc*. 2015;45:138-148. https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.adolescence.2015.09.003.
- Hertz MF, Kilmer G, Verlenden J, et al. Adolescent mental health, connectedness, and mode of school instruction during COVID-19. J Adolesc Health. 2022;70(1):57-63. https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.jadohealth.2021.10.021.
- Verlenden JV, Pampati S, Rasberry CN, et al. Association of children's mode of school instruction with child and parent experiences and well-being during the COVID-19 pandemic—COVID experiences survey, United States, October 8-November 13, 2020. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep.* 2021;70(11):369-376. https://doi.org/10.15585/mmwr.mm7011a1.
- 15. Lowe K, Dotterer AM. Parental monitoring, parental warmth, and minority youths' academic outcomes: exploring the integrative model of parenting. *J Youth Adolesc*. 2013;42(9):1413-1425. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-013-9934-4.
- LaFleur LK, Zhao Y, Zeringue MM, Laird RD. Warmth and legitimacy beliefs contextualize adolescents' negative reactions to parental monitoring. *J Adolesc*. 2016;51:58-67. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2016.05.013.
- Huebner AJ, Howell LW. Examining the relationship between adolescent sexual risk-taking and perceptions of monitoring, communication, and parenting styles. *J Adolesc Health*. 2003;33(2):71-78. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1054-139X(03)00141-1.
- Maes L, Lievens J. Can the school make a difference? A multilevel analysis of adolescent risk and health behaviour. *Soc Sci Med.* 2003;56(3):517-529. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0277-9536(02)00052-7.
- Mistry RS, Benner AD, Tan CS, Kim SY. Family economic stress and academic well-being among Chinese-American youth: the influence of adolescents' perceptions of economic strain. *J Fam Psychol.* 2009;23(3):279-290. https://doi.org/10.1037/ a0015403.
- 20. Rivenbark J, Arseneault L, Caspi A, et al. Adolescents' perceptions of family social status correlate with health and

life chances: a twin difference longitudinal cohort study. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2020;117(38):23323-23328. https://doi.org/ 10.1073/pnas.1820845116.

- Quon EC, McGrath JJ. Subjective socioeconomic status and adolescent health: a meta-analysis. *Health Psychol*. 2014;33(5):433-447. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0033716.
- 22. Mann MJ, Smith ML, Kristjansson AL, Daily S, McDowell S, Traywick P. Our children are not "behind" due to the COVID-19 pandemic, but our institutional response might be. *J Sch Health*. 2021;91(6):447-450. https://doi.org/10.1111/josh.13016.
- 23. Kawachi I, Berkman LF. Social ties and mental health. *J Urban Health.* 2001;78(3):458-467. https://doi.org/10.1093/jurban/78.3.458.
- 24. Lehmann S, Skogen JC, Haug E, et al. Perceived consequences and worries among youth in Norway during the COVID-19 pandemic lockdown. *Scand J Public Health*. 2021;49(7):755-765. https://doi.org/10.1177/1403494821993714.
- 25. American Psychological Association. Stress in America: generation Z; 2018 (October).
- 26. Twenge JM, Cooper AB, Joiner TE, Duffy ME, Binau SG. Age, period, and cohort trends in mood disorder indicators and suicide-related outcomes in a nationally representative dataset, 2005-2017. *J Abnorm Psychol.* 2019;128(3):185-199. https://doi.org/10.1037/abn0000410.
- SAVE THE CHILDREN. Protect a generation: the impact of COVID-19 on children's lives. London, UK: Save The Children International; 2020.
- 28. Derogatis LR, Lipman RS, Covi L. SCL-90: an outpatient psychiatric rating scale—preliminary report. *Psychopharmacol Bull*. 1973;9(1):13-28.
- 29. Schludermann S, Chludermann E. Questionnaire for Children and Youth (CRPBI-30); 1988.
- Adams JW, Snowling MJ, Hennessy SM, Kind P. Problems of behaviour, reading and arithmetic: assessments of comorbidity using the strengths and difficulties questionnaire. *Br J Educ Psychol.* 1999;69(4):571-585. https://doi.org/10.1348/ 000709999157905.
- McLeod JD, Kaiser K. Childhood emotional and behavioral problems and educational attainment. *Am Sociol Rev.* 2004;69(5):636-658. https://doi.org/10.1177/ 000312240406900502.
- 32. Reid R, Gonzalez JE, Nordness PD, Trout A, Epstein MH. A meta-analysis of the academic status of students with emotional/behavioral disturbance. *J Spec Educ.* 2004;38(3):130-143. https://doi.org/10.1177/00224669040380030101.
- Finn JD, Fish RM, Scott LA. Educational sequelae of high school misbehavior. J Educ Res. 2008;101(5):259-274. https://doi.org/ 10.3200/JOER.101.5.259-274.
- Valiente C, Lemery-Chalfant K, Swanson J, Reiser M. Prediction of children's academic competence from their effortful control, relationships, and classroom participation. *J Educ Psychol.* 2008;100(1):67-77. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663. 100.1.67.
- 35. WHO. *WHO Adolescents and Mental Health.* Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization; 2020.
- Kann L, McManus T, Harris WA, et al. Youth risk behavior surveillance - United States, 2017. MMWR Surveill Summ. 2018;67(8):1-114. https://doi.org/10.15585/mmwr.ss670.