Associations between adverse childhood experiences and obstetrical outcomes in a predominantly Blackidentifying and low-income pregnant population



Divya L. Jasthi, MPH; Justin R. Lappen, MD; Sarah Garber, MD; Sarah Kennedy, MD, MEd; Noria McCarther, MD; Sarah Nagle-Yang, MD; Tamika Moore, MSSA, LISW; Scott Frank, MD, MS; Alissa Huth-Bocks, PhD

BACKGROUND: Recent literature indicates that adverse childhood experiences have been associated with poor obstetrical outcomes, including pregnancy loss, preterm birth, and low birthweight. Several studies have been conducted in primarily self-identified White individuals who report middle to high income levels. Less is known about the impact of adverse childhood experiences on obstetrical outcomes in minority-identifying and low-income populations, who are known to experience a greater number of adverse childhood experiences and are at higher risk of maternal morbidity.

OBJECTIVE: This study aimed to examine associations between adverse childhood experiences and a broad range of obstetrical outcomes among predominantly Black-identifying pregnant persons who have low income and live in an urban area.

STUDY DESIGN: This is a single-center retrospective cohort study of pregnant persons referred to a mental healthcare manager because of elevated psychosocial risks identified by screening tools or provider concerns during the study period from April 2018 to May 2021. Pregnant persons aged <18 years and those who did not speak English were excluded. Patients completed validated mental and behavioral health screening tools including the Adverse Childhood Experiences Questionnaire. Medical charts were reviewed for obstetrical outcomes, including preterm birth, low birthweight, hypertensive disorders of pregnancy, gestational diabetes mellitus, chorioamnionitis, sexually transmitted infection, maternal group B strepto-coccus carrier status, type of delivery, and attendance of a postpartum visit. Associations between high (\geq 4) and very high (\geq 6) of 10 adverse childhood experience score and obstetrical outcomes were analyzed using bivariate

analysis and multivariate logistic regression, adjusting for confounding factors (significant at *P*<.05 in bivariate analysis).

RESULTS: Our cohort included 192 pregnant persons, of whom 176 (91.7%) self-identified as Black or African American and 181 (94.8%) had public insurance (used as a proxy for low income). Adverse childhood experience score ≥ 4 was reported by 91 (47.4%) individuals and score ≥ 6 by 50 (26%). On univariate analysis, adverse childhood experience score ≥ 4 was associated with preterm birth (odds ratio, 2.17; 95% confidence interval, 1.02–4.61). Adverse childhood experience score ≥ 6 was associated with hypertensive disorders of pregnancy (odds ratio, 2.09; 95% confidence interval, 1.05–4.15) and preterm birth (odds ratio, 2.29; 95% confidence interval, 1.05–4.96). After accounting for chronic hypertension, associations between adverse childhood experience score and obstetrical outcomes were no longer significant.

CONCLUSION: Approximately half of the pregnant persons referred to a mental healthcare manager had a high adverse childhood experience score, underscoring the high burden of childhood trauma on populations facing long-standing systemic racism and barriers to healthcare access. High and very high adverse childhood experience score may be associated with chronic health conditions that predate pregnancy and can alter obstetrical outcomes. Obstetrical care providers have a unique opportunity to mitigate risk of associated poor health outcomes during preconception and prenatal care by screening for adverse childhood experiences.

Key words: adverse childhood experiences, Black or African American, low-income, pregnancy, urban

Introduction

A dverse childhood experiences (ACEs) are defined as potentially traumatic events that occur before the age of 18 years.¹ The landmark study published by Felitti et al¹ included 10 childhood adversities that can be

2589-9333/\$36.00 © 2023 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ajogmf.2023.101008 classified into 3 categories: abuse, neglect, and household dysfunction. Decades of robust research have established that ACEs are associated with problematic physical and mental health outcomes in adulthood in a dose-dependent manner.^{1–5} Research about long-term impacts of ACEs has led to recognition that addressing ACEs as a part of health is an underutilized clinical framework, especially in vulnerable populations.

An emerging body of literature has also revealed a relationship between higher ACEs and poor obstetrical outcomes, including risk of pregnancy loss, preterm birth, and low birthweight. $^{5-8}$ To date, many of the studies examining the impact of ACEs on pregnancy outcomes have been conducted in majority self-identified White groups with high levels of education^{5,6,8} and income.⁶ Given the current public health crisis in maternal morbidity and mortality, with known disproportionate burden on pregnant persons of color and those with low socioeconomic status, understanding the impact of ACEs on maternal pregnancy outcomes specifically among marginalized populations is crucial.⁹

A recent study from Miller et al¹⁰ highlighted the correlation between self-identified Black race or Latinx

Cite this article as: Jasthi DL, Lappen JR, Garber S, et al. Associations between adverse childhood experiences and obstetrical outcomes in a predominantly Black-identi-fying and low-income pregnant population. Am J Obstet Gynecol MFM 2023;5:101008.

AJOG MFM at a Glance

Why was this study conducted?

This study aimed to assess the relationship between adverse childhood experiences (ACEs) and obstetrical outcomes specifically in a population with known sociodemographic risk factors for maternal morbidity.

Key findings

High and very high levels of ACEs are associated with hypertensive disorders of pregnancy and preterm birth. However, these relationships were no longer statistically significant after accounting for chronic hypertension, reaffirming the importance of addressing preexisting conditions for obstetrical outcomes and the critical need for preconception, prenatal, and postpartum care.

What does this add to what is known?

This study addresses a research gap by examining associations between ACEs and obstetrical outcomes among a population of predominantly Black-identifying and low-income pregnant persons; these demographics have been associated with the current crisis in maternal morbidity because of systemic racism and long-standing barriers to healthcare. This study highlights the importance of prepregnancy health conditions that may help explain associations between early life adversity and obstetrical outcomes. Prepregnancy screening for ACEs may identify a point of intervention to mitigate and address comorbidities such as chronic hypertension, and offer support resources, such as brief interventions by colocated mental health clinicians and linkage to community resources, to decrease chronic stress.

ethnicity and higher ACE score, and emphasized the importance of "equityfocused research" to help understand the impact of intergenerational trauma on obstetrical outcomes and create programs to mitigate risk. The objective of the present study was to assess the relationship between ACEs and obstetrical outcomes specifically in a sample of predominantly Black-identifying and lowincome pregnant persons with known sociodemographic risk factors for maternal morbidity. We hypothesized that higher ACEs among the study sample would be significantly related to poor maternal and neonatal outcomes independent of conventional obstetrical risk factors.

Materials and Methods

This single-center cohort study included pregnant persons referred to a mental healthcare manager (MHCM) because of elevated psychosocial risk between April 2018 and May 2021. Identification of high-risk patients was done either through the Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale, Generalized Anxiety Disorder-7 (GAD-7) screen, or individual provider concern. The clinic where our cohort was identified serves a wide catchment area and is located in a neighborhood that is considered urban and is central to the city's most impoverished and historically redlined neighborhoods. Redlined neighborhoods refer to color-coded maps created by the federal government to indicate where to insure mortgages and to whom, which resulted in widespread housing discrimination. Redlining is an example of structural racism given that predominantly Black neighborhoods were colored red to indicate increased risk to appraisers, which subsequently contributed to ongoing power and wealth disparities.¹¹

Referring providers were obstetricians, midwives, and/or reproductive psychiatrists. As part of the intake process, patients completed surveys to screen for stressors and mental health symptoms, including the original Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACE) Questionnaire. The ACE Questionnaire is a validated, 10-item questionnaire used to screen for certain childhood adversities.^{1,5} Each of the 10 adversities is indicated as present or absent before the age of 18 years. All participants were aged \geq 18 years, spoke English fluently, and retrospectively reported on their childhood adversity and current functioning at time of referral to the MHCM. Following referral, medical charts were reviewed for obstetrical outcomes by research assistants not involved in the patients' clinical care. All procedures were approved by the University Hospitals Cleveland Medical Center's Institutional Review Board.

Demographic characteristics, including maternal education, marital status, insurance status (used as a proxy for income), and self-identified race were collected via a self-report questionnaire during prenatal care. Educational attainment was categorized on the basis of whether the patient received a high school diploma. Data about pregnancy history and current pregnancy outcomes, including gravidity, parity, selfreported tobacco use in pregnancy, selfreported marijuana or other substance use, chronic hypertension (ie, hypertension diagnosed before pregnancy), hypertensive disorders of pregnancy as defined by the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists,¹² gestational diabetes mellitus, sexually transmitted infections (STIs), chorioamnionitis, maternal group B streptococcus carrier status, preterm birth (defined as <37 weeks' gestation), low birthweight (defined as <2500 g), type of delivery (vaginal or cesarean), and attendance of postpartum visit were obtained through chart review of medical records. Self-reporting of other substance use was very infrequent (<5 cases), and was therefore not included in analysis. The STI variable indicates if a participant had a chlamydia, gonorrhea, HIV, herpes simplex virus, and/or syphilis infection diagnosed during pregnancy.

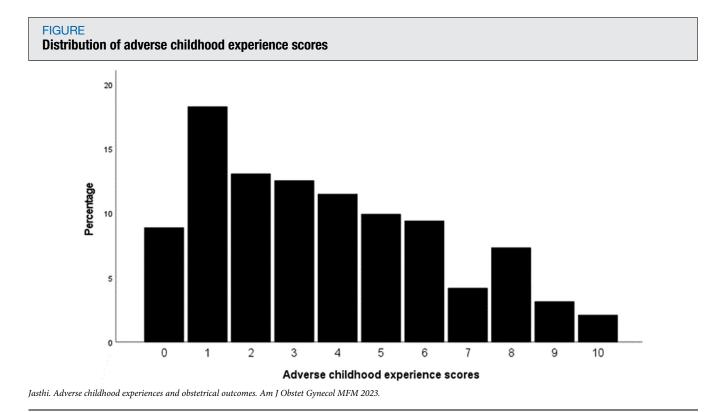
A total ACE score was calculated by summing the number of ACEs reported, with a possible range from 0 to 10. Total ACE scores were also evaluated as a categorical variable, with high ACE score defined by \geq 4 ACEs and very high ACE score defined by \geq 6 ACEs. Four and 6 were chosen as cutoff points given that previous research has shown that ACE levels above such scores are predictive of poor adult health outcomes.^{1,10,13,14}

A descriptive analysis was performed to assess the means, standard deviations, and frequencies of study variables. Pearson chi-square or Fisher exact test was used to assess bivariate associations between categorical study variables, and Pearson correlation was used similarly for continuous variables. Logistic regressions were performed for categorical outcomes that were significantly associated with categorical ACE score on bivariate analyses. Sociodemographic and pregnancy variables that were significantly associated with study outcomes in bivariate analyses (at significance level of P<.05) were included as predictors in multivariate logistic regression analysis. A 2-tailed P value of <.05 was considered significant. Given the use of a cohort defined by referrals in the study period, a power calculation was not performed. Statistical analyses were conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics, Version 26.0 (IBM Corp, Armonk, NY).

Results

A total of 203 individuals were referred to the MHCM and met eligibility criteria during the study period. Eleven were excluded from data analysis because of loss to follow-up, resulting in a sample of 192 for analysis. The mean ACE score for the cohort was 3.7 (standard deviation=2.7). The distribution of total ACE score is shown in the Figure; 47.4% of study participants reported an ACE score of \geq 4 and 26% reported an ACE score of ≥ 6 . Sociodemographic characteristics of the cohort are listed in Table 1. Generally, the sociodemographic variables were not associated with total ACE score; however, there were several significant associations between ACE score and clinical characteristics. Results from bivariate analyses between ACEs and sociodemographic characteristics, medical history, and pregnancy history variables are shown in Table 2. Specifically, participants with an ACE score \geq 4 and \geq 6 were significantly more likely to have chronic hypertension (X^2 =5.35; P=.02; and X^2 =5.61; P=.02; respectively) and selfreported tobacco use in pregnancy (X^2 =9.26; *P*=.00; and X^2 =5.71; *P*=.02; respectively). Total ACE score was positively associated with increased gravidity (*P*=.01) and increased number of spontaneous abortions (*P*=.03).

Table 3 presents bivariate associations between ACE score and current pregnancy outcomes. High and very high ACEs were significantly associated with preterm delivery (X^2 =4.13; P=.04; and X^2 =4.53; P=.03; respectively) but not low birthweight (X^2 =2.19; P=.14; and $X^2=2.23$; P=.14; respectively). An ACE score ≥ 6 was significantly associated with diagnosis of hypertensive disorder of pregnancy (X^2 =4.52; P=.03). Additional bivariate analysis was conducted to characterize the relationship between conventional obstetrical risk factors (age, education, prepregnancy chronic hypertension, self-reported tobacco use in pregnancy, self-reported marijuana use in pregnancy) and outcomes to allow for analysis of the impact of ACEs independent of other risk factors (Table 4). Chronic hypertension was significantly associated with



Demographic characteristics	Mean (SD) or n (%)
Age (y)	25.5 (4.7)
Self-identified race	
Black or African American	176 (91.7)
White	11 (5.7)
Not reported	5 (2.6)
Marital status	
Single	179 (93.7)
Married	12 (6.3)
Insurance type	
Public	181 (94.8)
Private	10 (5.2)
Education	
Less than high school diploma	42 (24.4)
High school diploma or greater	130 (75.6)
Chronic hypertension	21 (11.0)
Tobacco use in pregnancy	52 (27.1)
Marijuana use in pregnancy	26 (13.5)
Gravidity	3.2 (2.1)
Term births	2.0 (1.4)
Preterm births	0.3 (0.6)
Spontaneous abortions	0.5 (1.0)
Living children	2.3 (1.4)

hypertensive disorders of pregnancy (X^2 =6.56; *P*=.01) and preterm birth (X^2 =6.00; *P*=.03).

Results from logistic regression analyses between categorical ACE score and categorical pregnancy outcomes before and after adjusting for chronic hypertension are shown in Table 5. ACE scores ≥ 4 and ≥ 6 were associated with chronic hypertension (odds ratio [OR], 3.09; 95% confidence interval [CI], 1.15 -8.35; and OR, 2.96; 95% CI, 1.17 -7.45). ACE score ≥ 4 was associated with preterm birth (OR, 2.17; 95% CI, 1.02-4.61), and ACE score ≥ 6 was associated with preterm birth (OR, 2.29; 95% CI, 1.05-4.96) and hypertensive disorders of pregnancy (OR, 2.09; 95% CI, 1.05-4.15); however, after accounting for chronic hypertension, these associations were no longer significant (Table 5). In the adjusted models, chronic hypertension was still associated with preterm birth (ACE \geq 4: OR, 2.77; 95% CI, 1.03–7.47; ACE \geq 6: OR, 2.76; 95% CI, 1.02–7.48) and hypertensive disorders of pregnancy (ACE \geq 6: OR, 2.79; 95% CI, 1.08–7.16).

Discussion Principal findings

This study contributes to the current literature by examining associations between high and very high ACE scores and a broad range of obstetrical outcomes in a sample of pregnant persons known to be at high risk of adverse outcomes. Study findings are consistent with previously reported associations between higher ACEs and hypertensive disorders of pregnancy and preterm birth.^{6–8,10} When chronic hypertension was accounted for, there was no longer a significant association between ACE score and hypertensive disorders of pregnancy or preterm birth, highlighting how early adversity may contribute to prepregnancy health conditions and affect pregnancy outcomes. The study also demonstrated that participants with higher ACE score were more likely to have increased gravidity and number of spontaneous abortions.

Results in the context of what is known

Compared with previous studies evaluating the impact of ACEs on pregnancy, our sample had high proportions of Black patients (91.7%; self-identified) and patients on public insurance (94.8%), 2 factors that have well-documented significant associations with pregnancy-related morbidity and mortality.⁹ Our average ACE score and the numbers of pregnant persons with high and very high ACE scores (47.4% with ACE score \geq 4 and 26% with ACE score \geq 6) are notably higher compared with other studies with majority White pregnant populations.

Importantly, Miller et al¹⁰ recently reported similar associations between higher levels of ACEs and hypertensive disorders of pregnancy and preterm birth in a more racially diverse population than previously studied, which was mostly married (65%) and included only a small portion (19.9%) with public health insurance. Other studies have also reported consistent results in largely White and majority college-educated samples.^{5,6,8} Our study, however, uniquely focused on a sample drawn from a population with sociodemographic characteristics (ie, self-identified Black race) associated with the crisis in maternal morbidity and mortality, as well as numerous other health disparities.

Hypertensive disorders of pregnancy are among the leading causes of preventable maternal morbidity and mortality in the United States.¹⁵ The reported US prevalence of hypertensive disorders is approximately 3.0% to 3.8% for gestational hypertension and 3.0% to 3.4% for preeclampsia.¹⁶ In our

TABLE 2

Associations between demographics/baseline characteristics and adverse childhood experience score

Sample characteristic	ACE <4 n=101 n (%)	ACE ≥4 n=91 n (%)	<i>P</i> value	ACE <6 n=142 n (%)	ACE ≥6 <i>n</i> =50 n (%)	<i>P</i> value
Self-identified race	. ,		1.000			.482
Black or African American	92 (52.3)	84 (47.7)		131 (74.4)	45 (35.6)	
White	6 (54.5)	5 (45.5)		7 (63.6)	4 (36.4)	
Marital status			.770			.516
Single	93 (52.0)	86 (48.0)		133 (74.3)	46 (27.7)	
Married	7 (58.3)	5 (41.7)		8 (66.7)	4 (33.3)	
Insurance type			.750			.292
Public	94 (51.9)	87 (48.1)		135 (74.6)	46 (25.4)	
Private	6 (60.0)	4 (40.0)		6 (60.0)	4 (40.0)	
Education			.599			.305
Less than high school diploma	24 (57.1)	18 (42.9)		34 (81.0)	8 (19.0)	
High school diploma or greater	68 (52.3)	62 (47.7)		95 (73.1)	26.9 (35)	
Chronic hypertension	6 (28.6)	15 (71.4)	.021 ^a	11 (52.4)	10 (47.6)	.018 ^a
Tobacco use in pregnancy	18 (34.6)	34 (65.4)	.002 ^a	32 (61.5)	20 (38.5)	.017 ^a
Marijuana use in pregnancy	13 (50.0)	13 (50.0)	.775	16 (61.5)	10 (38.5)	.121
	Pearson corre	lation coefficient ^b			<i>P</i> value	
Age	0.130				.072	
Gravidity	0.196				.006 ^a	
Term births	0.054				.454	
Preterm births	0.140				.053	
Spontaneous abortions	0.157				.029 ^a	
Living children	0.089				.220	
Data are presented as number (percentage). Analys <i>ACE</i> , adverse childhood experience.	sis by chi-square, Fisher e	xact test, or Pearson corre	elation.			

^a Statistically significant; ^b Pearson correlation analysis was done using total ACE score.

Jasthi. Adverse childhood experiences and obstetrical outcomes. Am J Obstet Gynecol MFM 2023.

study, the overall rates of 28.9% for gestational hypertension and 15.8% for preeclampsia highlight the high burden of maternal morbidity in a population of predominantly low-income, Black pregnant persons. The association between greater ACEs and hypertensive disorders of pregnancy has also been reported by others, and Miller et al¹⁰ further reported that chronic hypertension mediated the association between ACEs and hypertensive disorders of pregnancy.^{10,17,18} These findings, as well as our own findings, highlight the importance of chronic medical conditions that predate pregnancy and are associated with early adversity and poor obstetrical outcomes.

Previous studies have also found associations between higher levels of ACEs and increased risk of single and recurrent pregnancy loss, consistent with our findings.^{19,20} In our study, the overall preterm birth rate was 18.4%, as opposed to a national average of 10.1%.²¹ These data may support the hypothesis of a physiological link between the biologic effects of chronic stress, including systemic racism, especially for Black-identifying pregnant persons in our study, and adverse health outcomes.²² As such, the findings

support the allostatic load framework in studying the consequences of ACEs and other social determinants of health.¹¹ Allostatic load is an integrative measure of multisystemic dysregulation in which chronic stress and activation of the stress response system result in inflammatory, neuroendocrine, and metabolic dysregulation. Understanding ACEs in the context of allostatic load accounts for the chronic pathophysiological changes from cumulative stress exposure that lead to disease states.^{23,24} There were, however, no significant associations between high or very high ACEs and low birthweight in the TABLE 3

	ACE <4 n=101	ACE ≥4 n=91		ACE <6 n=142	ACE ≥6 n=50	
Current pregnancy outcomes	n (%)	n (%)	P value	n (%)	n (%)	<i>P</i> value
Gestational diabetes mellitus	5 (5.1)	9 (10.3)	.172	9 (6.5)	5 (10.6)	.349
Hypertensive disorder of pregnancy ^a	26 (26.0)	29 (32.2)	.345	35 (24.8)	20 (40.8)	.033 ^b
STI during pregnancy	30 (29.7)	22 (24.4)	.415	42 (29.6)	10 (20.4)	.214
GBS infection	30 (30.3)	29 (33.3)	.658	45 (32.4)	14 (29.8)	.742
Chorioamnionitis	9 (9.0)	6 (6.8)	.582	10 (7.2)	5 (10.2)	.543
Preterm delivery ^c	13 (13.0)	22 (22.4)	.042 ^b	21 (14.9)	14 (28.6)	.033 ^b
Low birthweight ^d	10 (10.4)	16 (18.0)	.139	16 (11.8)	10 (20.4)	.136
Cesarean delivery	25 (24.8)	29 (32.6)	.232	35 (24.8)	19 (38.8)	.068
Attendance of postpartum visit	62 (64.6)	58 (64.4)	.984	90 (65.7)	30 (61.2)	.575

Data are presented as number (percentage) for those positive for each pregnancy outcome. Analysis by chi-square or Fisher exact test.

ACE, adverse childhood experience; GBS, group B Streptococcus; STI, sexually transmitted infection.

^a As defined by the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists; ^b Statistically significant; ^c Defined as <37 weeks' gestation; ^d Defined as <2500 g.

Jasthi. Adverse childhood experiences and obstetrical outcomes. Am J Obstet Gynecol MFM 2023.

current study, which is similar to the findings of Miller et al,¹⁰ but inconsistent with other studies.^{8,10,19}

Clinical implications

Given that pregnancy is a major physical and psychological transformation in which recurrent engagement with the healthcare system is encouraged, preconception and prenatal care present a unique opportunity to assess ACEs. Existing research has suggested, in fact, that the vast majority of pregnant women consider it important to discuss ACEs with their obstetrical providers.²⁵ With this information, providers can target interventions to mitigate poor health outcomes for mothers and infants, and work to prevent the intergenerational transmission of trauma. Obstetrical care providers can enhance screening for life stressors, provide patient education about links between childhood and ongoing trauma and current health, and make collaborative referrals to specialized mental and behavioral health services as needed. This opportunity is particularly salient in populations with long-standing social, economic, and structural barriers to healthcare access and health equity. The study also highlights an opportunity for obstetrical providers caring for high-risk populations to learn about trauma-informed care and implement antenatal screening for childhood trauma. Previous studies have suggested that specific training in traumainformed care for primary care physicians may increase patient-centeredness and discussion of ACEs as root causes of chronic illness.^{26,27} Furthermore, studies have shown that ACE screening as a standard part of prenatal care is feasible and acceptable to patients and clinicians provided adequate training and availability of behavioral health resources.^{28,29}

Strengths and limitations

This study addresses the call for research on social and structural determinants of health by focusing on associations between ACEs and obstetrical outcomes among pregnant persons with low income and predominantly identifying as Black in an urban community.

This study is limited by potential recall bias inherent in retrospective reporting of childhood experiences and the limited scope of potential important adversities represented on the original ACE Questionnaire. In addition, because our clinic does not perform

universal ACE screening and only pregnant persons referred to a MHCM were screened for ACEs, generalizability to the broader obstetrical population is limited. Patient ethnicity was unfortunately unknown. The size of our cohort may also limit the power to detect significant associations between ACEs and other adverse maternal and neonatal outcomes; likewise, although statistically significant, the lower limit values for some CIs in logistic regression results indicate the need to remain cautious in interpreting the findings.

Research implications

Larger cohort studies within populations who experience systemic racism and other chronic stressors are needed to assess for associations with adverse pregnancy outcomes or synergistic effects between sociodemographic characteristics and chronic medical conditions on obstetrical and neonatal outcomes. Further exploration of the relationship between mental health symptoms, ACEs, and poor obstetrical outcomes could provide utility in understanding the impact of medical and psychosocial factors in mediating the association between ACEs and pregnancy outcomes. Finally, elucidating the

TABLE 4

Associations between	n baseline characterist	ics and current pre	anancy outcomes
			g

Sample characteristic	Hypertensive disorder of pregnancy ^a OR (95% Cl)		Preterm birth ^b OR (95% CI)			
Age	1.0 (0.9-1.0)			1.0 (1.0-1.1)		
	Hypertensive disorder of pregnancy		Preterm birth			
	No n (%)	Yes n (%)	<i>P</i> value	No n (%)	Yes n (%)	<i>P</i> value
Self-identified race			.511			.110
Black or African American	121 (69.5)	53 (30.5)		145 (83.3)	29 (16.7)	
White	9 (81.8)	2 (18.2)		7 (63.6)	4 (36.4)	
Marital status			.732			1.000
Single	126 (70.8)	52 (29.2)		145 (81.5)	33 (18.5)	
Married	9 (81.8)	2 (18.2)		9 (81.8)	2 (18.2)	
Insurance type			.717			.673
Public	129 (71.7)	51 (28.3)		147 (81.7)	33 (18.3)	
Private	6 (66.7)	3 (33.3)		7 (77.8)	2 (22.2)	
Education			.929			.442
Less than high school diploma	29 (70.7)	12 (29.3)		35 (85.4)	6 (14.6)	
High school diploma or greater	91 (70.0)	39 (30.0)		104 (80.0)	26 (20.0)	
Chronic hypertension	10 (47.6)	11(52.4)	.010 ^c	13 (61.9)	8 (38.1)	.031 ^c
Tobacco use in pregnancy	38 (74.5)	13 (25.5)	.524	38 (74.5)	13 (25.5)	.128
Marijuana use in pregnancy	20 (76.9)	55 (23.1)	.477	18 (72.0)	7 (28.0)	.265
Analysis by bivariate logistic regression, chi-squa	re, or Fisher exact test.					

Cl, confidence interval; OR, odds ratio.

^a As defined by the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists; ^b Defined as <37 weeks' gestation; ^c Statistically significant.

Jasthi. Adverse childhood experiences and obstetrical outcomes. Am J Obstet Gynecol MFM 2023.

relationship between childhood experiences and adult health outcomes requires consideration of family strengths and protective factors, in addition to adversity and system inequities.³⁰ Future studies should include measures of protective factors, assets, and strengths to create a more well-

TABLE 5

Logistic regression analysis of high and very high adverse childhood experience score and current pregnancy outcomes

ACE score	Hypertensive diso	rder of pregnancy ^a	Preterm birth ^b		
	OR (95% Cl)	a0R (95% Cl)	OR (95% CI)	aOR (95% CI)	
$ACE \ge 4$	1.35 (0.72-2.54)	1.24 (0.65-2.38)	2.17 (1.02-4.61) ^c	1.90 (0.88-4.12)	
$ACE \ge 6$	2.09 (1.05-4.15) ^c	1.91 (0.94-3.87)	2.29 (1.05-4.96) ^c	1.99 (0.90-4.41)	

Multivariate logistic regression with adjustment for the following covariates (significant at P<.05 in bivariate analysis): chronic hypertension.

ACE, adverse childhood experiences; aOR, adjusted odds ratio with chronic hypertension in the model; Cl, confidence interval; OR, odds ratio.

 $^{\rm a}$ As defined by the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists; $^{\rm b}$ Defined as <37 weeks' gestation; $^{\rm c}$ Statistically significant.

Jasthi. Adverse childhood experiences and obstetrical outcomes. Am J Obstet Gynecol MFM 2023.

Conclusions

This study demonstrated that high and very high ACEs are associated with hypertensive disorders of pregnancy and preterm birth. Findings from adjusted models also highlight the importance of prepregnancy health conditions (in this case, chronic hypertension) that may result from early life adversity and lead to poor outcomes, above and beyond pregnancy-specific conditions, consistent with literature on early life stress and adult health outcomes.¹¹ Obstetrical care providers have an important opportunity to assess

rounded understanding of how child-

hood trauma may be associated with

obstetrical outcomes and how certain factors may mitigate the detrimental

effects of adversity on such outcomes.²⁷

ACEs and other social determinants of health to identify pregnant people at increased risk of adverse obstetrical outcomes and potentially target interventions to mitigate these risks. Given that ACEs and early adversity are considered a serious public health concern on the basis of decades of research, addressing ACEs in the context of healthcare with the possibility of *preventing* ACEs in the next generation is imperative as part of a broader public health approach.³¹

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors are grateful to Sarah Ronis, MD, MPH and Marie Masotya, MPH from the University Hospitals Rainbow Center for Child Health & Policy for evaluation and database management support, and to the Hearst Foundations for supporting this work.

References

1. Felitti VJ, Anda RF, Nordenberg D, 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. Am J Prev Med 1998;14:245–58.

2. Jasthi DL, Nagle-Yang S, Frank S, Masotya M, Huth-Bocks A. Associations between adverse childhood experiences and prenatal mental health and substance use among urban, low-income women. Community Ment Health J 2022;58:595–605.

3. London S, Quinn K, Scheidell JD, Frueh BC, Khan MR. Adverse experiences in childhood and sexually transmitted infection risk from adolescence into adulthood. Sex Transm Dis 2017;44:524–32.

4. Merrick MT, Ford DC, Ports KA, et al. Vital signs: estimated proportion of adult health problems attributable to adverse childhood experiences and implications for prevention -25 states, 2015-2017. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep 2019;68:999–1005.

Hillis SD, Anda RF, Dube SR, Felitti VJ, Marchbanks PA, Marks JS. The association between adverse childhood experiences and adolescent pregnancy, long-term psychosocial consequences, and fetal death. Pediatrics 2004;113:320–7.
Racine N, Plamondon A, Madigan S, McDonald S, Tough S. Maternal adverse childhood experiences and infant development. Pediatrics 2018;141:e20172495.

7. Ciciolla L, Shreffler KM, Tiemeyer S. Maternal childhood adversity as a risk for perinatal complications and NICU hospitalization. J Pediatr Psychol 2021;46:801–13.

8. Smith MV, Gotman N, Yonkers KA. Early childhood adversity and pregnancy outcomes. Matern Child Health J 2016;20:790–8.

9. Vilda D, Wallace M, Dyer L, Harville E, Theall K. Income inequality and racial disparities in pregnancy-related mortality in the US. SSM Popul Health 2019;9:100477.

10. Miller ES, Fleming O, Ekpe EE, Grobman WA, Heard-Garris N. Association between adverse childhood experiences and adverse pregnancy outcomes. Obstet Gynecol 2021;138:770–6.

11. Society for Maternal-Fetal Medicine (SMFM)Electronic address: pubs@smfm.org-Greenberg MB, Gandhi M, Davidson C, Carter EB. Publications Committee. Society for Maternal-Fetal Medicine Consult Series #62: Best practices in equitable care delivery-addressing systemic racism and other social determinants of health as causes of obstetrical disparities. SMFM Consult Series 2022;227:B44–59.

12. Gestational hypertension and preeclampsia: ACOG Practice Bulletin, Number 222. Obstet Gynecol 2020;135:e237–60.

13. Brown DW, Anda RF, Tiemeier H, et al. Adverse childhood experiences and the risk of premature mortality. Am J Prev Med 2009; 37:389–96.

 Ghosh Ippen C, Harris WW, Van Horn P, Lieberman AF. Traumatic and stressful events in early childhood: can treatment help those at highest risk? Child Abuse Negl 2011;35:504–13.
Gyamfi-Bannerman C, Pandita A, Miller EC,

et al. Preeclampsia outcomes at delivery and race. J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med 2020;33:3619–26.

16. Butwick AJ, Druzin ML, Shaw GM, Guo N. Evaluation of US state-level variation in hypertensive disorders of pregnancy. JAMA Netw Open 2020;3:e2018741.

17. Bublitz MH, Ward LG, Simoes M, Stroud LR, Salameh M, Bourjeily G. Maternal history of adverse childhood experiences and ambulatory blood pressure in pregnancy. Psychosom Med 2020;82:757–63.

18. Stanhope KK, Cammack AL, Perreira KM, et al. Adverse childhood experiences and lifetime adverse maternal outcomes (gestational diabetes and hypertensive disorders of pregnancy) in the Hispanic Community Health Study/Study of Latinos. Ann Epidemiol 2020;50:1–6.

19. Demakakos P, Linara-Demakakou E, Mishra GD. Adverse childhood experiences are associated with increased risk of miscarriage in a national population-based cohort study in England. Hum Reprod 2020;35:1451–60.

20. Mersky JP, Lee CP. Adverse childhood experiences and poor birth outcomes in a diverse, low-income sample. BMC Pregnancy Childbirth 2019;19:387.

21. March of Dimes. Peristats: a profile of prematurity in United States. Available at: https://www. marchofdimes.org/peristats/tools/prematurityprofile.aspx?reg=99. Accessed February 17, 2022.

22. Borders AE, Wolfe K, Qadir S, Kim KY, Holl J, Grobman W. Racial/ethnic differences in self-reported and biologic measures of chronic stress in pregnancy. J Perinatol 2015;35:580–4.

23. Liu SR, Kia-Keating M, Nylund-Gibson K, Barnett ML. Co-occurring youth profiles of

adverse childhood experiences and protective factors: associations with health, resilience, and racial disparities. Am J Community Psychol 2020;65:173–86.

24. Finlay S, Roth C, Zimsen T, Bridson TL, Sarnyai Z, McDermott B. Adverse childhood experiences and allostatic load: a systematic review. Neurosci Biobehav Rev 2022; 136:104605.

25. Watson C, Wei J, Varnado N, et al. Pregnant women's perspectives on screening for adverse childhood experiences and resilience during prenatal care. Psychol Trauma 2022; 14:1299–303.

26. Helitzer DL, Lanoue M, Wilson B, de Hernandez BU, Warner T, Roter D. A randomized controlled trial of communication training with primary care providers to improve patient-centeredness and health risk communication. Patient Educ Couns 2011; 82:21–9.

27. Green BL, Saunders PA, Power E, et al. Trauma-informed medical care: CME communication training for primary care providers. Fam Med 2015;47:7–14.

28. Flanagan T, Alabaster A, McCaw B, Stoller N, Watson C, Young-Wolff KC. Feasibility and acceptability of screening for adverse childhood experiences in prenatal care. J Womens Health (Larchmt) 2018;27:903–11.

29. Watson C, Kathryn RK, Nancy G, Kelly YC. Promising practices for implementing adverse childhood experiences and resilience screening in obstetric care. J Womens Health (Larchmt) 2022;31:1377–9.

30. Katz DA, Sprang G, Cooke C. The cost of chronic stress in childhood: understanding and applying the concept of allostatic load. Psychodyn Psychiatry 2012; 40:469–80.

31. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Adverse childhood experiences prevention strategy. Atlanta, GA: National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention; 2021.

Author and article information

From the Case Western Reserve University School of Medicine, Cleveland, OH (Ms Jasthi and Drs Frank and Huth-Bocks); Ob/Gyn and Women's Health Institute, Cleveland Clinic, Cleveland, OH (Dr Lappen); Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, University Hospitals, Cleveland, OH (Drs Garber, Kennedy, and McCarther); Department of Psychiatry, University of Colorado Anschutz Medical Campus, Denver, CO (Dr Nagle-Yang); Merrill Palmer Skillman Institute, Wayne State University, Detroit, MI (Ms Moore and Dr Huth-Bocks).

Received Feb. 20, 2023; revised Apr. 29, 2023; accepted May 2, 2023.

The authors report no conflict of interest.

This work was supported by the Hearst Foundations Research Fellowship (to D.L.J.).

Corresponding author: Alissa Huth-Bocks, PhD. Alissa.huth-bocks@wayne.edu