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**Adverse childhood experiences and adult health: the need
for stronger study designs to evaluate impact**

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4 **Adverse childhood experiences and adult health: the need for stronger study designs to**
5 **evaluate impact**

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Introduction

Early life is regarded as a crucial period of neurobiological, emotional, social, and physical development in all animal species, and may have long-term implications for health across the life course. The first studies examining the pre-adult origins of later chronic disease were probably published more than 50 years ago and based on rodent models.¹ By briefly administering a sub-optimal diet to newborn mice, Dubois and others¹ demonstrated a marked impact on subsequent growth and resistance to infection. In the 1970s, Forsdahl,² using infant mortality rates as a proxy for living conditions at birth, arguably provided the first evidence in humans for an association with heart disease in later life. In the last two decades, findings from longitudinal studies with extended mortality and morbidity surveillance have implicated a host of pre-adult characteristics as potential risk factors for several chronic disease outcomes, including peri- and post-natal growth,³ coordination,⁴ intelligence,^{5,6} mental health,⁷ overweight,^{8,9} physical stature,¹⁰ raised blood pressure,^{11,12} cigarette smoking,¹³ physical strength,¹⁴ diet,¹⁵, amongst many others.¹⁶

An array of prospective studies has also demonstrated associations of childhood socioeconomic disadvantage – indexed by paternal social class or education, the presence of household amenities, domestic overcrowding – with somatic health outcomes in adulthood, chiefly premature mortality and cardiovascular disease.^{17,18} Parallel work has been undertaken by psychologists and psychiatrists exploring the consequences of childhood maltreatment for later psychopathologies – perhaps the most well examined health endpoint in this context.^{19,20} Collectively, these early life circumstances have been more widely defined to comprise the separate themes of material deprivation (e.g., economic hardship, long-term unemployment); stressful family dynamics (e.g., physical and emotional abuse, psychiatric illness, or substance abuse by a family member); loss or threat of loss (e.g., death or serious illness of a parent or a sibling, parental separation, public care) – amongst many other characteristics – and a continuum of severity can be constructed (**Box**).^{21,22} Broadly referred to as adverse childhood experiences (widely known as ‘ACE’), survey data

1
2 suggest that as many as 6 in 10 adults in the general population report at least one childhood
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4 adversity,²³ though this prevalence is based on recall in adult populations which may lead to a
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6 distortion in its estimation (see later). Adverse childhood experiences, rather like poor health
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8 behaviours,²⁴ tend to cluster, and this has led to a growing body of work examining the impact of
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10 accumulated early adversity rather than a single characteristic.²¹
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16 Given the considerable current research interest in adverse childhood experiences – according to
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18 Pubmed, in 2019, there were more than 1000 publications on the topic, representing a doubling over
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20 the prior two-year period (**Figure**) – in the present overview, we describe the potential mechanisms
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22 that may underlie the link between this early life characteristic and adult health; the current
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24 evidence for such an association; the validity of adversity data; and public health implications with
25
26 future directions for the field.
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32 **Potential mechanisms of effect**

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34 Adverse childhood experiences may have an influence on subsequent health outcomes via
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36 biological, psychological, and social processes, and their effects may be direct or indirect. Of the
37
38 direct mechanisms, a widely-held view is that people who experience a high and varied load of
39
40 adversities in early life may become more susceptible to disease occurrence, and potentially have a
41
42 worse illness prognosis, via differences in physiological development. These mechanisms of
43
44 biological embodiment will be outcome-specific: those relevant to stroke, a disease, may have little
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46 in common with those for suicide, a behaviour, for instance. Over the life course, however, adverse
47
48 childhood experiences are likely to be linked with an inter-related, extant, and serial set of
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50 behavioural, psychological, and physical disorders and diseases – as described in synergistic
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52 theory²⁵ – such that networks of disease and adverse behaviours cascade in people experiencing
53
54 major socioeconomic adversity in adulthood.²⁶
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2 Although not a universal observation,²⁷⁻²⁹ early adversity appears to lead to chronically elevated
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4 levels of cortisol³⁰ – the most common human glucocorticoid and a biomarker of psychosocial
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6 stress – and indicators of systemic inflammation^{31,32} which themselves have been linked to major
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8 causes of adult disease, such as cardiovascular disease³³ and mental health.^{34,35} Related, there is
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10 some support for epigenetic modification of certain characteristics, most notably NR3C1 – the
11
12 receptor to which cortisol and other glucocorticoids bind – in participants exposed to pre-adult
13
14 disadvantage.³⁶ NR3C1 codes for the glucocorticoid receptor and altered glucocorticoid levels
15
16 have, in turn, been linked to adult mental health problems.^{37,38} Complementary evidence suggests
17
18 that, relative to their unaffected counterparts, maltreated children have a lower volume of prefrontal
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20 cortex and experience greater activation of the hypothalamic pituitary adrenal (HPA) axis which is
21
22 central to the human stress response.³⁹
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29 Traumatic experiences in childhood have been repeatedly shown to have lasting impacts on
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31 psychopathology, such as major depression, substance abuse, and post-traumatic stress disorder,⁴⁰
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33 and these mental health problems may link adverse childhood experiences to physical illnesses – as
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35 well as representing a key public health concern in their own right, psychiatric disorders have been
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37 implicated in the occurrence of chronic somatic disease (communicable^{41,42} and non-
38
39 communicable⁴³), and injury (unintentional⁴⁴ and intentional⁴⁵), in addition to hampering help-
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41 seeking behaviour, diagnosis, and treatment.⁴⁶ Further indirect mediating effects include the impact
42
43 of pre-adult adversity on later socioeconomic status⁴⁷ and health behaviours, such as smoking,
44
45 heavy alcohol intake, low exercise levels, and poor diet,⁴⁸ all of which have well established links
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47 with chronic disease in later life.⁴⁹
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54 **Current evidence for an association of early adversity with adult health**

55 The existing literature features an array of health outcomes in adulthood that have been correlated
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57 with adverse childhood experiences,^{21,50-55} the different operationalisations of which can make
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1
2 synthesis of findings challenging. For inclusion in a recent systematic review, investigators
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4 required studies to report on risk estimates for multiple (four or more) early adversities, and for
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6 there to be a minimum of 3 published papers featuring the same health endpoint/risk factor; this
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8 resulted in 22 outcomes across 37 studies.²¹ The outcomes with the strongest relationship with
9
10 adversity were behaviours (odds ratios 5.2 to 37.5) – violence victimisation or perpetration, drug
11
12 use, suicide – rather than those characterised by disease processes that occur over years and possible
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14 decades such as liver or digestive disease, respiratory disease (odds ratio ~3), vascular disease⁵⁶ and
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16 malignancies⁵⁷ (odds ratio ≤ 2.3). This is suggestive of a temporal order for the health impact of
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18 adversity.
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25 Inevitably, the evidence base for a role of early adversity in the aetiology of adult disease needs to
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27 be viewed against the quality of available studies. Strikingly, in the described review,²¹ within the
28
29 constraints of the inclusion criteria, there were no studies with prospectively gathered data on
30
31 adverse childhood experiences that met inclusion requirements. Rather, included studies fell into
32
33 two broad categories: cross-sectional, whereby exposure and outcome were assessed simultaneously
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35 in adults, usually via self-report; or quasi-prospective, whereby study members again provide
36
37 distant recall of pre-adult events and only the endpoint was in fact prospectively captured.
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43 Genuine prospective studies – those with an assessment of adverse experiences that was made in
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45 childhood followed by prospective ascertainment of health outcome in adulthood are rare and
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47 largely limited to a few birth cohort studies either conducted in the field^{27,29} or generated from the
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49 linkage of routinely gathered data.^{22,58} Field-based studies with the required extended follow-up
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51 period have typically been carried out in the era preceding the current research interest in childhood
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53 adversities, thus, construction of the exposure variable is often *post hoc* and often found wanting
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55 relative to contemporary, theory-driven definitions of this exposure. Meanwhile, electronic record
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57 studies, while typically offering high statistical power, miss undiagnosed morbidity, perhaps capture
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1
2 only those cases of adversity that come to the attention of social services, and often lack a breadth
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4 of data, most obviously on confounding factors.
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8 **Validity of early adversity data and other methodological considerations**

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11 The genuine prospective studies apart, a core issue in the synthesis of evidence on the health
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13 sequelae of adversity is the validity of the distantly recalled exposure data. There are obvious
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15 reasons to expect several biases to exert an impact on the quality of the data elicited many years
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17 following adverse events, including simply forgetting – potentially as a protective mechanism –
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19 infantile amnesia, and the influence of intervening life events such that it is unlikely that an
20
21 individual with contemporary experience of somatic illness and, particularly, mental health
22
23 problems will provide the same unbiased account of early life misery as a person free of such
24
25 conditions. Perhaps unsurprisingly then, agreement between retrospective and prospective
26
27 assessments of childhood maltreatment is poor, with a recent aggregation of kappa statistics across
28
29 16 studies which had both prospective and retrospective measurement being as low as 0.2,⁵⁹ an
30
31 observation that accords with earlier narrative reviews.⁶⁰ Expressed differently, this indicates that
32
33 prospective and retrospective measurement of early disadvantage tend to capture almost mutually
34
35 exclusive groups of people. What makes this finding more striking is that, in 15 of the 20 studies
36
37 identified, ‘distant’ recall was made earlier in the adult life course (<30 years of age), and in
38
39 several, participants were in adolescence.⁵⁹ Even mid-life recollection of early life socioeconomic
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41 status based on occupational social class – essentially an enquiry about the type of job held by the
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43 study member’s father – showed only moderate levels of agreement with reports from the earlier
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45 era.⁶¹
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55 The implications of these unfavourable psychometric characteristics for the examination of
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57 associations adult health outcomes may be acute. For studies exploring mental health outcomes,
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59 effects seem to be stronger when based on the retrospectively-captured adversity data.⁶² For
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1
2 somatic outcomes, in analyses of data from a birth cohort study, overcrowding at age 11 based on
3
4 prospectively gathered parental reports when the study member was aged 11 years was unrelated to
5
6 standard queries about asthma or wheezy bronchitis at age 50, whereas retrospectively gathered data
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8 on this marker of pre-adult adversity appeared to confer *protection* against the same respiratory
9
10 outcome.⁶³ In a rare study with objective health outcomes, retrospectively captured data on early
11
12 life poverty showed no relation with death or vascular disease events, whereas prospectively
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14 gathered records on hygiene and living conditions revealed the expected gradients.⁶⁴ Despite these
15
16 concerns of distant recall of early adversity, however, a cross-sectional study regarded by some
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18 observers as the progenitor study in the field of early adversity and adult health was in fact based on
19
20 the simultaneous assessment of exposures and outcomes made via self-report in middle- and older-
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22 aged people. Published two decades ago,⁶⁵ it has, according to Scopus, been cited a striking 6,500
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24 times and has recently been reprinted.⁶⁶

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32 A concern that may impact on all field-based studies is health-related selection into and out of the
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34 study population, such that children exposed to the greatest degree of adversity are perhaps least
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36 likely to participate. This issue is perhaps less problematic when cohort studies are based on
37
38 electronic linkage to health, social and welfare registries although, as described, it is likely that only
39
40 treated illnesses⁶⁷ and the most severe cases of adversity are captured.

41 42 43 44 45 **Public health implications and future research priorities**

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48 While cross-sectional studies suggest there may be emerging links between adverse childhood
49
50 experiences and a wide range of health outcomes, not all of which have clear explanatory
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52 mechanisms, this evidence base is not yet of sufficient quality to make definitive conclusions
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54 regarding public health impact. Findings in social epidemiology should be subject to the same level
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56 of scrutiny and doubt deployed in other spheres of science. In cardiovascular medicine, for
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58 instance, following very encouraging signals from an abundance of well-designed prospective
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1 cohort studies,⁶⁸⁻⁷⁰ pharmacological control of blood pressure,⁷¹ serum cholesterol,⁷² and diabetes⁷³
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4 in randomised controlled trials has been shown to *cause* reductions in cardiovascular event rates.
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6 Genuine prospective cohort studies, natural experiments, and trials – the latter also very rare in our
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8 search of the databases⁷⁴ – are now needed in the field of adverse childhood experiences to quantify
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10 health consequences, specify the most harmful exposures, and then confidently steer policy.
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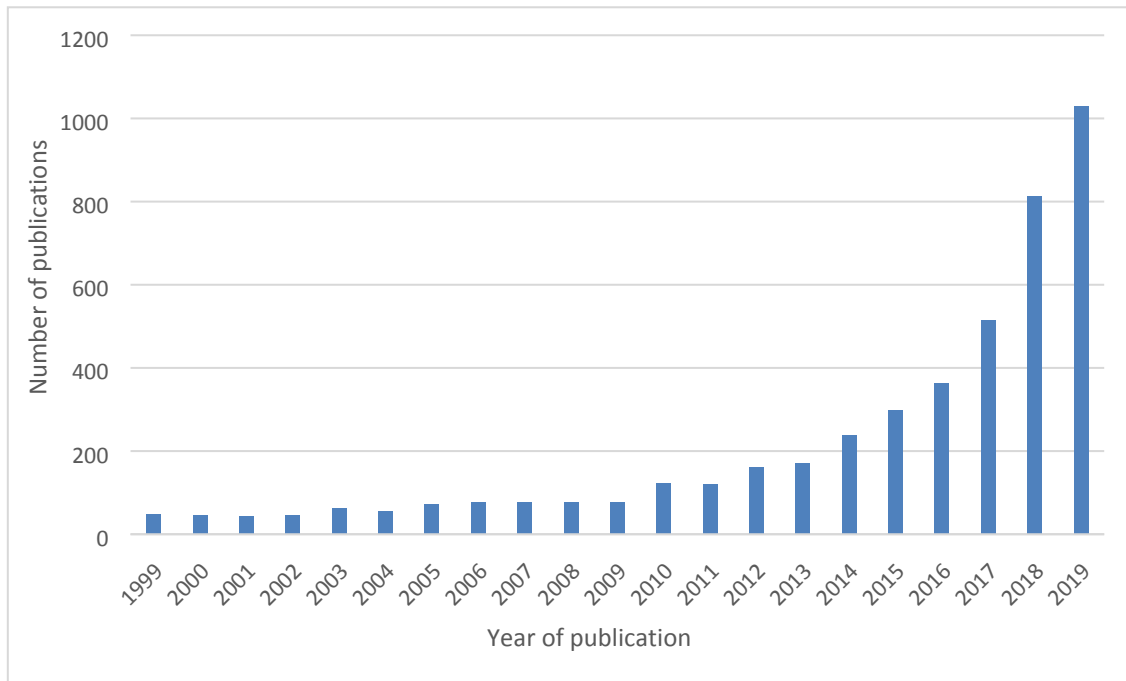
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Box. Selected indicators of early adverse experience linked to adult health based on existing reviews^{21,51,53}

Indirect	Direct
Family financial problems	Neighbourhood safety
Parental separation or divorce	Emotional, psychological, or verbal abuse
Family conflict or discord	Neglect
Death of parent or close relative or friend	Bullying
Parental incarceration/criminality	Separation from family (e.g., public care)
Witnessing violence or violence victimization	Serious childhood illness or injury
Household drug/substance abuse	Homelessness
Household mental illness	Dating violence
	Physical abuse
	Sexual abuse

Adversities are categorised according to their mode of action (indirect or direct), though other groupings have been advanced.⁵³ Adversities are arranged in ascending order of severity within each group, though this is moot: certain 'adversities' may actually be positive when the carer is abusive, such as parental separation, death, and incarceration, or when the child moves into public care. Adversities may have featured in studies of adult health outcomes either individually or comprising a summary score.

Figure. Number of publications by year in the area of adverse childhood experience



Based on a search of Pubmed using the following terms "adverse childhood experiences"[MeSH Terms] OR ("adverse"[All Fields] AND "childhood"[All Fields] AND "experiences"[All Fields]) OR "adverse childhood experiences"[All Fields] OR ("adverse"[All Fields] AND "childhood"[All Fields] AND "experience"[All Fields]) OR "adverse childhood experience"[All Fields]