

Association of Childhood Trauma Exposure with Adult Psychiatric Disorders and Functional Outcomes

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Abstract: *Children or adolescent trauma experience has already been linked to a number of detrimental mental health consequences, such as psychotic experiences, anxiety, bipolar disorder, and psychosis. Our study aimed to determine the link between repeated exposures to childhood trauma (CT) and adult mental and functioning consequences. By using two - a stage sample strategy, 820 individuals were chosen from age categories of kids, 10, 13, and 15 years old, from a population of about 3,670 kids. A maximum of 2981 evaluations were done upon that 820 kids up to the age of 16 (1647 observations of 820 people), as well as at the ages of 18, 23, 26, and 29 (1334 observations of 736 people). Data were collected through an interview for the evaluation of all consequences, with the exception of those mentioned (such as formal criminal histories). Of the 820 participants in the research, 436 (53.18%) were female and 384 (46.82%) were male. By the age of 16, 29.3% of kids (n = 241) had had one traumatic incident, 23.0% (n = 189) had experienced two, and 21.46% (n = 176) had experienced three or maybe more. The Odds Ratio (OR) for every disease seemed to be 1.1; 95% confidence interval, 1.0-1.3; and exposure to accumulated CT until the age of 16 was linked to a higher prevalence of adult psychiatric conditions and worse outcome measures, such as major results that show a markedly interrupted development into adulthood. Despite controlling for a wide variety of children contributing factors, such as mental functioning and family problems, CT experience remained linked to higher levels of adult psychiatric and functional outcomes (adjusted OR for any illness, 1.2; 95% CI, 1.0-1.4). After adjusting for a number of family and children features associated with trauma exposure and bad adult results, CT exposure was related to poor adult outcomes.*

Key Words: Cumulative Childhood Trauma, Psychiatric Disorders, Psychosis, Depression

Introduction

Children or adolescent trauma experience has already been linked to a number of detrimental mental health consequences, such as psychotic experiences, anxiety, bipolar disorder, and psychosis (Croft et al., [2019](#)), (Trotta et al., [2015](#)), (Yap et al., [2014](#)). In particular, meta-analyses have demonstrated that those who have experienced

any type of childhood abuse are significantly more likely to have recurring and chronic mental health issues (Nelson et al., [2017](#)). Li *et al.*, for instance, found that a background of recorded child maltreatment was linked to a 2-fold rise in the likelihood of major depressive disorder and any anxiety disorder in adolescence (Li et al., [2015](#)). A correlation existed between CT and psychosis has

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been found in meta-analyses of the psychosis data across all research designs, with an overall impact of OR = 2.68 (95% CI = 2.24-3.33) (Varese et al., 2012). Last but not least, Bellis *et al.* found that throughout America and Europe, population-attributable percentages linked with bad experiences growing up for depression, stress, and illegal drug use varied between 26.3% to 39.2% (Bellis et al., 2019).

A critical risk factor for a variety of psychopathologies is sensitivity to early trauma. According to data from population-based research, children who have encountered trauma are almost twice as likely to develop a mental condition as children who have not (Lewis et al., 2019), (Finkelhor et al., 2005), (Perkonigg et al., 2000). In addition to being prevalent through the child, this heightened hazard for the development of psychopathology also lasts into adolescence and adulthood (McLaughlin et al., 2009). Sensitivity to CT is linked to almost every type of psychiatric disorder that are frequent, such as depression, anxiety, drug use, and disturbing behavioural difficulties, with no discernible difference in the intensity of relationships among illnesses (Green et al., 2010).

Childhood abuse is frequently assessed retrospectively in adulthood research when problems with prejudice and exclusion might compromise validity (Widom & Morris, 1997). According to a comprehensive study and meta-analysis, on aggregate, 52% of people who had progressive assessments of childhood abuse did not report it, whereas 56% of those who documented it retroactively did not have any progressive proof to back it up (Baldwin et al., 2019). Our study aimed to determine the link between repeated exposures to CT and adult mental and functioning consequences.

Material and Methods

The study was carried out at Qazi Hussain Ahmed Medical Complex Nowshera from December 2021 to March 2022. This research adheres to the guidelines for randomized trials established by STROBE, which improves observational study

description in epidemiological data (von Elm et al., 2007). A two-stage sample approach was used to choose 820 respondents from age categories of kids, 10, 13, and 15 years old, from a pool of about 3,670 kids. A home equal likelihood strategy was implemented to actually select possible members from the community followed by a neuropsychiatric risk assessment. Additionally, a randomly selected sample of other participants, all of who ranked high endured oversampling.

For a maximum of 2981 evaluations, annual evaluations of the 820 kids were done through till age of 16 (1647 observations of 820 people), and then again at the ages of 18, 23, 26, and 29 (1334 observations of 736 people). Up to the age of 16, a parent figure and the participant conducted questionnaires individually; from that point on, the individual alone made a questionnaire. Documents for informed consent or assent were completed by the parent and child prior to most interviews. The following aspects were found to be childhood predictors of adult outcomes: 1) Diagnostic manual traumatic experiences, 2) mental and drug problems, and 3) challenges and difficulties. By using structured Child and Adolescence Psychological Evaluation, all components were evaluated (CAPA). The Young Adult Psychiatric Assessment, a rising extension of the CAPA discussion provided to the contributors, was used to evaluate all results other than when stated (e.g., official criminal records).

The 2-stage sample design must be taken into consideration in the analytical strategy. Every candidate received a specimen which was inversely correlated with their probability of selection. Afterwards, robust variance (sandwich-type) estimates were created for each GLM in SAS software. We compared variations in adults outcomes by CT level using modified logistics (for secondary endpoints i.e. mental status), Poisson (for count factors i.e. the number of derailments), and regular (continuous data i.e. the z score for adult purpose measures) regression model. At a 2-sided $P < 0.05$, results are deemed clinically meaningful.

Results

Of the 820 research participants, 436 (53.18%) were female and 384 (46.82%) were male. The prevalence of response to a DSM severe stressful event was high: 27.39% of children (241) experienced 1 traumatic incident, 24.04% (189) had 2 or so more, and 21.46% (176) experienced 3 or more. Neither sex nor race/ethnicity significantly affected the overall incidence of trauma exposure (while some specific traumatic experience was more prevalent in males than in girls). The most

frequently stated events were hearing about a beloved one's extreme level of stress (17.3%), knowing about a potentially fatal tragedy (22.3%), and seeing a traumatic event. Children's mental issues, other challenges, and cumulative lifetime CT groups are all shown in Table 1 along with their frequency and connections with these issues. Almost all childhood mental and behavioural disorders, as well as all kinds of adversity and suffering, were linked to cumulative trauma (i.e. familial instability and being bullied by peers).

Table 1. Prolonged CT frequency and an unbalanced link to childhood psychiatric conditions, difficulties, and hardships

| Psychological Issues, Difficulties, and Adversity | 0 Exposures (n = 214) | Exposures 1 (n = 241) | Exposures 2 (n = 189) | Exposures (n = 176) | OR(95% CI) |
|---|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|----------------------------|
| Participants, No. (%) | | | | | |
| Psychiatric issues | | | | | |
| Any | 59 (27.57) | 89 (36.92) | 64 (33.86) | 83 (47.15) | 1.5 (1.3-1.8) ^b |
| Any depressive disorder | 21 (9.81) | 27 (11.2) | 19 (10) | 62 (35.22) | 1.4 (1.2-1.7) ^b |
| Any anxiety disorder | 36 (16.82) | 48 (19.91) | 30 (15.87) | 51 (28.97) | 1.2 (0.9-1.5) ^b |
| Substance use disorder | 32 (14.95) | 66 (27.3) | 47 (24.86) | 19 (10.79) | 1.7 (1.3-2.1) ^b |
| Conduct disorder | 15 (7) | 23 (9.54) | 46 (24.33) | 85 (48.29) | 1.3 (1.0-1.7) ^b |
| Oppositional defiant disorder | 19 (8.87) | 36 (14.93) | 49 (25.9) | 71 (40.34) | 1.8 (1.4-2.2) ^b |
| Attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder | 27 (12.61) | 56 (23.2) | 19 (10) | 39 (22.15) | 1.5 (1.2-1.8) ^b |
| Adversities and hardships | | | | | |
| Family instability | 36 (16.82) | 69 (28.6) | 47 (24.86) | 59 (33.52) | 1.4 (1.2-1.6) ^b |
| Bullied by peers | 17 (7.94) | 46 (20.33) | 26 (13.75) | 39 (22.15) | 1.5 (1.2-1.7) ^b |
| Low family socioeconomic status | 73 (34.11) | 96 (39.83) | 61 (32.27) | 83 (47.15) | 1.5 (1.3-1.8) ^b |
| Family dysfunction | 31 (14.4) | 57 (23.65) | 53 (28.04) | 69 (39.2) | 1.3 (1.1-1.5) ^b |

^b $P < .05$

736 people from the whole sample (89.75%) had at least one adult follow-up at the ages of 18, 23, or 29. The relationship between cumulative lifetime trauma experience throughout childhood and

adult mental consequences is seen in Table 2. CT status was linked to an adult mental state in models that were simply racial/ethnic and gender-adjusted.

Table 2. Correlation of CT Frequency with Adult Psychiatric Issues

| Psychiatric Problem | Participant (%) | | | | Adjusted OR (95% CI) | |
|---------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------------|--|
| | 0 Exposure (n = 193) | 1 Exposure (n = 241) | 2 Exposure (n = 159) | 3 Exposure (n = 143) | Gender and Ethnicity | Gender, Ethnicity, Psychiatric Disorder, and Adversities |
| General disorder | 147 (76.16) | 181 (75.1) | 143 (89.9) | 137 (95.8) | 1.1 (1.0-1.3) ^b | 1.2 (1.1-1.4) ^b |
| Anxiety | 49 (25.38) | 67 (27.8) | 51 (32.07) | 63 (44.05) | 1.3 (1.0-1.6) ^b | 1.3 (1.1-1.6) ^b |
| Depression | 41 (21.24) | 39 (16.1) | 43 (27.04) | 53 (37.06) | 1.3 (1.0-1.5) ^b | 1.2 (1.1-1.5) ^b |
| Substance disorder | 101 (52.33) | 141 (58.50) | 107 (67.29) | 89 (62.23) | 1.2 (1.0-1.4) ^b | 1.3 (1.0-1.7) ^b |

^b *P* < .05.

Health, hazardous and criminal conduct, economic and learning functioning, and societal functioning scores all showed results that followed a similar trend (Table 3). In models that were

controlled for gender, ethnicity, and both childhood psychiatric issues and difficulties and adversities, CT was linked to all outcomes.

Table 3. Associations between Adult Functional Outcome Scales and CT Groups

| Outcomes | Adjusted β (95% CI) | |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|---|
| | Gender and ethnicity | Gender, Ethnicity, Psychiatric Diagnoses, and Adversities |
| Health | .21 (.14-.26) [*] | .23 (.16-.32) [*] |
| Risky and criminal conduct | .15 (.04-.15) [*] | .11 (.04-.20) [*] |
| Economic and learning | .17 (.13-.24) [*] | .15 (.08-.21) [*] |
| Societal | .13 (.03-.18) [*] | .12 (.03-.19) [*] |

^{*}*P* < .05.

Instead of considering cumulative experience, much research on CT has concentrated on contact with only one incident. To see how different classifications of trauma experience might impact the long-term connections, models for a core set of outcomes were run (Table 4). Any distress exposure to two or more occasions or experience

of an incident linked to signs of childhood post-traumatic stress disorder were all included in these categories as dichotomous variables. All effects were connected to any trauma exposure, and all alternate criteria were significantly related to at least one result.

Table 4. Associations of Alternative Trauma Definitions (ATD) with Adult Life

| ATD | Diagnosis OR (95% CI) | β (95% CI) | |
|--------------|----------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| | | Health | Economic and Learning |
| 1 Event | 2.1 (1.3-2.8) [*] | 0.51 (0.32-0.69) [*] | 0.31 (0.13-0.52) [*] |
| 2 Event | 1.2 (0.1-1.8) [*] | 0.42 (0.26-0.65) [*] | 0.19 (0.02-0.38) [*] |
| 3 Event | 1.4 (1.8-2.6) [*] | 0.59 (0.33-0.82) [*] | 0.48 (0.24-0.71) [*] |
| PTSD symptom | 1.3 (1.9-2.4) [*] | 0.09 (0.19-0.34) [*] | 0.24 (0.07-0.53) [*] |

^{*}*P* < .05.

Discussion

In this study, relationships between CT and adult outcomes were prospectively examined. Boys, girls, and various racial/ethnic groupings are all affected by CT exposure at roughly the same rates. Such exposures are linked to a variety of childhood mental issues as well as other difficulties and adversity in the family. Our research revealed that CT has long-lasting and wide-reaching impacts, as it was linked to an increased threat to adult mental health and significant ranges of functions (health, criminal behaviour, economic, learning and societal). This increased risk persisted after taking into account adult exposure to traumatic events, childhood mental health issues, additional family and personal sufferings, and other difficulties.

Numerous studies have demonstrated a connection between early traumatic experiences and long-term outcomes (Brown et al., 2009), (Felitti et al., 1998). Developmental psychopathology holds that early trauma has the capacity to influence behaviour and functioning throughout the course of a person's life. Although generally recognized, this theory has frequently been supported by research that evaluates childhood exposures retrospectively without taking other developmental characteristics into account that frequently co-happen during exposure to trauma. These approaches are vulnerable to confounding and recollection bias (Hardt & Rutter, 2004). Our findings suggest that CT has widespread impacts on adult functioning and that these effects cannot be solely attributed to a child's developmental environment, preexisting psychiatric vulnerability, or other difficulties and adversities.

It is currently unknown which kid subgroups are more at risk when exposed to trauma, despite

the fact that children from poor households or intense areas are more vulnerable to experiencing traumas. The attempts to pinpoint risk modifiers (such as sex, ethnicity, or age) have proven unpredictable and do not impart themselves to straightforward accounts of susceptibility and risk. Instead of influencing the creation of accurate medicine models to affect or expect each patient's reaction to treatment, the results of this research are well suitable to enlightening broad-based community policy struggles at lowering exposure to trauma and improving its effects (Psaty et al., 2018). This study provided evidence for the distinct impacts of exposure to trauma in infancy and adulthood on adult functioning. Our analyses found very little evidence that exposure to trauma during a particular developmental stage was linked to a specific future risk, as has been documented in several studies for abuse (Kaplow & Widom, 2007), (Dunn et al., 2013).

Conclusions

According to statistics, exposure to CT is a common occurrence that impacts most children at some time and may afterwards have an impact on a wide range of functioning. These effects continue for at least 20 years. Importantly, the overall number of childhood traumas experienced by individuals was linked to long-term health and functioning, with each additional trauma raising the likelihood of adverse adult outcomes. These results clearly state what has to be done to increase opportunity, lessen suffering, and prevent morbidity over life. Strategies that generally address the basically avoidable group of adverse childhood practices usually have long-lasting, complex impacts on improving health.

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