Review Article

The Relevance of Mindfulness and Social Connectedness in Trauma Survivors during COVID-19

Maggie M Parker1*; Stephanie F Dailey2

¹Department of Counseling and Human Development, The George Washington University, Washington, DC, USA ²College of Education and Human Development, George Mason University, Fairfax, Virginia, USA

*Corresponding author: Maggie M Parker

Graduate School of Education and Human Development, The George Washington University, 2136 G Street NW, Washington, DC 20052, USA Email: mmparker@gwu.edu

Received: April 26, 2023 Accepted: May 23, 2023 Published: May 30, 2023

Abstract

Objective: Extensive literature has demonstrated that subsequent trauma exposure can further exacerbate trauma survivors' psychological distress and that social connectedness and mindfulness mediate trauma symptoms. The COVID-19 pandemic, deemed within current literature as a collective trauma, continues to impact individuals' mental health and is especially relevant for individuals in marginalized communities and those with previous mental health diagnoses. The current study examined whether social connectedness and dispositional mindfulness mediated the relationship between trauma exposure before the COVID-19 pandemic and psychological symptoms and whether the strength and direction of this relationship is moderated by race.

Method: Using a mediation—moderation model, the current study examines whether social connectedness and dispositional mindfulness buffer adverse psychological symptoms for trauma survivors and whether race moderates the mediating effects of social connectedness and dispositional mindfulness.

Results: For trauma survivors during COVID-19 lockdowns, social connectedness and dispositional mindfulness were associated with decreased anxiety and depression. Race was not a moderator of social connectedness, but race did moderate dispositional mindfulness for individuals identifying as European American.

Conclusions: Results suggest the importance of utilizing social connectedness and dispositional mindfulness when counseling trauma survivors, highlighting the vital need for mental health professionals to incorporate culturally relevant, trauma-informed practices associated with increasing social connectedness and dispositional mindfulness to address symptoms of anxiety and depression.

Introduction

Researchers consistently identify the global mental health crisis triggered by the coronavirus disease-19 (COVID-19) pandemic as a collective trauma [100,101,107]. While rates of anxiety and depression in adults increasing from 11% to 40% (Panchal et al., 2021) [73] is alarming, the true magnitude of pandemic-related mental health needs remains unknown. Another grave concern is how COVID-19 highlights the far-reaching impact of health inequality among vulnerable populations, specifically among racially minoritized populations [66,103].

Following historical trends of public health crises, communities of color, adults with less education, and lower-income households are more vulnerable to pandemic-related anxiety and mood disorders [59,69,70,73]. These groups also report

higher rates of pre-pandemic trauma exposure [74]. As such, researchers must investigate the psychological impact of CO-VID-19 within the context of collective trauma and identify evidence-based practices counselors can use to support high-risk client populations.

COVID-19 as a Collective Trauma

Collective trauma is a traumatic event that impacts entire groups of people, communities, or societies [54]. The impact of collective trauma persists, with multigenerational implications for impacted communities. As a collective trauma, COVID-19 placed individuals with a history of emotional health concerns, particularly trauma survivors, at risk [81]. Trauma researchers

Maggie M Parker

Austin Publishing Group

have long supported the idea that multiple traumatic experiences, including real or perceived physical health threats, amplify traumatic stress symptoms in survivors [16,81] (Breslaue et al., 2008). During the COVID-19 pandemic, the lack of social connectivity, limited access to mental health support services, the loss of family and friends to COVID-19, and survivors' inability to access previously identified natural support systems and treatment due to social distancing restrictions severely limited vital post-trauma interventions and recovery efforts [47].

Despite emerging findings on stress-related mental health disorders during COVID-19 (Alzueta et al., 2020) [87,112], research on the impact of prior trauma exposure and increased psychological risk is limited, and the relationship between trauma exposure and COVID-related stress symptoms are particularly understudied among racially minoritized groups [57]. Extant research demonstrates that prior trauma exposure amplifies the risk for physical and mental health problems when individuals are exposed to additional trauma (Author et al., 2022a; Breslaue et al., 2008; [81].

Trauma and COVID-19

The impacts of traumatic experiences are wide-ranging and vary in severity [16]. Individuals who experienced trauma are more likely to be diagnosed with Generalized Anxiety Disorder (GAD), depression (Breslau, 2009; Ghafoori et al., 2015) [15], substance use disorders [79] (Fernandez & Osório, 2015), and posttraumatic stress disorder [16,62]. Subsequent trauma exposures, including medical threats such as COVID-19 [46,64], increase trauma survivors' risk for further psychological distress (Breslau et al., 2008) [81]. Author et al. (2020a) found that during the first months of the COVID-19 pandemic, individuals who reported previous trauma exposure reported significantly higher levels of anxiety and depression. Over decades, researchers continued to demonstrate that reported trauma exposure is linked to increased adult risk of health conditions (Kilpatrick et al., 2013), even when the trauma occurred during childhood [30,36].

Trauma Impacts and Moderators

Trauma encompasses events experienced or perceived as harmful or life-threatening that result in long-lasting negative impacts on individuals' "mental, physical, social, emotional, or spiritual well-being" [89]. An estimated 46% of Americans experienced at least one traumatic event during childhood [88], and 89.7% reported exposure to at least one traumatic event in adulthood [62]. In the United States, individuals of lower socioeconomic status, historically minoritized groups, including BIPOC and LGBTQ+ populations, and individuals living with intellectual and developmental disabilities report higher rates of trauma exposure [50,71,74,90].

Individuals from minoritized populations also face an increased risk of living in poverty, being exposed to higher rates of crime and unemployment, and multigenerational stressors associated with pervasive racism and systemic discrimination [40,42]. Consequently, these groups also report higher rates of trauma exposure, both in childhood [62] and adulthood [40]. To fully understand the impact of COVID-19 on minoritized populations, the impact of intersectional trauma - or the complex, multiple, and often ongoing ways in which trauma can be caused by or exacerbated by social injustice and discrimination - must be considered [30,35]. Historically, significant racial and ethnic differences in infection rates within the US population

are well documented [5,31,57,60,93]. For persons identifying as Black, Indigenous, or Persons of Color (BIPOC), these trends continued during the COVID-19 pandemic [57]. Lower Socioeconomic Status (SES), limited access to health care, increased rates of unemployment, and living or being employed in areas where social distancing was challenging [25,57] deepened existing health disparities. As a collective trauma, COVID-19 had a global impact. Consistent with an intersectional trauma lens, this impact can be magnified by socio-structural sources of trauma and stress, such as systemic discrimination and oppression, that is often ignored or overlooked in mental health practice [35,40,57].

Social Connectedness as a Mediator of Anxiety and Depression

One of the most challenging aspects of COVID-19 may be the restriction of human connection. People cannot survive alone; they need to connect with other people. Social connection to others is essential to mental and physical health [111]. As such, social connectedness serves as a buffer against highly stressful circumstances (Gariépy et al., 2018), mediates stress and mental health outcomes [26], and is linked to increased psychological wellness [111]. In trauma survivors, researchers demonstrated that even perceived social support can reduce feelings of distress and lower the risk of trauma-related disorders [22,72]. Additionally, [77] found that individuals diagnosed with PTSD recover faster when they experience increased levels of social connectedness.

Within a meta-analysis of predictors of PTSD symptomology, lack of social support was conveyed as one of the strongest risk indicators [16]. Conversely, researchers found that social disconnectedness is associated with impaired recovery and greater symptom severity in individuals diagnosed with depression (Gariépy et al., 2018). While officials enacted social distancing and stay-at-home mandates to protect individuals' physical health, those mandates likely augmented mental health difficulties [10,21] Braunack-Mayer et al., 2009). For many trauma survivors, social distancing mandates were a continuation or reemergence of traumatic stress.

Mindfulness as a Mediator of Anxiety and Depression

Good et al. (2015) described mindfulness as the ability to observe and recognize internal and external experiences without evaluation, judgment, or interpretation, remaining present in the experience, and accepting the emotions and outcomes that occur [8]. Dispositional, or trait, mindfulness is distinct from mindfulness. In addition to present-moment awareness, Dispositional Mindfulness (DMDM) incorporates the innate capacity of an individual to maintain awareness (Tomlinson et al., 2018). Individuals with higher levels of mindfulness tend to be more aware and accepting of their emotions, cognitions, and behaviors, resulting in lower levels of distress or negative reactivity [96]. DM is reported as being associated with individuals being able to adopt and maintain a particular state of mind spontaneously; remaining attentive to and accepting of whatever stimuli enter one's awareness [96]. Researchers found that DM may reduce trauma's psychological impact among trauma survivors [37,61,99].

Individuals' experience of DMDM can occur regardless of mindfulness practice, though it can be strengthened through mindfulness meditation or other training in emotional awareness, self-acceptance, and compassion [51,53,84,94]. Like so-

cial connectedness, researchers found that individuals displaying higher levels of DMDM reported lower stress levels five and thirty minutes following a stressful event [108]. Low mindfulness levels increase stress and negative health impacts [98].

In addition to being a dispositional trait, current research on the efficacy of mindfulness-based mental health interventions in reducing symptoms of anxiety and depression is promising [55,76,102]. Researchers found positive relationships between dispositional mindfulness and subjective well-being [11], self-acceptance [113], and negative associations with perceived stress [1] and symptoms of anxiety and depression [17]. For trauma survivors, higher levels of dispositional mindfulness are associated with decreased severity of PTSD symptoms [37,61,99], increased self-acceptance [80,110], and increased ability to speak of their experiences [80]. Researchers also found DMDM as a protective factor during shutdowns associated with COVID-19, as individuals with higher levels of mindfulness may be more likely to tolerate the negative emotions derived from physical distancing, such as boredom, loneliness, or fear (Author et al., 2022b) [28].

Purpose

This research aims to broaden mental health professionals' understanding of how dispositional mindfulness and social connectedness mediate adverse psychological outcomes in trauma survivors and whether these outcomes are moderated by race. We aimed to address the gap in the current research, which fails to adequately address the impact of intersectional trauma on trauma survivors during COVID-19. Leveraging research on mindfulness and social connectivity, specifically evidence that persons with higher levels of mindfulness and social connectivity report higher levels of psychological well-being (Ciesak et al., 2009; Luszcynska et al., 2007) [37,61,99], we hypothesized that these factors would mediate adverse psychological outcomes. Additionally, we sought to investigate the potential differences in impact of social connectedness and DM based on racial identity, as communities of color are more vulnerable to pandemic-related anxiety and mood disorders [59,73] Litam & Hipolito-Delgado, 2020; Liu et al., 2020) and report higher rates of pre-pandemic trauma exposure [74]. Therefore, exploring the impact of social connectedness and DM within higher-risk client populations is vital to provide necessary evidence-based care.

Methodology

Moderation-mediation models are advantageous when researchers seek to understand whether one or more variables' effects are contingent upon another variable (Edwards & Konold, 2022). Using a mediation—moderation model, we examined the impact of trauma exposure on depression and anxiety, how social connectedness and dispositional mindfulness may buffer adverse symptoms, and whether mediating effects are moderated by race (Figure 1 & Figure 2). Using a combined model allows us to simultaneously investigate whether interaction effects (i.e., the buffering effect of social connectedness and dispositional mindfulness on symptoms of anxiety and depression) are contingent upon a specific condition, such as race [52].

Participants

Following approval from a university Institutional Review Board, data were collected using Qualtrics research panels, a secured online crowd sourcing platform. Following consent, 1,616 individuals self-selected to participate through an anony-

mous web link, accessible for 20 days in June 2020. Inclusion criteria included fluency in English, over the age of 18, and currently residing under a Phase 1 stay-at-home order in the Commonwealth of Virginia [27]. Responses indicating abnormal completion rates (n=203), straight-lining (n=148), or in violation of inclusion criteria (participants under the age of 18 (n=61) or not currently under a stay-at-home order in Virginia) were removed.

We identified one state for recruitment to reduce variance due to differentiated government mandates for COVID-19 guidance and focused on the first few months of the pandemic to examine the mental health impact during the most restrictive government mandates. We used non-probability quota sampling to ensure the sample was demographically representative (±10%) of the recruitment state and the 2020 United States census data for gender, race/ethnicity, age, and income.

The final sample included 1,204 English-speaking adults (over the age of 18); 633 (51%) identified as female, 604 (48.6%) as male, and five as transgender (.04%). In alignment with demographic distributions based on race and age, most respondents identified as European American (n=761, 61.3%) and between 35 and 44 (n=281, 21.9%) years of age. Within the sample, 284 (22.87%) participants reported no traumatic experiences, 281 (22.62%) reported one lifetime trauma exposure, 209 (16.83%) reported two, and 468 (37.70%) participants reported three or more trauma exposures within their lifetime. Additional descriptive information is provided in Table 1.

Table 1: Sample Demographic Information.

	n	%
Race		
Asian/Asian American	74	6.0
Black/African American	230	18.5
Hispanic/Latino/a	124	10.0
White	761	61.3
Other	53	4.2
Gender		
Female	633	51.0
Male	604	48.6
Transgender	5	0.4
Age		
18-24	219	17.6
25-34	161	13.0
35-44	272	21.9
45-54	153	12.3
55-64	218	17.6
65+	219	17.6

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations between Trauma Exposure, Mindfulness, Social Connectedness, Anxiety, and Depression.

Variable	М	SD	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
Race			1	.01	05	.13**	12**	09**
Trauma	2.37	2.31	.007	1	.32**	1.97**	.13**	.37**
Mindfulness	43.02	16.53	05	.32**	1	43**	.29**	.65**
Social Connectedness	79.48	17.02	.13**	20**	43	1	23**	54**
Anxiety	58.07	9.66	12**	.13**	.29**	23**	1	.32**
Depression	55.18	10.49	09**	.37**	.65**	54*	32**	1

^{**} significant at .01 level (2-tailed)

n = 1241

^{*}For PROMIS-A and D, a T-score less than or equal to 54.9 is within normative limits for the general population, 55 to 59.9 indicates mild symptoms, 60 to 69.9 indicates moderate symptoms, and 70 to 84.1 indicates severe symptomatology.

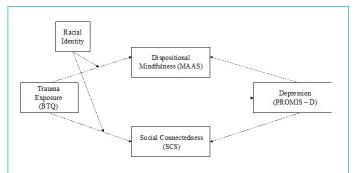


Figure 1: Moderated Mediation of Social Connectedness, Dispositional Mindfulness, and Racial Identity on Depression.

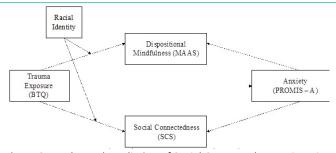


Figure 2: Moderated Mediation of Social Connectedness, Dispositional Mindfulness, and Racial Identity on Anxiety.

Measures

We examined the constructs of anxiety, depression, trauma exposure, social connectivity, and dispositional mindfulness. The data collection instruments included the (a) Patient Reported Outcome Measurement Information System (PROMIS) 8-item Short Form (version 1.0) scale for Anxiety (PROMIS-A) and Depression (PROMIS-D); (b) The Brief Trauma Questionnaire [92]; (c) the Social Connectedness Scale - Revised (SCS-R; [67,68]; and the (d) Mindful Attention Awareness Scale (MAAS; [79].

PROMIS Anxiety and Depression: The National Institute of Health developed the Patient-Reported Outcomes Measurement Information System (PROMIS) to provide researchers and clinicians with an efficient self-report measurement system for over 70 physical, mental, and social well-being domains. The short form PROMIS-A and PROMIS-D assess anxiety and emotional distress levels by asking how often in the past seven days individuals have experienced symptoms. The 8-item scales both use a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from "Never" to "Always." Summed raw scores are converted to an Item Response Theory (IRT) based T-score [23]. Greater scores indicate higher levels of the domain (i.e., higher PROMIS-A and PROMIS-D scores indicate increased symptoms of anxiety and depression). Centered on a large general population sample [70], the PROMIS measures offer a tremendous advantage for researchers seeking to identify general population impact. Both demonstrated high internal consistency within our study, with PROMIS-A α =93.7 and PROMIS-D α =95.3.

Brief Trauma Questionnaire (BTQ): [92] designed the BTQ to assess trauma using the DSM-IV, Criterion A. Considered a valid, reliable, self-report instrument [65] Schnurr et al., 2002), the BTQ is a ten-item self-report questionnaire that assesses respondent exposure to different types of traumatic events.

Social Connectedness Scale - Revised (SCS-R): The SCS-R is a 20-item, 6-point Likert scale that measures positive and negative aspects of social connectedness [67,68]. Deemed an excellent measure of social inclusion, the SCS-R has high internal

consistency (α =.92) and strong content and structural validity [29,68].

Mindful Attention Awareness Scale (MAAS): The MAAS [79] is a self-report survey tool measuring dispositional attention and awareness levels. The single-factor instrument includes 15 items on a six-point Likert-type scale, rated from 1 (almost always) to 6 (almost never), to assess attention and awareness, such as, "I break or spill things because of carelessness, not paying attention, or thinking of something else." Research supports strong validity with related measures, including the Mindfulness/Mindlessness Scale [12] and consistently high levels of internal consistency ($\alpha = 0.90$).

Data Analysis

Prior to any statistical analyses, we ensured the data met all assumptions. All scales showed acceptable internal consistency, with α =.94 for the PROMIS-A, α =.95 for the PROMIS-D, α =.74 for the BTQ, and α =.94 for the MAAS. Significance was set at α =.05 for all measures. We conducted assumption testing for multiple linear regressions, and the data met all assumptions for analysis. Preliminary analyses included a review of descriptive statistics and Pearson Correlations between the main variables. We conducted correlation testing to examine differences in participants within two racial identity groups (e.g., those identified as members of the BIPOC community and White). These two groups were identified due to participation frequencies and unequal numbers in participant identified racial groups.

We ran moderated mediation analyses with mediator variables social connectedness and dispositional mindfulness to examine whether social connectedness and dispositional mindfulness mediated the relationship between trauma exposure and anxiety and depression and if race moderated these effects. To evaluate the hypothesized moderated mediation model, we analyzed data using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and Hayes' PROCESS 7.0. We used bootstrap analysis (5,000 samples; [83].

Results

Direct effects for social connectedness and dispositional mindfulness were significant for both anxiety and depressive symptoms for individuals with a reported history of one or more trauma (Table 2). Social connectedness significantly mediated the relationship between trauma exposure and symptoms of anxiety (b=-.06, se=.02, t=-3.79, p<.01) and depression (b=-.16, se=.01, t=-12.19, p<.01), with higher levels of social connectedness predicting lower levels of anxiety and depression. Similarly, dispositional mindfulness significantly mediated the relationship between trauma and anxiety (b=.120, se=.120, p<.01) and trauma and depressive symptoms (b=.240, se=.01, t=17.650, p<.01). Interestingly, within this sample, reported trauma was not a significant predictor of anxiety (b=.180, se=11, p>.10), but was a significant predictor of depression (b=.57, se.=077, t=7.44, p<.01).

Moderated Mediation Analysis for Anxiety

To test whether the direct and indirect effects of social connectedness and dispositional mindfulness on anxiety symptoms are moderated by race, we conducted a moderated mediation analysis using PROCESS macro model number 7 (Table 3). Race did moderate the indirect effect of dispositional mindfulness on anxiety (β =1.28, se=.44, t=2.93, p>.01) but not the indirect effect for social connectedness. The overall moderated mediation

Table 3: Summary of the Moderated Mediation Analysis for Direct and Indirect Effects of Trauma on Anxiety.

	Mediator variable: SCSC.				N	le: MAAS	Dependent variable: Anxiety					
Predictors	<i>B</i> (b)	SE	р	95% CI for B	<i>B</i> (b)	SE	р	95% CI for B	<i>B</i> (b)	SE	р	95% CI for B
Trauma	-2.36	.66	>.01	-3.67-1.08	.19	.75	.80	-1.29-1.61	.11	.11	>.1	0931
R2	.11				.11				.10			
Conditional Indirect effect of race					.15	.06		.0526				
BIPOC					.17	.05		.0827				
white					.32	.05		.2143				

B = unstandardized regression coefficients; b = standardized regression coefficients, CI = Confidence Intervals based on 5,000 bootstrapped samples

Table 4: Summary of the Moderated Mediation Analysis for Direct and Indirect Effects of Trauma on Depression.

		Me	ole: MAAS	Dependent variable: Depression								
Predictors	B (b)	SE	р	95% CI for B	B (b)	SE	р	95% CI for B	B (b)	SE	р	95% CI for B
Trauma	-2.38	.66	>.01	-3.67-1.08	.19	.75	<.1	-1.29- 1.66	.57	.08	>.01	.4273
R2	.06				.11				.53			
Conditional Indirect effect of race					.31		1.0	.1051				
BIPOC					.35			.1051				
white					.66			.5278				

B = unstandardized regression coefficients; b = standardized regression coefficients, CI = Confidence Intervals based on 5,000 bootstrapped samples.

model was supported with the index of moderated mediation =.15 (95% CI=.05; .26). Results indicate a significant moderating effect on anxiety on the indirect effect via dispositional mindfulness, as zero falls outside the levels of confidence (Hayes, 2015). The conditional indirect effect was strongest in those who identified as White (effect=.320, se=.06, 95% CI=0.21; -0.43).

Moderated Mediation Analysis for Depression

To test whether the direct and indirect effects of social connectedness and dispositional mindfulness on depressive symptoms are moderated by race, we ran a second moderated mediation model (Table 4). Results indicated that race did moderate the indirect effect of mindfulness on depressive symptoms. The overall moderated mediation model was supported with a moderated mediation index of .31 (95% CI =.10; -.51). In comparison to BIPOC respondents, with an effect =.352, SE=.09, 95% CI .19; .53, the mediation effect between dispositional mindfulness and depressive symptoms was nearly double for White respondents (effect=6.59, SESE=.07, 95% CI=.52; .80). Similar to our findings for anxiety, the interaction effect between race and social connectedness on depressive symptoms was not significant.

Discussion

Results of the current study imply that social connectedness and dispositional mindfulness serve to moderate symptoms of anxiety and depression for trauma survivors and yield interesting findings about the role of race in mediating these effects. The COVID-19 pandemic significantly impacted members of the BIPOC community [25,57,59] and trauma survivors [47]. These findings highlight the protective nature of social connectedness and dispositional mindfulness for symptoms of anxiety and depression. Moreover, in combination with our other findings, these findings emphasize the need for clinicians to carefully consider a client's racial identity and circumstances impacting their natural support systems.

While trauma was a significant predictor of increased levels of depression, it was not a significant predictor of anxiety within our sample. These results differ from much of the literature on both childhood trauma [33] and trauma in adulthood [14,15,85] (Ghafoori et al., 2015) which yields higher levels of anxiety in trauma survivors. This finding is best explained by looking at the unique circumstances of the current pandemic and emergent

resilience literature among lifetime trauma survivors. Scali et al. (2012) found that while trauma survivors demonstrated fewer anxiety disorders and higher levels of resiliency, the same was not true for depression. Similarly, Grills-Taquechel et al. (2011) did not find a significant increase in pre- and post-anxiety levels in a sample of mass shooting survivors, but levels of depression were significantly higher within their sample. We do not dispute that acute anxiety levels may increase immediately following a traumatic event, but we recognize that post-event depressive symptoms may be more common. Because data were collected during the third month of COVID-19 lockdowns, it is also likely that anxiety symptoms within our sample started to decrease in accordance with an increase in formal social distancing protocols and public health response initiatives. Wang et al. (2020) found that the accuracy of the information provided by the state about the disease and preventive measures, such as hand washing, reduced anxiety and depression. Future research should further evaluate the idea that increases in anxiety are less common than depression following the initial months of a public health crisis and associations between public health response perceptions and anxiety.

In alignment with Ciesak et al. (2009) and Luszcynska et al. (2007), higher levels of social connectedness served to decrease rates of anxiety and depression in trauma survivors. This finding indicates that interventions aimed at increasing levels of social connectedness may help reduce or alleviate adverse psychological outcomes for those most at risk of re-traumatization during a public health crisis. Given the unique nature of the COVID-19 pandemic and social distancing requirements, traditional ideas of maintaining social connectedness need to be expanded beyond in-person interactions. Onderdijk et al. (2021) found that participating in virtual concerts during COVID-19 fostered social connectedness among older adults, thereby providing evidence that technology-based interventions can be a potential source of social connectedness. Technology-based interventions are especially relevant when social movement is restricted within an entire community or for an individual.

Mental health professionals working with trauma survivors during COVID-19 or future pandemics should consider the size of one's social network. Butler et al. (2009) and Kroenke et al. (2013) found that more extensive social networks lowered psychological distress. For many trauma survivors, social distancing

mandates were a continuation or re-emergence of traumatic stress. Clinicians should explore the impact of COVID-19 on survivors' social networks and, if needed, identify client-specific interventions to bolster the client's social network. Regardless of racial identity, all participants reported that increased social connectedness decreased anxiety and depressive symptoms during the first three months of lockdown. Researchers continued identifying social connectedness as a protective factor, especially for individuals and communities disproportionately impacted by COVID-19 (Author et al., 2022b) and other disasters [2] found social connectedness to be a key component of post-disaster resiliency. During COVID-19, individuals frequently sought out connections via technology or phone. Researchers found that individuals who used social media to connect with friends and family had increased levels of social connectedness [24,75], research is limited [95], and many are unable to participate due to digital inequity [9].

Additionally, within this sample, though not all participants experienced trauma, everyone experienced the same COVID-19 pandemic, especially within the first months of lockdown, and therefore could potentially understand, converse, and empathize with their social networks about their experiences [97] in a way that may not be possible for trauma survivors outside a support group. These results highlight the importance of continuing to encourage social connectedness for trauma survivors and the role of mental health practitioners and public health authorities in understanding and supporting social engagement and connectedness as a vital component of mental health [34,38]. Jacobs and Burch (2021) encouraged mental health practitioners to address social connectedness within Black communities through religious activities, extended family gatherings, and engagement with social networks to alleviate anxiety from the COVID-19 pandemic. Public health, medical, and mental health professionals can also explore and promote the different ways in which social connection, as social connectedness may differ across culture and identity [35,40,57].

While unexpected, it is unsurprising, especially during the early stages of a pandemic when social interactions were severely limited, that dispositional mindfulness was more impactful than social connectedness in moderating depression and anxiety. As a practice and dispositional trait, mindfulness does not require a human connection. Thus, it follows that trauma survivors with higher levels of dispositional mindfulness would experience fewer symptoms of depression and anxiety. Within the trauma literature, Weinstein et al. (2009) found that individuals with higher levels of dispositional mindfulness reported few psychiatric symptoms. Nitzan-Assayag et al. (2015) found that dispositional mindfulness facilitated post-trauma emotional processing. Due to the inherent nature of dispositional mindfulness, a practice that aids in coping during stressful events, it may be that participants with higher levels of dispositional mindfulness are better able to cope with the anxiety and depressive experiences during COVID-19. Individuals who accept their experiences, emotions, and cognitions experience less distress and negative reactivity [96] as they recognize that their emotions are valid and temporary.

Our results are promising for clinicians seeking to aid trauma survivors and add to the current literature on mindfulness-based interventions for anxiety and depression [55,76,102]. As we begin to see the deleterious impact of COVID-19 as a collective trauma, mindfulness interventions should be considered. Mindfulness mental health interventions increase participants'

subjective well-being [11], self-acceptance [113], negative associations with perceived stress [1], and symptoms of anxiety and depression [17]. Higher levels of dispositional mindfulness in trauma survivors have been associated with decreased severity of PTSD symptoms [37,61,99], increased self-acceptance [110], and increased ability to process their experiences [80]. Our results further the evidence base on the effectiveness of dispositional mindfulness in moderating the relationship between trauma and psychiatric symptoms during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Our results indicate that race moderated the relationship between dispositional mindfulness and levels of anxiety and depression. While researchers continue to identify the benefits of dispositional mindfulness in reducing the harmful psychological impacts of trauma, the role of mindfulness in addressing racial trauma is just being explored [18,106]. Watson-Singleton et al. (2018) found that dispositional mindfulness reduced depressive symptoms and suicidal ideation among African Americans. Graham et al. (2016) and Zapoliskiet al. (2018) found that dispositional mindfulness moderated the effects of racial discrimination and anxiety symptoms. While not surprising given the lack of culturally tailored evidence-based interventions for BIPOC individuals, the finding that the effect of dispositional mindfulness is nearly twice as high for White respondents requires attention. Universally, mindfulness-based treatments are rarely culturally tailored to address interpersonal and racial trauma. Some researchers claim mindfulness is currently positioned within clinical practice and is seen "as a luxury" or an intervention that requires significant financial resources to practice, such as meditation and yoga [58,79]. Practitioners are strongly encouraged to integrate culturally relevant mindfulness practices for members of the BIPOC community. Collaboration with Indigenous and African American church communities to explore how the practice of metta, which promotes benevolence and loving kindness, is consistent with theological teachings can foster the development of culturally relevant mindfulness interventions uniquely tailored to a client's community.

While this study advances the existing literature on the experiences of trauma survivors during the COVID-19 lockdown, our study is not without limitations. Limitations of the current study include the collapsing of participant racial identity into two variables: individuals who identified as Black Indigenous People of Color and those that identified as white. While it is not the belief of the authors that the experiences of all people of color are similar, due to the frequencies, to explore racial differences and moderation of race on mediating effects of social connectivity and mindfulness on anxiety and depression for trauma survivors during COVID-19 lockdowns, we had to collapse the racial identity into a dichotomous variable. While our sample was diverse, the participants' multiple identities created difficulties in representing our sample to their fullest extent. Additional limitations include the use of self-report measures, which may increase participant bias, symptom minimization, and misinterpretation. Furthermore, racial minorities may under-report or under-recognize distress symptoms [49], further impacting results. Because we used cross-sectional design during socialdistancing measures, caution should be taken in generalizing to broader populations.

Future researchers can examine how culturally unique stressors such as racism can interact with trauma symptoms [86] and use various interventions to mitigate psychological distress, such as mindfulness practice and social connectedness.

Clinical implications suggest clinicians should screen for trauma during global pandemics and similar collective traumas and encourage social connection to reduce depressive symptoms. Furthermore, using mindfulness interventions to target anxiety and depressive symptoms during treatment is warranted across cultural identities. Both social connectedness and mindfulness moderated anxious and depressive symptoms in trauma survivors during the most restrictive phases of the COVID-19 pandemic. Thus, these are important areas to explore in treating trauma and future global traumas. Medical and mental health professionals can examine the use of both and how these concepts differ to promote their use with clients across identities.

Author Statements

Funding

This work is supported by an internal research grant from the College of Education and Human Development, George Mason University, Fairfax, VA (Grant Number: GMU141297).

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest, financial or otherwise.

References

- Adams CE, Cano MA, Heppner WL, Stewart DW, Correa-Fernández V, et al. Testing a moderated mediation model of mindfulness, psychosocial stress, and alcohol use among African American smokers. Mindfulness. 2015; 6: 315–325.
- Adepoju OE, Chae M, Ojinnaka CO, Shetty S, Angelocci T. Utilization Gaps During the COVID-19 Pandemic: Racial and Ethnic Disparities in Telemedicine Uptake in Federally Qualified Health Center Clinics. Journal of General Internal Medicine. 2022; 37: 1191-1197.
- American Psychiatric Association. Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders. 5. VA: Author. 2013.
- 4. Alzueta E, Perrin P, Baker FC, Caffarra S, Ramos-Usuga D, et al. How the COVID-19 pandemic has changed our lives: A study of psychological correlates across 59 countries. Journal of Clinical Psychology. 2021; 77: 556-570.
- 5. Aral SO. Understanding racial-ethnic and societal differentials in STI. Sexually Transmitted Infections. 2002; 78: 2-4.
- 6. Parker MM, Dailey SF, Emmanuel AD, Campbell A. Psychological Impact of COVID-19 Social Distancing Mandates on Trauma Survivors. Global Health Journal. Epub ahead of print. 2022a; 6: 174-179.
- Author Dailey S, Parker MM, Campbell A. Social Connectivity, Mindfulness, and Coping as Protective Factors During the COV-ID-19 Pandemic. Journal of Counseling and Development. 2023; 101: 114-126.
- Baer RA, Smith GT, Allen KB. Assessment of mindfulness by selfreport: The Kentucky Inventory of Mindfulness Skills. Assessment. 2004; 11: 191-206.
- 9. Beaunoyer E, Dupéré S, Guitton MJ. COVID-19 and digital inequalities: Reciprocal impacts and mitigation strategies. Computers in human behavior. 2020; 111: 106424.
- Blendon RJ, Benson JM, DesRoches CM, Raleigh E, Taylor-Clark K. The public's response to severe acute respiratory syndrome in Toronto and the United States. Clinical Infectious Disease. 2004; 38: 925-31.

- Bluth KW, Blanton PW. Mindfulness and self-compassion: Exploring pathways to adolescent emotional well-being. Journal of Child and Family Studies. 2014; 23: 1298 1309.
- Bodner T, Langer E. Individual differences in mindfulness: the mindfulness/mindlessness scale. Paper presented at the 13th APA Annual Meeting, Toronto. 2001.
- Braunack-Mayer A, Tooher R, Collins JE, Street JM, Marshall H. Understanding the school community's response to school closures during the H1N1 2009 influenza pandemic. BMC Public Health. 2013; 15: 344.
- Breslau N, Peterson EL, Schultz LR. A second look at prior trauma and the posttraumatic stress disorder effects of subsequent trauma: A prospective epidemiological study. Archives of General Psychiatry. 2008; 65: 431-437.
- Breslaue N, Wilcox HC, Storr CL, Lucia VC, Anthony JC. Trauma exposure and posttraumatic stress disorder: A study of youths in urban America. Journal of Urban Health. 2004; 81: 530-544.
- Brewin CR, Andrews B, Valentine JD. Meta-analysis of risk factors for posttraumatic stress disorder in trauma-exposed adults. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology. 2000; 68: 748-766.
- Brown DB, Bravo AJ, Roos CR, Pearson MR. Five facets of mindfulness and psychological health: Evaluating a psychological model of the mechanisms of mindfulness. Mindfulness. 2015; 6: 1021–1032.
- Brown-lannuzzi JL, Adair KC, Payne BK, Richman LS, Fredrickson BL. Discrimination hurts, but mindfulness may help: Trait mindfulness moderates the relationship between perceived discrimination and depressive symptoms. Personality and Individual Differences. 2014; 56: 201–205.
- Brown KW, Ryan RM. The benefits of being present: Mindfulness and its role in psychological well-being. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. 2003; 84: 822–848.
- Butler LD, Koopman C, Azarow J, Blasey CM, Magdalene JC, et al. Psychosocial predictors of resilience after the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks. The Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease. 2009; 197: 266–273.
- Cava MA, Fay KE, Beanlands HJ, McCay EA, Wignall R. The experience of quarantine for individuals affected by SARS in Toronto. Public Health Nursing. 2005; 22: 398–406.
- Cieslak R, Benight C, Schmidt N, Luszczynska A, Curtin E, et al. Predicting posttraumatic growth among Hurricane Katrina survivors living with HIV: The role of self-efficacy, social support, and PTSD symptoms. Anxiety, Stress, & Coping. 2009; 22: 449-463.
- Cella D, Riley W, Stone A, Rothrock N, Reeve B, et al. PROMIS cooperative group. The Patient-Reported Outcomes Measurement Information System (PROMIS) developed and tested its first wave of adult self-reported health outcome item banks: 2005-2008. Journal of Clinical Epidemiology. 2010; 63: 1179–1194.
- Chen AT, Ge S, Cho S, Teng AK, Chu F, et al. Reactions to CO-VID-19, information and technology use, and social connectedness among older adults with pre-frailty and frailty. Geriatric Nursing. 2021; 42: 188-195.
- Chin-Hong P, Alexander KM, Haynes N, Albert MA. Pulling at the heart: COVID-19, race/ethnicity and ongoing disparities. National Review of Cardiology. 2020; 17: 533–535.
- 26. Cohen S, Wills TA. Stress, social support, and the buffering hypothesis. Psychological Bulletin. 1985; 98: 310 –357.

- Commonwealth of Virginia. (2020, April). Forward Virginia Guidelines. https://www.virginia.gov/coronavirus/forwardvirginia/
- 28. Conversano C, Di Giuseppe M, Miccoli M, Ciacchini R, Gemignani A, et al. Mindfulness, age and gender as protective factors against psychological distress during COVID-19 pandemic. Frontiers in psychology. 2020; 11: 1900.
- Cordier R, Milbourn B, Martin R, Buchanan A, Chung D, et al. A systematic review evaluating the psychometric properties of measures of social inclusion. PLoS One. 2017; 12: e0179109.
- Cronholm PF, Forke CM, Wade R, Bair-Merritt MH, Davis M, et al. Adverse childhood experiences: Expanding the concept of adversity. American Journal of Preventive Medicine. 2015; 49: 354-361.
- Dowd JB, Aiello AE, Alley DEF. Socioeconomic disparities in the seroprevalence of cytomegalovirus infection in the US population: NHANES III. Epidemiology and Infection. 2009; 137: 58–65.
- 32. Edwards KD, Konold TR. Moderated mediation analysis: A Review and application to school research," Practical Assessment, Research, and Evaluation. 2020; 25: 5.
- 33. Ekinci S, Kandemir H. Childhood trauma in the lives of substance-dependent patients: The relationship between depression, anxiety and self-esteem. Nordic Journal of Psychiatry. 2015; 69: 249-253.
- Escalante E, Golden RL, Mason DJ. Social isolation and Ioneliness: imperatives for health care in a post-COVID world. JAMA. 2021; 325: 520-521.
- Ezell JM, Walters S, Friedman SR, Bolinski R, Jenkins WD, et al. Stigmatize the use, not the user? Attitudes on opioid use, drug injection, treatment, and overdose prevention in rural communities. Social Science & Medicine. 2021; 268: 113470.
- Felitti VJ, Anda RF, Nordenberg D, Williamson DF, Spitz AM, et al. Relationship of childhood abuse and household dysfunction to many of the leading causes of death in adults: the adverse childhood experiences (ACE) study. American Journal of Preventative Medicine. 1998; 14: 245-258.
- Felleman BI, Stewart DG, Simpson TL, Heppner PS, Kearney DJ. et al. Predictors of depression and PTSD treatment response among veterans participating in mindfulness-based stress reduction. Mindfulness. 2016; 7: 886–895.
- 38. Ferlander S. The importance of different forms of social capital for health. Acta Sociologica. 2007; 50: 115-128.
- Fernandes V, Osório FL. Are there associations between early emotional trauma and anxiety disorders? Evidence from a systematic literature review and meta-analysis. European Psychiatry. 2015; 30: 756-764.
- 40. Fortuna LR, Tolou-Shams M, Robles-Ramamurthy B, Porche MV. Inequality and the disproportionate impact of COVID-19 on communities of color in the United States: The Need for a trauma-informed social justice response. Psychological Trauma: Theory, Research, Practice, and Policy. 2020; 12: 443-445.
- Gariépy G, Honkaniemi H, Quesnel-Vallée A. Social support and protection from depression: Systematic review of current findings in Western countries. British Journal of Psychiatry. 2016; 209: 284-293.
- 42. Gavidia-Payne S, Denny B, Davis K, Francis A, Jackson M. Parental resilience: A Neglected construct in resilience research. Clinical Psychologist. 2015; 19: 111–121.

- Ghafoori B, Barragan B, Palinkas L. Mental health service use among trauma-exposed adults: a mixed-methods study. The Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease. 2014; 202: 239–246.
- Good DJ, Lyddy CJ, Glomb TM, Bono JE, Brown KW, et al. Contemplating mindfulness at work: An integrative review. Journal of management. 2016; 42: 114-142.
- 45. Graham JR, West LM, Martinez J, Roemer L. The mediating role of internalized racism in the relationship between racist experiences and anxiety symptoms in a Black American sample. Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology. 2016; 22: 369.
- Green BL, Krupnick JL, Rowland JH, Epstein SA, Stockton P, et al. Trauma history as a predictor of psychologic symptoms in women with breast cancer. Journal of Clinical Oncology. 2000; 18: 1084–1093.
- 47. Greenberg N, Rafferty L. Posttraumatic stress disorder in the aftermath of COVID-19 pandemic. World Psychiatry. 2021; 20: 53-54.
- 48. Grills-Taquechel AE, Littleton HL, Axsom D. Social support, world assumptions, and exposure as predictors of anxiety and quality of life following a mass trauma. Journal of Anxiety Disorders. 2011; 25: 498-506.
- Grooms J, Ortega A, Rubalcaba JAA, Vargas E. Racial and ethnic disparities: Essential workers, mental health, and the Coronavirus pandemic. The Review of Black Political Economy. 2022; 49: 363-380.
- Hatch SL, Dohrenwend BP. Distribution of traumatic and other stressful life events by race/ethnicity, gender, SES and age: A review of the research. American Journal of Community Psychology. 2007; 40: 313-332.
- Hayes SC, Strosahl KD, Wilson KG. Acceptance and commitment therapy: An experiential approach to behavior change. The Guilford Press. 1999.
- Hayes AF, Rockwood NJ. Conditional process analysis: Concepts, computation, and advances in the modeling of the contingencies of mechanisms. American Behavioral Scientist. 2020; 64: 19-54.
- Haynes N, Cooper LA, Albert MA. At the heart of the matter: Unmasking and addressing the toll of COVID-19 on diverse populations. Circulation. 2020. 142: 105-107.
- 54. Hirschberger G. Collective trauma and the social construction of meaning. Frontiers in Psychology. 2018; 9: 1441.
- Hoffmann SG, Sawyer AT, Witt AA, Oh D. The effect of mindfulness-based therapy on anxiety and depression: A meta-analytic review. Journal of consulting and clinical psychology. 2010; 78: 169-183.
- Hülsheger UR, Alberts HJEM, Feinholdt A, Lang JWB. Benefits of mindfulness at work: The role of mindfulness in emotion regulation, emotional exhaustion, and job satisfaction. Journal of Applied Psychology. 2013; 98: 310-325.
- Jacobs M, Burch AE. Anxiety during the pandemic: Racial and ethnic differences in the trajectory of fear. Journal of Affective Disorders. 2021; 292: 58-66.
- Jamieson SD, Tuckey MR. Mindfulness interventions in the workplace: A critique of the current state of the literature. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology. 2017; 22: 180-193.
- 59. Jay J, Bor J, Nsoesie EO, Lipson SK, Jones DK, et al. Neighbourhood income and physical distancing during the COVID-19 pandemic. Nature Human Behaviour. 2020; 4: 1294-1302.

- Jones JL, Kruszon-Moran D, Wilson M, McQuillan G, Navin T, et al. Toxoplasma gondii infection in the United States: Seroprevalence and risk Factors. American Journal of Epidemiology. 2001; 154: 357-365.
- Kelly A, Garland EL. Trauma-informed mindfulness-based stress reduction for female survivors of interpersonal violence: Results from a stage I RCT. Journal of Clinical Psychology. 2016; 72: 311–328.
- Kilpatrick DG, Resnick HS, Milanak ME, Miller MW, Keyes KM, et al. National estimates of exposure to traumatic events and PTSD prevalence using DSM-IV and DSM-5 criteria. Journal of Traumatic Stress. 2013; 26: 537-547.
- 63. Kroenke CH, Kwan ML, Neugut AI, Ergas IJ, Wright JD, et al. Social networks, social support mechanisms, and quality of life after breast cancer diagnosis. Breast Cancer Research and Treatment. 2013; 139: 515–527.
- Lahav Y. Psychological distress related to COVID-19: The contribution of continuous traumatic stress. Journal of Affective Disorders. 2020; 277: 129-137.
- Lancaster SL, Melka SE, Rodriguez BF. A factor analytic comparison of five models of PTSD symptoms. Journal of Anxiety Disorders. 2009; 23: 269–274.
- Laurencin CT, McClinton A. The COVID-19 Pandemic: a call to action to identify and address racial and ethnic disparities. Journal of Racial and Ethnic Health Disparities. 2020; 7: 398–402.
- 67. Lee RM, Robbins SB. Measuring belongingness: The Social Connectedness and the Social Assurance Scales. Journal of Counseling Psychology. 1995; 42: 232–241.
- Lee RM, Draper M, Lee S. Social connectedness, dysfunctional interpersonal behaviors, and psychological distress: Testing a mediator model. Journal of counseling psychology. 2001; 48: 310-318.
- Litam SDA, Hipolito-Delgado CP. When being "essential" illuminates disparities: Counseling clients affected by COVID-19. Journal of Counseling & Development. 2021; 99: 3–10.
- Liu H, Cella D, Gershon R, Shen J, Morales LS, et al. Representativeness of the Patient-Reported Outcomes Measurement Information System internet panel. Journal of Clinical Epidemiology. 2010; 63: 1169–1178.
- Lloyd DA, Turner RJ. Cumulative lifetime adversities and alcohol dependence in adolescence and young adulthood. Drug and Alcohol Dependence. 2008; 93: 217–226.
- Luszczynska A, Pawlowska I, Cieslak R, Knoll N, Scholz U. Social support and quality of life among lung cancer patients: a systematic review. Psycho-oncology. 2013; 22: 2160-2168.
- Mazza MG, De Lorenzo R, Conte C, Poletti S, Vai B, et al. Anxiety and depression in COVID-19 survivors: Role of inflammatory and clinical predictors. Brain Behavior and Immunity. 2020; 89: 594-600.
- 74. Merrick MT, Ford DC, Ports KAKA, Guinn AS. Prevalence of adverse childhood experiences from the 2011-2014 Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System in 23 states. JAMA Pediatrics. 2018; 172: 1038–1044.
- Nitschke JP, Forbes PAG, Ali N, Cutler J, Apps MAJ, et al. Resilience during uncertainty? Greater social connectedness during COVID-19 lockdown is associated with reduced distress and fatigue. British Journal of Health Psychology. 2021; 26: 553–569.

- 76. Nitzan-Assayag Y, Aderka IM, Bernstein A. Dispositional mindfulness in trauma recovery: prospective relations and mediating mechanisms. Journal of Anxiety Disorders. 2015; 36: 25-32.
- Olff M. Bonding after trauma: On the role of social support and the oxytocin system in traumatic stress. European Journal of Psychotraumatology. 2012; 3.
- Onderdijk KE, Swarbrick D, Van Kerrebroeck B, Mantei M, Vuoskoski JK, et al. Livestream Experiments: The Role of COVID-19, Agency, Presence, and Social Context in Facilitating Social Connectedness. Frontiers in Psychology. 2021; 12: 647929.
- 79. Ouimette P, Brown PJ. (Eds.). Trauma and substance abuse: Causes, consequences, and treatment of comorbid disorders. American Psychological Association. 2003.
- 80. Owens GP, Walter KH, Chard KM, Davis PA. Changes in mindfulness skills and treatment response among veterans in residential PTSD treatment. Psychological Trauma: Theory, Research, Practice, and Policy. 2012; 4: 221–228.
- 81. Ozer EJ, Best SR, Lipsey TL, Weiss DS. Predictors of posttraumatic stress disorder and symptoms in adults: a meta-analysis. Psychological Bulletin. 2003; 129: 52–73.
- 82. Panchal N, Kamal R, Orgera K, Cox C, Garfield R, et al. The implications of COVID-19 for mental health and substance use. Kaiser Family Foundation. 2020; 21.
- Preacher KJ, Hayes AF. Asymptotic and resampling strategies for assessing and comparing indirect effects in multiple mediator models. Behavior Research Methods. 2008; 40: 879–891.
- Quaglia JT, Braun SE, Freeman SP, McDaniel MA, Brown KW. Meta-analytic evidence for effects of mindfulness training on dimensions of self-reported dispositional mindfulness. Psychological Assessment. 2016; 28: 803–818.
- 85. Roberts AL, Gilman SE, Breslau J, Breslau N, Koenen KC. Race/ethnic differences in exposure to traumatic events, development of posttraumatic stress disorder, and treatment-seeking for posttraumatic stress disorder in the United States. Psychological medicine. 2011; 41; 71–83.
- 86. Ruef AM, Litz BT, Schlenger WE. Hispanic ethnicity and risk for combat-related posttraumatic stress disorder. Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology. 2000; 6: 235.
- 87. Salari N, Hosseinian-Far A, Jalali R, Raygani AV, Rasoulpoor S, et al. Prevalence of stress, anxiety, depression among the general population during the COVID-19 pandemic: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Globalization and Health. 2020; 16: 1–11.
- 88. Sacks V, Murphey D, Moore K. Adverse Childhood Experiences: National and state-level prevalence. In ACEs. 2014; 12: 18.
- SAMHSA (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration) (2014a). Trauma-informed care in behavioral health services: Treatment Improvement Protocol (TIP.) Series 57 (HHS Publication No. SMA 13-4801). Rockville, MD: Author. 2014a.
- SAMHSA (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration) (2014a). SAMHSA's concept of trauma and guidance for a trauma-informed approach (HHS Publication No. SMA 14-4884). Rockville, MD: Author. 2014b.
- Scali J, Gandubert C, Ritchie K, Soulier M, Ancelin ML, et al. Measuring resilience in adult women using the 10-items Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC). Role of trauma exposure and anxiety disorders. PloS one. 2012; 7: e39879.
- Schnurr P, Vielhauer M, Weathers F, Findler M. Brief Trauma Questionnaire (BTQ) [Database record]. APA. PsycTests. 1999.

- 93. Schillinger JA, Xu F, Sternberg MR, Armstrong GL, Lee FK, et al. National seroprevalence and trends in herpes simplex virus type 1 in the United States, 1976-1994. Sexually transmitted diseases. 2004; 31: 753-760.
- Segal ZV, Williams JMG, Teasdale JD. Mindfulness-based cognitive therapy for depression (2nd edition). The Guilford Press. 2012.
- Shah SGS, Nogueras D, van Woerden HC, Kiparoglou V. The CO-VID-19 pandemic: A pandemic of lockdown loneliness and the role of digital technology. Journal of Medical Internet Research. 2020; 22: e22287.
- 96. Shapiro SL, Carlson LE, Astin JA, Freedman B. Mechanisms of mindfulness. Journal of Clinical Psychology. 2006; 62: 373-386.
- 97. Singer T, Lamm C. The social neuroscience of empathy. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences. 2009; 1156: 81–96.
- Sirois FM, Tosti N. Lost in the moment? An investigation of procrastination, mindfulness, and well-being. Journal of Rational-Emotive & Cognitive-Behavior Therapy. 2012; 30: 237–248.
- Smith BW, Ortiz JA, Steffen LE, Tooley EM, Wiggins KT, et al. Mindfulness is associated with fewer PTSD symptoms, depressive symptoms, physical symptoms, and alcohol problems in urban firefighters. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology. 2011; 79: 613–617.
- Sun S, Lin D, Operario D. Need for a population health approach to understand and address psychosocial consequences of CO-VID-19. Psychological trauma: theory, research, practice, and policy. 2020; 12: S25.
- Todres J, Diaz A. COVID-19 and human trafficking—the amplified impact on vulnerable populations. JAMA pediatrics. 2021; 175: 123-124.
- Tubbs JD, Savage JE, Adkins AE, Amstadter AB, Dick DM. Mindfulness moderates the relation between trauma and anxiety symptoms in college students, Journal of American College Health. 2019; 67: 235–245.
- 103. Van Dorn A, Cooney RE, Sabin ML. COVID-19 exacerbating inequalities in the U.SU.S. The Lancet. 2020; 395: 1243-1244.
- 104. Wang J, Mann F, Lloyd-Evans B, Ma R, Johnson S. Associations between loneliness and perceived social support and outcomes of mental health problems: a systematic review. B.M.C. Psychiatry. 2018; 18: 156.

- Watson MF, Bacigalupe G, Daneshpour M, Han WJ, Parra-Cardona R. COVID-19 interconnectedness: Health inequity, the climate crisis, and collective trauma. Family Process. 2020; 59: 832-846.
- 106. Watson-Singleton NN, Hill L, Case AD. Past Discrimination, Race-Related Vigilance, and Depressive Symptoms: The Moderating Role of Mindfulness. Mindfulness. 2019; 10: 1768-1778.
- Watson-Singleton NN, Walker JH, LoParo D, Mack SA, Kaslow NJ. Psychometric evaluation of the Five Facet Mindfulness Questionnaire in a clinical sample of African Americans. Mindfulness. 2018; 9: 312–324.
- Weinstein N, Brown KW, Ryan RM. A multi-method examination of the effects of mindfulness on stress attribution, coping, and emotional well-being. Journal of Research in Personality. 2009; 43: 374–385.
- 109. Wang C, Pan R, Wan X, Tan Y, Xu L, et al. Immediate Psychological Responses and Associated Factors during the Initial Stage of the 2019 Coronavirus Disease (COVID-19) Epidemic among the General Population in China. International Journal of Environmental Residential Public Health. 2020; 17: 1729.
- Woods H, Proeve M. Relationships of mindfulness, self-compassion, and meditation experience with shame-proneness. Journal of Cognitive Psychotherapy. 2014; 28: 20–33.
- 111. Werner-Seidler A, Afzali MH, Chapman C, Sunderland M, Slade T. The relationship between social support networks and depression in the 2007 National Survey of Mental Health and Wellbeing. Social Psychiatry Psychiatriatric Epidemiology. 2017; 52: 1463-1473.
- 112. Xiong J, Lipsitz O, Nasri F, Lui L, Gill H, et al. Impact of COVID-19 pandemic on mental health in the general population: A systematic review. Journal of Affective Disorder. 2020; 277: 55-64.
- 113. Xu W, Zhou Y, Fu Z, Rodriguez M. Relationships between dispositional mindfulness, self-acceptance, perceived stress, and psychological symptoms in advanced gastrointestinal cancer patients. Psycho-oncology. 2016; 26: 2157–2161.
- Zapolski TCB, Faidley MT, Beutlich MR. The experience of racism on behavioral health outcomes: The moderating impact of mindfulness. Mindfulness. 2019; 10: 168-178.