UC Irvine

UC Irvine Previously Published Works

Title

Parental response and adolescent adjustment to the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks.

Permalink

https://escholarship.org/uc/item/48c2w7kz

Journal

Journal of traumatic stress, 20(6)

ISSN

0894-9867

Authors

Gil-Rivas, Virginia Silver, Roxane Cohen Holman, E Alison et al.

Publication Date

2007-12-01

DOI

10.1002/jts.20277

Copyright Information

This work is made available under the terms of a Creative Commons Attribution License, available at https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/

Peer reviewed



Parental Response and Adolescent Adjustment to the September 11, 2001 Terrorist Attacks

Virginia Gil-Rivas

Department of Psychology, University of North Carolina-Charlotte, Charlotte, NC

Roxane Cohen Silver

Department of Psychology & Social Behavior, University of California-Irvine, Irvine, CA

E. Alison Holman

Program in Nursing Science, University of California-Irvine, Irvine, CA

Daniel N. McIntosh

Department of Psychology, University of Denver, Denver, CO

Michael Poulin

Center for Behavioral and Decision Sciences in Medicine, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI

This study examined adolescents' adjustment following the attacks of September 11, 2001 (9/11). A Web-based survey was administered 2 weeks and 7 months postattacks to a national sample of adolescents (N=104). A randomly selected parent also completed a survey at the 7-month assessment. Although exposure to the attacks was indirect, over half the participants felt threatened. Adolescents' posttraumatic stress symptoms were associated with their acute stress symptoms, parental distress, parental coping advice, parental availability to discuss the attacks, and reports that 9/11-related discussions were unhelpful. Adolescents' distress symptoms were associated with a history of mental health problems, acute stress symptoms, and parental unavailability to discuss the attacks.

Exposure to highly stressful events often elicits anxiety and distress among adolescents (Bolton, O'Ryan, Boyle, & Yule, 2000). Adolescents cope with such events within the context of their families, and in particular, parents provide adolescents with support, information, and coping advice (Prinstein, LaGreca, Vernberg, & Silverman, 1996). However, parents' distress may negatively impact their ability to talk and listen to their children and generate effective advice (Pynoos, Steinberg, & Warth, 1995), and parental

emotional reactions may lead adolescents to avoid seeking their support or talking about the event with them. Few studies have examined the impact of parental behaviors on adolescents' adjustment following traumatic events.

On September 11, 2001 (9/11), the terrorist attacks were viewed throughout the United States via the media. Mass media coverage of such events may expand their impact to youths not directly exposed (Pfefferbaum et al., 2000). National studies found that many adults

This study was funded by National Science Foundation grants BCS-9910223, BCS-0211039, and BCS-0215937 to Roxane Cohen Silver.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to: Virginia Gil-Rivas, Department of Psychology, 9201 University City Boulevard, University of North Carolina—Charlotte, NC 28223-0001. E-mail: vgilriva@email.uncc.edu.

^{© 2007} International Society for Traumatic Stress Studies. Published online in Wiley InterScience (www.interscience.wiley.com) DOI: 10.1002/jts.20277

1064 Gil-Rivas et al.

(Silver, Holman, McIntosh, Poulin, & Gil-Rivas, 2002) and adolescents (Ford, Udry, Gleiter, & Chatala, 2003) reported event-related symptoms even 6-months later. We conducted a study of the impact of the attacks on a national sample of adolescents. We focused on the impact of parental symptomatology, parental coping advice, and parent—adolescent discussions on adolescents' traumarelated and distress symptoms seven months post 9/11. We expected these parental factors to have a greater impact on symptomatology for those adolescents who reported high levels of acute stress symptoms at baseline and those who in general, perceived their parents as less supportive.

METHOD

Participants and Procedures

Participants were drawn from a Web-enabled national panel developed by Knowledge Networks, Inc. (KN; Menlo Park, CA). To ensure representation of population segments that would not otherwise have Internet access, KN provides panel households with an Internet connection and Web TV appliance. Panel members participate in brief Internet surveys 3–4 times per month in exchange for free Internet access or other compensation if the household is already Web-enabled (see Silver et al., 2002).

Between September 20, 2001 and October 4, 2001 (Wave 1), KN fielded a Web-based survey to 987 adolescents from randomly selected panel households where parents had provided blanket consent for their participation. Four-hundred five adolescents completed the survey (41%); most (81.3%) did so within 9–14 days after 9/11.

Approximately 7 months after 9/11 (Wave 2), 224 adolescents were available for follow-up. The remainder had withdrawn from the panel (n = 23) or were committed to another project (n = 158). Parental consent for minors (n = 199) was requested; 143 parents granted it (71.9%). Parental consent was not required for respondents over 18 (n = 25). The survey was fielded to 168 adolescents and a randomly selected parent from their household; 110 adolescents (65%) and 144 parents (86%) completed it, comprising 104 parent–adolescent dyads.

Measures

Wave 1: Adolescents. The 9/11 acute stress symptoms were assessed with the Stanford Acute Stress Reaction Questionnaire (SASRQ; Cardeña, Koopman, Classen, Waelde, & Spiegel, 2000), modified to a 6.5-grade Kincaid reading level ($\alpha = .86$).

Wave 2: Adolescents. We assessed adolescents' direct, vicarious, and 9/11-related TV exposure (number of hours/day), and perceived 9/11-threat ($1 = not \ at \ all$ to $5 = a \ great \ deal$). The 22-item Impact of Event Scale-Revised (IES-R; Weiss & Marmar, 1997) assessed 9/11-related symptoms during the prior 7 days ($0 = not \ at \ all$ to $4 = extremely \ \alpha = .95$). The Brief Symptom Inventory-18 (BSI-18; Derogatis, 2001) assessed prior week distress ($0 = not \ at \ all$ to $4 = extremely; \ \alpha = .93$).

Adolescents reported the frequency of 9/11-related discussions with their parent (1 = never to 5 = all the time) and completed a 14-item checklist assessing parental unavailability, ability to provide help, and constraints on discussions. Also, adolescents reported global levels of parental support by indicating how frequently their parent had "helped them understand or figure things out" and "had provided them with encouragement" during the previous week (1 = never to 5 = all the time; $\alpha = .78$) (Abbey, Abramis, & Caplan, 1985).

Parental 9/11 coping advice was assessed with a 24-item measure paralleling in content the Brief COPE Inventory (Carver, 1997) and the emotional expression subscale of the Emotional Approach Coping Scale (Stanton, Kirk, Cameron, & Dannoff-Burg, 2000) that measured 12 dimensions of coping (1 = My parent has not been doing that at all to 4 = My parent has been doing this a lot) ($\alpha = .61$ to .87).

Wave 2: Parents. Parents reported lifetime diagnosis of their child's learning disability and psychiatric disorders. Parental posttraumatic stress symptoms were assessed with the IES-R ($\alpha = .94$); global distress symptoms were assessed with the BSI-18 ($\alpha = .90$) (Derogatis, 2001).

Data Analysis

Hierarchical regression analyses were conducted for each outcome. Demographics, mental health history, 9/11 exposure, and acute stress were entered in Step 1. Parents' reports of distress and PTS, and adolescents' reports of parental support, coping advice, and talking at W2 were entered in Step 2. Nonsignificant variables were excluded.

Four interaction terms created from centered variables were tested: adolescents' acute stress at W1 by W2 parental distress, adolescents' PTS at W2 by parental distress, perceived parental support by parental coping advice, and perceived parental support by reasons for not talking about 9/11.

RESULTS

Analyses were conducted with the W2 parent–adolescent data. Adolescents' mean age was 15.2 years (SD=1.3); 52.9% were male; 75% were White, 6.7% Black, 7.7% Hispanic, 4.8% Asian American, and 5.8% other backgrounds. Most (75%) lived with both biological parents. Pre-9/11, 6.9% of adolescents had been diagnosed with a learning disability, 1.9% with anxiety, and 4.9% with depression.

Mean parental age was 45.0 years (SD=7.9) and 52.9% were male. Most (78.7%) were employed, 72% reported annual household incomes of \$40,000 or greater; 62.9% had at least some college education. Pre-9/11, 10.8% had been diagnosed with anxiety and 6.9% with depression.

The ANOVAs and cross-tabulation analyses were conducted comparing adolescents completing W1 (n=405) with nonparticipants on demographics; no significant differences emerged. Adolescents completing W2 (N=110) did not differ from those who only completed W1 on demographics or acute stress symptoms. Participating parents (N=104) did not differ from nonparticipants (n=40) on demographics.

Participants were not directly exposed to the attacks. Most adolescents (71.6%) watched television coverage during the week following 9/11. Although exposure was in-

direct, 62.5% of adolescents and 61.5% of parents felt threatened.

At W1, adolescents reported 4.42 (SD=4.34) 9/11-related PTS symptoms and 7.7% reported 10 or more. As expected at W2, adolescents reported mild levels of PTS (M=2.51, SD=4.19) and distress (M=0.42, SD=0.49). No significant age and gender differences in acute stress, PTS, and distress emerged. Parents reported mild levels of PTS (M=2.46, SD=0.04) and distress (M=0.37, SD=0.22) at W2.

Adolescents rated their parents as moderately supportive (M = 3.26, SD = 1.19) and talked with them about the attacks a moderate amount (M = 2.46, SD = 0.93).

The 9/11-related threat and acute stress were positively associated with adolescents' W2 PTS. Parents' reports of distress and adolescents' reports that (a) parents recommended they seek help and advice from others, (b) discussion with parents was not helpful, and (c) they did not discuss the events with their parents for fear of upsetting them were associated with greater PTS symptomatology (Table 1).

The potential moderating effect of parental distress on the relation between adolescents' W1 acute stress and W2 PTS was examined. For adolescents with high levels of acute stress, higher levels of parental distress were associated with greater symptomatology ($\Delta R_{\rm adj}^2 = .03$, $\beta = .22$, p < .05). We examined whether parental support moderated the relation between parental behaviors and adolescents' symptoms. Out of four interactions tested, only one was significant ($\Delta R_{\rm adj}^2 = .08$, $\beta = .31$, p < .001); higher levels of symptoms were reported by adolescents who viewed their parents as very supportive, but did not discuss the attacks for fear of upsetting them.

Adolescents' 9/11-related acute stress was positively associated with their W2 global distress (Table 2). Parental recommendations to seek help from others and to cope by planning were associated with greater distress. In contrast, advice to positively reframe, accept, and express emotions related to the attacks was associated with lower distress. Adolescents who, in general, viewed their parents as supportive, but did not discuss the attacks for fear of upsetting

1066 Gil-Rivas et al.

Table 1.	Summary	of Regression	Analysis fo	r Factors	Predicting	Adolescents'	Wave 2	
Posttraumatic Stress ($n = 103$)								

Variable		Model 1			Model 2		
		SE B	β	В	SE B	β	
9/11-related exposure							
Perceived 9/11 threat	.11	.05	.19*	.07	.05	.14	
Acute stress symptoms	.05	.01	.34***	.02	.01	.16*	
Parental distress				.32	.10	.25***	
Perceived parental support	_			01	.04	01	
Parental coping advice							
Seek advice and help from others	_			.27	.07	.32****	
Reasons for not talking about 9/11							
"It does not help when we talk"				.33	.13	.20**	
"I did not want to upset my parent"	_	_	_	.62	.20	.25***	

Note. Adjusted $R^2=.46$; Model 1 $R^2=.17,\ p<.001$; Model 2 $\Delta R^2=.29,\ p<.001$. * p<.10. **p<.05. **** p<.01. ***** p<.001.

them, reported higher levels of distress at W2 ($\Delta R_{\rm adj}^2 = .08$, $\beta = .29$, p < .001).

DISCUSSION

Parents played an important role in predicting adolescents' symptoms in response to the 9/11 attacks. Parental

distress was associated with adolescents' PTS symptoms, particularly among those reporting high levels of acute 9/11-related stress. In contrast, parental distress did not moderate the association between adolescents' acute stress symptoms and global distress over time.

Parental recommendations that adolescents seek help and advice from others to cope with the attacks and their

Table 2. Summary of Regression Analysis Factors Predicting Adolescents' Wave 2 Distress (n = 104)

		Model 1			Model 2		
Variable	\overline{B}	SE B	β	В	SE B	β	
Pre 9/11 mental health (parent report) 9/11-related exposure	.68	.20	.31**	.79	.19	.37****	
Acute stress symptoms (adolescent)	.03	.01	.26***	.03	.01	.26***	
Parental distress (self-report)	_			.07	.10	.06	
Perceived parental support				02	.04	04	
Parental coping advice (per adolescent)							
Positive reframing	_			18	.09	25^{*}	
Emotional expression	_			16	.07	25**	
Acceptance				24	.07	37***	
Planning				.35	.11	.43***	
Seek advice and help from others Reasons for not talking about 9/11		_	_	.19	.09	.24**	
"I did not want to upset my parent"				.41	.19	.18**	

Note. Adjusted $R^2=.41$; Model 1 $R^2=.16$, p<.001; Model 2 $\Delta R^2=.25$, p<.001.

^{*}p < .10. **p < .05. ***p < .01. ****p < .001.

aftermath were associated with higher PTS symptoms. Perhaps adolescents interpreted this response as parental unavailability or inability to cope with the events, which may have led to increased symptomatology. In contrast, parental coping advice had both beneficial and detrimental effects on adolescents' reports of distress. Specifically, positive reframing, emotional expression, and acceptance were associated with lower distress levels. These types of advice may have enhanced adolescents' feelings of security and safety. In contrast, adolescents whose parents encouraged planning and recommended their seeking help and advice from others reported more distress. Recommendations involving planning (i.e., "come up with a strategy about what to do" and "think hard about what steps to take") in the context of an unprecedented, uncontrollable, and ongoing stressor, may have been interpreted by adolescents as a sign of greater threat than they originally assessed. In addition, recommendations to seek help and advice from others may have been viewed by adolescents as a sign of parental inability to keep them safe in the future.

Adolescents who did not talk to their parents about the attacks due to concerns about upsetting them also reported higher levels of PTS and distress over time, but this finding was specific to those who reported having highly supportive parents. Adolescents who perceive (and receive) higher levels of parental support in general might have been particularly vulnerable to their perception that they could not count on parental support for this event.

We acknowledge several limitations of this study. The cross-sectional nature of the data assessing parental factors, and reliance on adolescents' self-reports of parental coping advice and 9/11-related discussions, limit our ability to make causal inferences. Also, sample size, sample characteristics, and participation rates limit our ability to generalize results to the adolescent population as a whole. Fortunately, our analyses demonstrated that the sample followed over time was not biased in terms of demographics nor participants' acute response to the attacks. Despite these limitations, this is one of the very few studies to include both parents and adolescents following a highly stressful event. Parents' ability to manage their own dis-

tress and voice their concerns may be key for promoting adolescents' adjustment following major stressors. Understanding parental responses to stress and their influences on their children is critical to understanding adolescent adjustment to these events over time.

REFERENCES

- Abbey, A., Abramis, D., & Caplan, R. (1985). Effects of different sources of social support and social conflict on emotional wellbeing. Basic and Applied Social Psychology, 6, 111–129.
- Bolton, D., O'Ryan, D., Udwin, O., Boyle, S., & Yule, W. (2000). The long-term psychological effects of a disaster experienced in adolescence: II: General psychopathology. Journal of Child Psychology & Psychiatry & Allied Disciplines, 41, 513–523.
- Cardeña, E., Koopman, C., Classen, C., Waelde, L. C., & Spiegel, D. (2000). Psychometric properties of the Stanford Acute Stress Reaction Questionnaire (SASRQ): A valid and reliable measure of acute stress. Journal of Traumatic Stress, 13, 719–734.
- Carver, C. S. (1997). You want to measure coping but your protocol is too long: Consider the Brief COPE. International Journal of Behavioral Medicine, 4, 92–100.
- Derogatis, L. R. (2001). Brief Symptom Inventory-18. Administration, scoring, and procedures manual. Minneapolis, MN: NCS Assessments.
- Ford, C. A., Udry, J. R., Gleiter, K., & Chatala, K. (2003). Reactions of young adults to September 11, 2001. Archives of Pediatrics & Adolescent Medicine, 157, 572–578.
- Pfefferbaum, B., Seale, T. W., McDonald, N. B., Brandt, E. N., Rainwater, S. M., Maynard, B. T., et al. (2000). Posttraumatic stress two years after the Oklahoma City bombing in youths geographically distant from the explosion. Psychiatry, 63, 358–370.
- Prinstein, M. J., La Greca, A. M., Vernberg, E. M., & Silverman, W. K. (1996). Children's coping assistance: How parent, teachers, and friends help children cope after a natural disaster. Journal of Clinical Child Psychology, 25, 463–475.
- Pynoos, R. S., Steinberg, A. M., & Warth, R. (1995). A developmental model of childhood traumatic stress. In D. Cicchetti & D. J. Cohen (Eds.), Developmental psychopathology: Vol. 2.
 Risk, disorder, and adaptation (pp. 72–95). New York: Wiley.
- Silver, R. C., Holman, E. A., McIntosh, D. N., Poulin, M., & Gil-Rivas, V. (2002). Nationwide longitudinal study of psychological responses to September 11. Journal of the American Medical Association, 288, 1235–1244.

1068 Gil-Rivas et al.

Stanton, A. L., Kirk, S. B., Cameron, C. L., & Danoff-Burg, S. (2000). Coping through emotional approach: Scale construction and validation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 78, 1150–1169. Weiss, D. S., & Marmar, C. R. (1997). The Impact of Event Scale–Revised. In J. P. Wilson & T. M. Keane (Eds.), Assessing psychological trauma and PTSD (pp. 399–411). New York: Guilford Press.