

Infant Mental Health Neurobiology of Attachment Self-Study

Contributors:

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The theory of human attachment, introduced by John Bowlby around sixty years ago, has significantly influenced developmental psychology by providing a framework for understanding how individuals form and maintain social bonds (Bretherton, 1994). Bowlby's attachment theory has generated an extensive body of research and conceptual elaborations, making a notable impact on the field of developmental psychopathology (Ein-Dor et al., 2010). This theory has also been applied to various domains, such as understanding the impact of attachment on the parent-child dyad in pediatric care (Kaiser et al., 2018), implications for counseling adolescents (Genuis, 1994), and even exploring humanity's shifting attachment to the natural world (Jenkins, 2023).

Research has shown that attachment experiences have a significant impact on an individual's emotional and behavioral processes. The release of oxytocin, a hormone associated with social bonding, has been noted to play a role in the formation of attachments (Johnson & Young, 2015). Additionally, studies have shown that early experiences of attachment can alter the way that the brain processes emotions and social cues in adulthood (Schore & Schore, 2007). Attachment security in infancy has been linked to prospective links to brain morphometry in late childhood, indicating the long-term impact of attachment experiences on brain development (Leblanc et al., 2017). Furthermore, attachment representation has been found to moderate the influence of emotional context on information processing, suggesting a neurophysiological impact of attachment history on emotional processing (Leyh et al., 2016). Moreover, the neural basis underlying the trait of attachment anxiety and avoidance has been revealed by the amplitude of low-frequency fluctuations and resting-state functional connectivity, shedding light on the neurobiological mechanisms underlying different attachment styles (Deng et al., 2021).

The parent-infant relationship plays a crucial role in setting the neurobiological tone for the infant brain, influencing stress handling and attachment development. Self-regulation, which is essential for both the caregiver and child, is vital for forming secure attachments. Stress can impede self-regulation and be transmitted from caregiver to child, thereby affecting attachment formation. Therefore, promoting self-regulation and minimizing stress transmission is essential for attachment development (Insel & Young, 2001; Perry et al., 2017; Landers & Sullivan, 2012; Mueller & Tronick, 2019; Orehek et al., 2017; Alexander et al., 2022; Heylen et al., 2016; Fumagalli et al., 2018).

The prenatal period is critical for the parent-infant relationship, with maternal factors impacting the developing fetus through various mechanisms such as the maternal Hypothalamic-Pituitary-Adrenal (HPA) axis, placental epigenetics, mitochondrial dysfunction, immune system activation, and the maternal microbiome (Sheng et al., 2021; Barrett & Swan, 2015; Sanchez-Aranguren & Nadeem, 2021; Abu-Raya et al., 2016; Leis et al., 2019; Fouda et al., 2018;Rosario et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2014; Hohwü et al., 2015; Dauby & Flamand, 2022; Jahan et al., 2023). Maternal stress and environmental factors during pregnancy have been associated with alterations in fetal growth, oxidative stress, and mitochondrial dysfunction, which can impact the development of the fetal brain and stress response systems (Sheng et al., 2021; Sanchez-Aranguren & Nadeem, 2021; Abu-Raya et al., 2016; Leis et al., 2016; Leis et al., 2019; Fouda et al., 2018; Riddell et al., 2007; Rosario et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2014; Long et al., 2023;; Dauby &

Flamand, 2022; Veazey et al., 2017; Jahan et al., 2023). These alterations can have long-term implications for the offspring's neurodevelopment and stress response, highlighting the significance of the prenatal environment in shaping the parent-infant relationship and the infant's future well-being.

A growing body of evidence suggests that trauma can be passed down across generations through genetic mechanisms. Women who experienced the Tutsi genocide while pregnant had children with alterations in their stress response systems and changes in their genomic makeup (Perroud et al., 2014). Additionally, there is evidence that trauma experienced by fathers can also be passed down to their children, likely through changes in the chromatin of their sperm (Yehuda et al., 2014). Animal studies have also provided support for these findings, showing that trauma experienced by male rodents can be passed down to their offspring through epigenetic changes in sperm. These findings indicate that there are biological processes in place that can transmit trauma across multiple generations (Dias and Ressler, 2014).

The connection between maternal stress and negative infant outcomes has been acknowledged for some time. We are learning that maternal stress can lead to changes in fetal brain development which can have an impact on the child's stress response system throughout their life. Studies have shown that stress experienced during pregnancy can lead to long-term alterations in the HPA axis of infants, which can be observed at various stages of development including 6 months, 5 years, and even 10 years after birth. (Lupien et al., 2009; Buss et al., 2010; O Donell et al., 2014).

Perinatal stress has been found to have a significant impact on the HPA axis and its ability to respond to stress in the child's environment. This can be attributed to the modification of the genetic material (chromatin) surrounding genes involved in the stress response, a process known as an epigenetic modification (Bhattaria, 2021). This can lead to the transmission of altered stress responses across generations. Additionally, prenatal maternal stress has been linked to changes in specific brain regions that play a crucial role in emotional regulation, such as the hippocampus's size and the amygdala's reactivity (Qiu et al., 2015; Rifkin-Graboi et al., 2015). The effects of significant prenatal stress may even extend to the child's cognitive functioning later on in life (Davis and Sandman, 2010). This can be explained by the exposure to stress hormones (glucocorticoids); studies have shown that in the absence of external stress, administration of glucocorticoids is associated with smaller hippocampal size in both infants and monkeys (Lupien et al., 2009).

It can be challenging to differentiate the various forms of distress that can occur during the perinatal period, such as health anxiety, medical issues, psychosocial stress, anxiety disorders, pregnancy-related anxiety, depressive disorders, and PTSD. However, specific maternal mental health conditions, such as anxiety and depressive disorders, have been linked to many of the same negative outcomes in infant neurodevelopment caused by chronic stress during pregnancy (Wu et al., 2022). These outcomes can include changes in the HPA stress axis, decreased size of the hippocampus, and increased reactivity of the amygdala. These findings suggest that these specific mental health conditions can have a profound impact on the developing fetus and should be given proper attention and support during the perinatal period. (Qiu et al., 2015; Rifkin-Graboi et al., 2013, 2015). These changes in stress response can manifest in a variety of ways, including changes in the HPA stress axis, decreased hippocampal size, and increased amygdala reactivity (Qiu et al., 2015; Rifkin-Graboi et al., 2013, 2015). These findings underscore the importance of identifying and treating mental health conditions in expectant mothers in order to promote optimal development for their children.

Interestingly, recent research has suggested that selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) may have the ability to reverse the effects of prenatal stress exposure on the brain (Borue 2007). Studies using rodent models have shown that SSRIs can reverse the decrease in hippocampal volume that is typically seen in animals exposed to prenatal

stress (Rayen et al., 2011). This is an exciting area of research, as it suggests that interventions such as SSRI treatment may be able to mitigate some of the negative effects of prenatal stress exposure on the developing brain.

Role of Oxytocin and Dopamine

The parent-infant relationship is a complex interplay of nature and nurture that begins at birth and continues to evolve throughout the early years of life. The bond between a parent and an infant is thought to be mediated by two key neurobiological pathways: the dopaminergic "reward" pathway and the oxytocinergic system. The dopaminergic pathway is involved in the regulation of reward and motivation and is activated by positive social interactions, such as those that occur between a parent and an infant. Research has shown that the release of dopamine in response to a positive social interaction is positively correlated with the strength of the parent-infant bond (Strathearn et al., 2009)

In addition to the dopaminergic pathway, the oxytocinergic system also plays a crucial role in the parent-infant bond. Oxytocin is a hormone produced in the hypothalamus that is involved in a wide range of physiological processes, including labor and lactation. Oxytocin is linked to prosocial effects, such as improved social memory, improved eye gaze when looking at faces, improved recognition of faces and facial expressions, and increased trust manifestations (Baumgartner et al., 2008; Domes et al., 2007; Guastella et al., 2008a, 2008b; Kosfeld et al., 2005; Savaskan et al., 2008). This suggests that oxytocin plays a key role in the positive social interactions between parents and infants, and in the development of the parent-infant bond. Both mother-infant and father-infant pairs exhibit these effects (Kim et al., 2014; Scatliffe et al., 2019; Vittner et al., 2018). Additionally, oxytocin is thought to be important in the emergence and maintenance of the behaviors that form the foundation of the parent-infant bond. Studies have shown that oxytocin is released in response to stimuli such as infant suckling or the sight or sound of an infant, and is thought to mediate a wide range of behaviors related to the parent-infant bond, such as physical contact, synchrony, and responsiveness (McNeilly et al., 1983; Kim et al., 2014).

Role of Physical Contact

Physical contact plays a crucial role in infant neurodevelopment, influencing various aspects of attachment and cognitive development. Research has shown that physical contact, such as skin-to-skin care and holding, positively impacts neurodevelopmental outcomes in premature infants (Vanderveen et al., 2009). Additionally, studies have demonstrated that physical contact, including maternal nurturing behavior, such as licking and grooming, can lead to genetic changes and modifications in the stress response receptors, influencing long-term neurodevelopmental outcomes .

This concept was demonstrated in animal models by Meaney and Szyf (2005) as well. On the other hand, decreased licking and grooming in infancy resulted in higher stress levels in adult rodents (Meaney and Szyf, 2005; Weaver et al., 2004). Notably, we found that licking caused genetic changes in one of the stress response receptors that the animal had adopted for the rest of its life (Francis et al., 1999; Weaver et al., 2004). Similar epigenetic DNA changes have been discovered in humans. The discovery that the DNA structure in rodents that encodes stress response molecules is similar to the DNA structure in humans who have a history of child abuse and later commit suicide (McGowan et al., 2009) has important implications for understanding the long-term effects of early life stress on mental health. This may help to explain why individuals who have experienced child abuse are at a higher risk for mental health conditions such as depression and suicide.

It is important to note that this research is still in the early stages and more studies are needed to fully understand the mechanisms behind these findings. However, it does highlight the need for early intervention and support for individuals who have experienced childhood trauma to mitigate the negative effects on mental health in adulthood. Physical contact between a mother and her child has significant clinical benefits. One such form of physical contact is Skin-to-skin contact (SSC) which has been shown to have clear benefits for both mother and newborn after birth,

such as assisting the newborn's transition to extrauterine life, increasing breastfeeding rates, and promoting early parent-infant bonding (United Nations Children's Fund and World Health Organization 2009). Because of these advantages, SSC is now required as part of the World Health Organization's (WHO) Baby-Friendly Hospital Initiative (United Nations Children's Fund and World Health Organization 2009). SSC has been recommended as the standard of high-quality care for all newborn infants, regardless of gestational age, geographical location, or socioeconomic environment, due to its efficacy, cost-effectiveness, and feasibility. Studies have shown that SSC can lead to improved physiological stability, enhanced mother-infant bonding, and increased breastfeeding success, among other benefits.

The following infant benefits of skin-to-skin contact have been demonstrated:

- Improved Thermoregulation
- Decreased crying
- Increased breastfeeding initiation
- Heart rate variability regulation
- Decreased pain and distress
- Improved breathing patterns and oxygen saturation levels
- Improved sleep
- Improved digestion and weight gain
- Improved survival and shorter neonatal intensive care unit admission for premature infants

(Cleveland et al., 2017; Hendricks-Munoz et al., 2015; Mitchell et al., 2013; Moore et al., 2016; Rojas et al., 2003; Samra et al., 2013; Widström et al., 2019)

Given this information, it is clear that nurturing and skin-to-skin contact play a crucial role in the neurodevelopment of infants. The research discussed above highlights the importance of physical contact in promoting healthy stress regulation and emotional response in both animal and human models. The absence of physical contact, on the other hand, has been linked to long-term changes in stress tone and neurobiology, which can negatively impact cognitive and emotional development. (Feldman & Eidleman, 2003; Welch et al., 2015) Studies have shown that a lack of physical contact during infancy can lead to deficits in global brain function, attention, IQ, verbal and executive functioning, working memory, and learning. (Nelson et al., 2007) These changes can be attributed to the fact that physical contact plays a critical role in the development of the nervous system. Early physical contact helps to regulate the stress response and promotes the formation of neural connections that support cognitive, emotional, and social development. Therefore, parents and caregivers need to ensure that infants receive adequate nurturing and physical contact to promote optimal neurodevelopment. Additionally, healthcare providers should prioritize promoting the use of skin-to-skin contact as a standard of care for newborn infants in order to support the emotional and cognitive development of the child.

The role of physical contact in infant neurodevelopment is crucial, as research has shown that infants who lack physical contact, such as those who are institutionalized or raised in orphanages, have a higher risk of developing cognitive and behavioral problems. These children are more likely to have lower IQ scores and experience difficulties with attention, working memory, and learning (Aita et al., 2021). Furthermore, the absence of physical contact during infancy has been linked to long-term changes in stress tone and neurobiology, which can negatively

impact cognitive and emotional development (Flacking et al., 2012). Studies have also demonstrated that childhood neglect and lack of physical contact can lead to an increased risk of mental health problems such as depression and anxiety in adulthood (Yoshida & Funato, 2021). However, it is important to note that these changes are not irreversible, as nurturing and skin-to-skin contact can help mitigate the negative effects of lack of physical contact during infancy. Providing physical contact to infants who have been deprived of it can help improve their cognitive, emotional, and social development, highlighting the importance of providing infants with a nurturing environment that includes physical contact, such as skin-to-skin contact, to support their healthy development (Koo et al., 2014; Oguz et al., 2018; Velandia et al., 2010; Maastrup et al., 2017; Li et al., 2023; Little et al., 2018; Gribble et al., 2020; Marlette et al., 2022; He et al., 2021; Kobus et al., 2022; Levinsen et al., 2020; Jiang et al., 2020; Ball et al., 2006; Wehby & Trujillo, 2017; Svensson et al., 2020; Jiang et al., 2020; Skinner & Narchi, 2021; Potgieter & Adams, 2019; Chiu et al., 2005; He et al., 2020; Aita et al., 2020).

The clinical implications of this issue were recently highlighted during the COVID-19 pandemic. Initially, there were talks of separating mothers with suspected or proven COVID-19 infection from their newborns to reduce the risk of transmission (Stuebe, 2020). However, the World Health Organization recommended against separation, stating that infants with suspected or confirmed COVID-19 mothers should be "enabled to stay together, practicing skin-to-skin contact." This highlights the tension between the desire to reduce the risk of transmission and the known clinical benefits of physical contact. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention also initially advised facilities to "consider separating the mother from her infant" until the mother was deemed no longer contagious. This further highlights the importance of balancing the risk of infection with the known benefits of physical contact, particularly during infancy when the brain is still developing.

The critical period of pregnancy and postpartum is crucial for the development of both the infant and the parents. It's a time of increased risk for mental illness but also a time for the developing fetus and infant to develop stress response, emotional regulation, and a sense of security in relationships. By addressing the parent-infant relationship, attachment and health, medical and mental health providers can have a positive impact on families and future generations. Physical contact and parental nurturing behaviors can lead to epigenetic changes that can override heritable traits. Mental health conditions may interfere with nurturing behaviors, but early detection and intervention can lead to better self-regulation in the infant and improve psychoemotional well-being as they grow and develop. Mental health clinicians can help by observing and understanding parent-infant interactions and exploring parent perceptions of the infant and themselves as parents, particularly in the setting of pregnancy and postpartum mood or anxiety disorders

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