

How Adversity Influences Health

ACEs Bulletin Vol. 3

Adwoa Osei, MD, FAAP

Adverse childhood experiences (ACEs) or early life stress can have lasting impacts on the developmental, emotional and health trajectories of life. To attempt to understand how this happens, we will briefly review the bio-neuropsychological aspects of the stress response.

Stress, is a state of threatened hemodynamic balance of an organism. The response to stress from the body is vital for survival and learning. The prefrontal cortex (PFC), amygdala, hippocampus, hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis, (HPA), sympathetic nervous system (SNS) and immune system are all heavily intertwined in this response.

Perceived psychological or biological stress is picked up by the amygdala, resulting in activation of the HPA axis and SNS. Release of catecholamines from the SNS activation system prepares the body to flee or flight. The activated HPA axis results in the release of glucocorticoids/cortisol from the adrenal gland. Activation of both systems are correlated with the production of inflammatory markers via the immune system. The PFC, known for executive functioning; plays an important role in modulating the perceived stress and thereby affecting the overall stress response produced. The hippocampus (cognition and memory), inhibits the HPA axis, thereby modulating the overall stress response. Vital to the stress response/modulation is the genetic disposition of the individual. Environmental and endogenous stimuli have the ability to determine the way a gene is functionally expressed - epigenetics, and how it interacts with the environment- telomere length

Prolonged stress may increase neural connections in the amygdala and cause structural changes in the PFC, which may in turn cause a hypo or hyper activation of the HPA axis. Elevated or low levels of cortisol cause dysregulation of the immune system and inflammatory markers. Persistently elevated cortisol levels affect the memory making function of the hippocampus and also interfere with its inhibitory/control function of the HPA axis. Chronic persistent stress may cause permanent changes in the functional expression of genes at the bio-neuropsychological level.

The timing, intensity, duration, of the stress response/modulation is significant, when occurring during critical periods of brain development. **(1)** Thus, when significant, prolonged, intense stress exposure occurs during periods of high neuroplasticity, the effects could be over a lifetime.

There's ample literature documenting how this influences health in adulthood. This article will seek to bring together how ACEs influences health from preconception through to the adolescent years.

Epigenetics

Epigenetic changes are a set of heritable changes that are not coded for in the underlying DNA sequence. These change the phenotype (how an organism/cell looks or behaves) without changing the genotype. Environmental and physiological stimuli may change the epigenetic landscape with impacts on normative developmental and age-related physiological capability/adaptability. This could be

through silencing, decreasing or increasing gene expression. In a sense, this is a vital adaptation by the gene in handling ever evolving stimuli. By causing changes in the epigenetic landscape, ACEs could therefore affect gene expression, with direct implications for future bio-neuropsychological health **(2)**

Early life experiences can directly influence genetic function by altering the epigenetic patterns in specific loci on the genome, **(3)** and altering gene expression profiles of neurons in the hippocampus and amygdala **(4)**. This means that a child exposed to adverse experiences, could struggle with memory, cognition and have an altered perception of stress, triggering a cascade of dysregulated responses. Epigenetic changes have been tied to mental health, obesity and substance abuse.

Methylation of DNA is one way a cell can create an epigenetic mark. Perroud and colleagues demonstrated that the severity, frequency and type of ACE exposure positively correlated with methylation of NRC31 which codes for the glucocorticoid receptor. Glucocorticoids have been linked to the development and severity of psychiatric illnesses. They found that repetition of exposure correlated with a higher percentage of methylation. They also found a correlation between numbers of traumatic experiences exposed to and methylation of brain-derived neurotropic factor (BDNF) promoter. BDNF is a gene that codes for proteins involved in regulation, growth and plasticity of neuronal tissue. Methylation of BDNF was also found to be associated with increased feelings of hopelessness and impulsivity. **(5, 6)**

Telomere length

To prevent the loss of genetically important information, chromosomes are capped by telomeres. Telomeres protect the ends of chromosomes from deterioration and from fusing with each other, during replication. Emerging literature links accelerated telomere shortening with stress. Some research suggests that the physiological correlates of stress – activation of the HPA axis, inflammation- imposes an increased oxidative burden on the cell, which damages the cell, resulting in accelerated telomere attrition/shortening **(7)** Stress evoked telomeric shortening could evoke physiological weathering in a way similar to aging. Telomere shortening has been associated with depression, harsh parenting, paternal absence and perceived racism. **(8)**

Perinatal

Of note, epigenetic changes and markers in a mother could be passed down to her offspring. Maternal behavior may result in patterns of epigenetic marks in the offspring that reflect those found in the parent **(3)**. Prenatal stressors could therefore, predispose the fetus to a primed response to stress later on in life; fetal programming.

Ceo-Lei and colleagues, in a longitudinal study demonstrated an apparent relationship between objective maternal hardship and methylation levels of genes in their offspring **(9)**. Exposure to third trimester depressed maternal mood is associated with methylation status of NRC31 in newborns and altered hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal stress reactivity at age 3 months. **(10)**

Among the subcategories of adverse childhood experiences, physical abuse, and household substance abuse were associated with higher gestational diabetes mellitus risk and obesity risk in mothers. **(11,15)** A history of childhood maltreatment in a mother was also found to be associated with her child's emotional and behavioral changes in childhood and adolescence. **(16)**

Moog et al suggest that pregnant women who suffered childhood trauma showed a 25% increase in placental corticotrophin hormone at the end of gestation compared to those not exposed to ACEs. Increased maternal and fetal cortisol concentrations in pregnancy were associated with changes in children's temperament and behavior, delay in cognitive development and changes in HPA axis. **(17,20)**. They also noted a 6% difference less in brain volume of offspring of mothers exposed to ACEs vs non exposed mothers, in the cortical gray matter. **(21)**

Infant and Early Childhood

The hippocampus and amygdala and HPA axis develop gradually in the first 5 years and in a non-linear pattern until early adulthood. For children under 5, some longitudinal studies suggest that stress responsivity decreases with age throughout the preschool period. **(22)** This hyposensitive period may lead to hyper-activity and responsiveness of the HPA axis. This means that primary caregivers play a significant role in mediating threats within the child's environment (social buffering system), helping to calm the nervous system. **(23, 24)** This role is especially significant in children under 24 months. A calm physiologic state or a reliable dependable buffering system is required for optimal learning conditions.

Enlow et al 2012, found that interpersonal trauma (IPT) exposure during 0-24 months was significantly associated with decreased cognitive scores at 24-96 months of age. IPT particularly in the first 2 years of life, was found to have significant and long-lasting effects on cognitive development. Similarly, a significant association exists between maltreatment and cognitive delay at age 4. **(25, 26)** Children whose mothers reported chronic intimate partner violence (IPV) were more likely to be obese at age 5 than those whose mothers reported no IPV **(27)**

Maternal depressive symptoms have been associated with reactive airway disease diagnoses in the preschool years and poor sleep in infants. Children at age 3 seemed to be at a higher risk of reactive airway disease if their mothers were depressed. **(28)** Non depressed mothers had infants who slept longer through the night with fewer nighttime awakenings than those of depressed mothers at 2-24 weeks of age **(29)**

School Age Years

Children exposed to or who have experienced ACEs may hypo or hyper react to threats in their environment, leaving them in states of hypo/hyper arousal for extended periods. These chronic states of dysregulation may cause structural changes in the PFC and alter neuronal signals in the hippocampus. This in turn leads to generalized impairment in learning, memory and struggle with overall academic achievement.

Children who experienced parental death or divorce had lower cognitive ability scores at age 8 and 15. **(30)** Cumulative ACEs (>4) have been shown to be associated with a higher risk of reporting a learning disability, attention and behavioral problems compared to those without exposure **(31-33)**.

Longitudinal neuroimaging studies suggests that early ACEs may cause alterations in the development of the Inferior frontal gyrus, a sub region of the pre frontal cortex involved in inhibitory control and emotion function, resulting in deficits in emotion development and increasing risk for depressive symptoms. **(34)** Behaviorally, ACEs promote hyper vigilance to threat, a focus on immediate gratification and poorer emotion regulation, shaping interactions with the environment and leading to increased health risk behaviors.

Through the prolonged/chronic activation of the SNS and HPA axis, cells produce an excessive inflammatory response, developing into a chronic pro inflammatory phenotype. **(35)** Parental depressive symptoms seem to increase children's profile of asthma relevant inflammatory markers.

Some studies report late menarche associated with being raised in at least one neglectful environment. **(36)**

Studies on household dysfunction show an effect on weight and weight management during childhood, with an increased risk among early adolescent females exposed to maltreatment. **(37)** Wolke and colleagues in a longitudinal study, found parasomnias to be associated with bullying victimization in 8-12y/o **(38)**

Adolescent Years

Numerous studies have linked ACEs to depressed mood, anxiety, PTSD symptoms, risk taking behavior, early pregnancy, eating disorders, weight problems, substance abuse, juvenile delinquency, STI treatment, suicide attempts and mental health treatment in adolescents.

Exposure to 2 or more ACEs increases the odds ratio of having somatic complaints and poor health, while an even increased number of exposures shows a graded relationship with illness requiring a doctor. **(39)** Maltreatment increases the risk for obesity in female adolescents, with abuse and neglect affecting weight in general, during adolescence. **(40)**

In a study looking at the timing of maltreatment and its effect of multiple problem outcomes; adolescents undergoing treatment for substance abuse and juvenile delinquency, seemed to show a significant association between concurrent maltreatment and behavioral problems, than maltreatment earlier in childhood. **(41)**.

Neuro-Diverse Children

In typically developing children, ACEs tend to have detrimental effects on their neurobiological, emotional and cognitive development. Children who are developmentally delayed or have ASD, typically

struggle with these at a baseline. They struggle with communicating, are socially isolated and often prone to higher levels of social and familial stress. It may therefore, not be entirely surprising that neuro-diverse kids may be at an even increased risk from the effects of ACEs exposure. **(42, 45)**

Children with more severe ASD symptomatology were associated with elevated risk of ACEs, regardless of poverty and other factors. In children aged 2-17, having at least one ACE has a significant correlation with delay in diagnosis and treatment, regardless of race, ethnicity, health insurance and socioeconomic status **(43)**

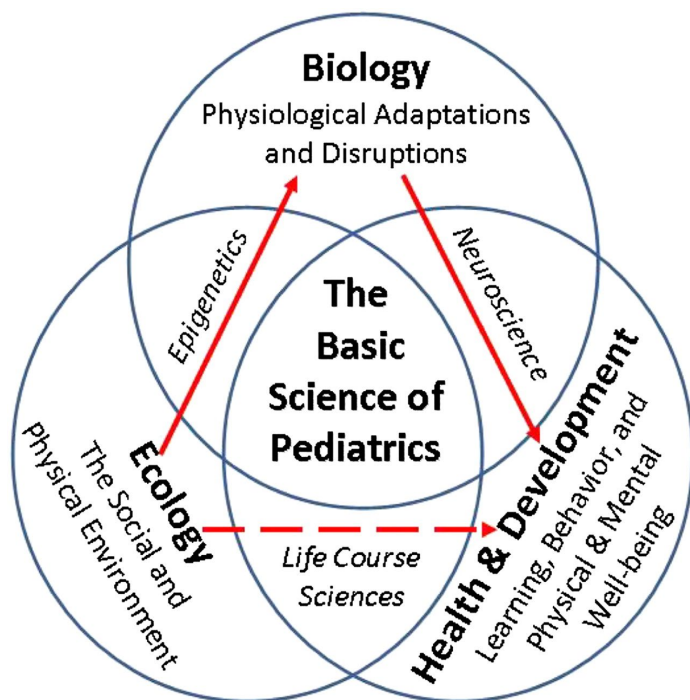
Children with ASD and developmental delays have been shown to be dysregulated in bodily functions such as emotion, stress, mood, and digestion. They have higher levels of salivary cortisol in response to novel and threatening stimuli such as psychosocial stress or sensory stimuli. **(44)** These pre-existing responses may increase vulnerability to ACEs or increase traumatic responses to ACEs, further perpetuating behavioral and biological dysregulation **(45)**

Conclusion

It is quite clear that adverse early childhood experiences do “get under the skin”. Ecology, biology, health and development interact in complex ways in a child’s life. Adverse childhood experiences (ACEs) or early life stress do have lasting impacts on the developmental, emotional and health trajectories of life.

There is a strong and an urgent case for advocacy, knowledge and intervention, as ACEs continue to impact care of the whole child. The AAP has called for a multidisciplinary approach to the development of this eco-bio-developmental model of care and health planning. The proverbial “it takes a village” couldn’t be more succinct at this time.

The Lifelong Effects of Early Childhood Adversity and Toxic Stress



Jack P. Shonkoff, Andrew S. Garner, THE COMMITTEE ON PSYCHOSOCIAL ASPECTS OF CHILD AND FAMILY HEALTH, COMMITTEE ON EARLY CHILDHOOD, ADOPTION, AND DEPENDENT CARE, AND SECTION ON DEVELOPMENTAL AND BEHAVIORAL PEDIATRICS, Benjamin S. Siegel, Mary I. Dobbins, Marian F. Earls, Andrew S. Garner, Laura McGuinn, John Pascoe and David L. Wood
 Pediatrics January 2012, 129 (1) e232-e246; DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1542/peds.2011-2663>

Bibliography

1. Agorastos A., Pervanidou P., Chrousos G. P., Baker D. G. (2019). Developmental trajectories of early life stress and trauma: a narrative review on neurobiological aspects beyond stress system dysregulation. *Front. Psychiatry* 10:118. 10.3389/fpsyt.2019.00118
2. Lang, J., McKie, J., Smith, H., McLaughlin, A., Gillberg, C., Shiels, P. G., & Minnis, H. (2019). Adverse childhood experiences, epigenetics and telomere length variation in childhood and beyond: a systematic review of the literature. *European Child & Adolescent Psychiatry*.
3. Notterman DA, Mitchell C. Epigenetics and understanding the impact of social determinants of health. *Pediatr Clin North Am.* 2015; 62(5): 1227–1240.
4. Trollope AF, Gutierrez-Mecinas M, Mifsud KR, Collins A, Saunderson EA, Reul JM. Stress, epigenetic control of gene expression and memory formation. *Exp Neurol.* (2012) 233:3–11. 10.1016/j.expneurol.2011.03.022
5. Perroud N, Paoloni-Giacobino A, Prada P et al (2011) Increased methylation of glucocorticoid receptor gene (NR3C1) in adults with a history of childhood maltreatment: a link with the severity and type of trauma. *Transl Psychiatry* 1(12):e59
6. Perroud N, Salzmann A, Prada P et al (2013) Response to psychotherapy in borderline personality disorder and methylation status of the BDNF gene. *Transl Psychiatry* 3(1):e2073.
7. Lang, J., McKie, J., Smith, H., McLaughlin, A., Gillberg, C., Shiels, P. G., & Minnis, H. (2019). Adverse childhood experiences, epigenetics and telomere length variation in childhood and beyond: a systematic review of the literature. *European Child & Adolescent Psychiatry*.
7. von Zglinicki T. Oxidative stress shortens telomeres. *Trends in Biochemical Sciences.* 2002 Jan 7;27(7):339–344.
8. Geronimus AT. The weathering hypothesis and the health of African-American women and infants: evidence and speculations. *Ethnicity & disease.* 1992 Summer;2(3):207–221
9. Cao-Lei L, Massart R, Suderman MJ et al (2014) DNA methylation signatures triggered by prenatal maternal stress exposure to a natural disaster: project Ice Storm. *PLoS One* 9(9):e107653
10. Oberlander TF, Weinberg J, Papsdorf M, Grunau R, Misri S, Devlin AM. Prenatal exposure to maternal depression, neonatal methylation of human glucocorticoid receptor gene (NR3C1)

and infant cortisol stress responses. *Epigenetics: official journal of the DNA Methylation Society*. 2008 Mar-Apr;3(2):97–106.

11. The Role of Childhood Adversity in the Development of Gestational Diabetes Schoenaker, Danielle A.J.M. et al. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, Volume 57, Issue 3, 302 -310

12 .McGowan PO. Epigenomic mechanisms of early adversity and HPA dysfunction: considerations for PTSD research. *Front Psychiatry*. (2013) 4:110. 10.3389/fpsyt.2013.00110

13. Stankiewicz AM, Swiergiel AH, Lisowski P. Epigenetics of stress adaptations in the brain. *Brain Res Bull*. (2013) 98:76–92. 10.1016/j.brainresbull.2013.07.003

14. Reul JMHM. Making memories of stressful events: a journey along epigenetic, gene transcription, and signaling pathways. *Front Psychiatry*. (2014) 5:5. 10.3389/fpsyt.2014.00005

15. Ranchod YK, Headen IE, Petit LC, Deardorff JK, Rehkopf DH, Abrams BF. Maternal childhood adversity, prepregnancy obesity, and gestational weight gain. *Am J Prev Med* 2016; **50**: 463– 469

16. BUSS C, Entringer S, Moog NK, et al. Intergenerational transmission of maternal childhood maltreatment exposure: implications for fetal brain development. *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry* 2017;56.

17. de Weerth C, van Hees Y, Buitelaar JK, et al. Prenatal maternal cortisol levels and infant behavior during the first 5 months. *Early Hum Dev* 2003;74:139–51.

18. Davis EP, Glynn LM, Schetter CD, et al. Prenatal exposure to maternal depression and cortisol influences infant temperament. *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry* 2007;46:737–46.

19. Davis EP, Sandman CA. The timing of prenatal exposure to maternal cortisol and psychosocial stress is associated with human infant cognitive development. *Child Dev* 2010;81:131–48

20. O'Connor TG, Bergman K, Sarkar P, et al. Prenatal cortisol exposure predicts infant cortisol response to acute stress. *Dev Psychobiol* 2013;55:145–55.

21. Moog NK, Entringer S, Rasmussen JM, et al. Intergenerational effect of maternal exposure to childhood maltreatment on newborn brain anatomy. *Biol Psychiatry* 2018;83:120–7.

22. Hostinar CE, Sullivan RM, Gunnar MR. Psychobiological mechanisms underlying the social buffering of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenocortical axis: a review of animal models and human studies across development. *Psychol Bull.* (2014) 140:256–82. 10.1037/a0032671
23. van der Kolk, B. (2003). The neurobiology of childhood trauma and abuse. *Child and Adolescent Psychiatric Clinics of North America*, 12, 293–317
24. Hostinar CE, Johnson AE, Gunnar MR. Early social deprivation and the social buffering of cortisol stress responses in late childhood: an experimental study. *Dev Psychol.* (2015) 51:1597–608. 10.1037/dev0000029
25. Enlow, M. B., Egeland, B., Blood, E. A., Wright, R. O., & Wright, R.J. (2012). Interpersonal trauma exposure and cognitive development in children to age 8 years: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Epidemiological Health*, 66, 1005–1010
26. Strathearn L, Gray PH, O’Callaghan MJ, Wood DO. Childhood neglect and cognitive development in extremely low birth weight infants: a prospective study. *Pediatrics.* 2001;108(1):142–151. doi: 10.1542/peds.108.1.142.
27. Boynton-Jarrett R, Fagnoli J, Suglia SF, Zuckerman B, Wright RJ. Association between maternal intimate partner violence and incident obesity in preschool-aged children: results from the Fragile Families and Child Well-being Study. *Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med.* 2010; 10.1001/archpediatrics.2010.94.
28. Lange NE, Bunyavanich S, Silberg JL, Canino G, Rosner BA, Celedón JC. Parental psychosocial stress and asthma morbidity in Puerto Rican twins. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2011; 10.1016/j.jaci.2010.11.010.
29. Hairston IS, Waxler E, Seng JS, Fezzey AG, Rosenblum KL, Muzik M. The role of infant sleep in intergenerational transmission of trauma. *Sleep.* 2011; 10.5665/SLEEP.1282.
30. Richards M, Wadsworth ME. Long term effects of early adversity on cognitive function. *Arch Dis Child.* 2004; 10.1136/adc.2003.032490.
31. Burke Harris N, Renschler T. Center for Youth Wellness ACE-Questionnaire (CYW ACE-Q Child, Teen, Teen SR). Version 7. San Francisco, CA: Center for Youth Wellness; 2015.
32. Jimenez, M. E., Roy, W., Schwartz-Soicher, O., Lin, Y., & Reichman, N. E. (2017). Adverse childhood experiences and ADHD diagnosis at age 9 years in a national urban sample. *Academic Pediatrics*, 17(4), 356–361.

33. Hunt, T. K. A., Slack, K. S., & Berger, L. M. (2017). Adverse childhood experiences and behavioral problems in middle childhood. *Child Abuse and Neglect*, 67, 391–402.
34. Luby J.L., Barch D., Whalen D. Association between early life adversity and risk for poor emotional and physical health in adolescence: A putative mechanistic neurodevelopmental pathway. *JAMA Pediatr.* 2017;171:1168–1175.
35. Miller GE, Chen E, Parker KJ. Psychological stress in childhood and susceptibility to the chronic diseases of aging: moving toward a model of behavioral and biological mechanisms. *Psychol Bull.* 2011;137(6):959-997
36. Boynton-Jarrett R, Harville EW. A prospective study of childhood social hardships and age at menarche. *Ann Epidemiol.* 2012; 10.1016/j.annepidem.2012.08.005.
37. Noll JG, Zeller MH, Trickett PK, Obesity PFW. risk for female victims of childhood sexual abuse: a prospective study. *Pediatrics.* 2007; 10.1542/peds.2006-3058.
38. Wolke D, Lereya ST. Bullying and parasomnias: a longitudinal cohort study. *Pediatrics.* 2014; 10.1542/peds.2014-1295.
39. Flaherty EG, Thompson R, Dubowitz H, et al. Adverse childhood experiences and child health in early adolescence. *JAMA Pediatr.* 2013; 10.1001/jamapediatrics.2013.22.
40. Oh DL, Jerman P, Silvério Marques S, Koita K, Purewal Boparai SK, Burke Harris N, et al. Systematic review of pediatric health outcomes associated with childhood adversity. *BMC Pediatr.* 2018;18:e1–e19. doi: 10.1186/s12887-018-1037-7.
41. Thornberry TP, Ireland TO, Smith CA. The importance of timing: the varying impact of childhood and adolescent maltreatment on multiple problem outcomes. *Dev. Psychopathol.* 2001;13(4):957–979
42. Hoover, D. W. (2015). The effects of psychological trauma on children with autism spectrum disorders: A research review. *Review Journal of Autism and Developmental Disorders*, 2, 287–299.
43. Berg, K. L., Shiu, C., Acharya, K., Stolbach, B., & Msall, M. (2016). Disparities in adversity among children with autism spectrum disorder: A population based study. *Developmental Medicine & Child Neurology*, 58, 1124–1131

44. Corbett, B. A., Mendoza, S., Wegelin, J. A., Carmean, V., & Levine, S. (2008). Variable cortisol circadian rhythms in children with autism and anticipatory stress. *Journal of Psychiatry and Neuroscience*, 33(3), 227–234.

45. Kerns, C., Newschaffer, C., & Berkowitz, S. (2015). Traumatic childhood events and autism spectrum disorder. *Journal of Autism and Developmental Disorders*, 45(11), 3475–3486

46. The Lifelong Effects of Early Childhood Adversity and Toxic Stress Jack P. Shonkoff, Andrew S. Garner, THE COMMITTEE ON PSYCHOSOCIAL ASPECTS OF CHILD AND FAMILY HEALTH, COMMITTEE ON EARLY CHILDHOOD, ADOPTION, AND DEPENDENT CARE, AND SECTION ON DEVELOPMENTAL AND BEHAVIORAL PEDIATRICS, Benjamin S. Siegel, Mary I. Dobbins, Marian F. Earls, Andrew S. Garner, Laura McGuinn, John Pascoe and David L. Wood
Pediatrics January 2012, 129 (1) e232-e246; DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1542/peds.2011-2663>

Adwoa Osei, MD, FAAP