

# **The Effect of Adverse Childhood Experiences on Depression Symptoms among Older Adults in China**

by

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## **AUTHOR'S DECLARATION**

I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

I understand that my thesis may be made electronically available to the public.

# ABSTRACT

## Background

Depression is not a normal part of aging. However, it is a serious, growing problem for the elderly population of China, where the world's largest cohort of people aged 60 and over is growing rapidly. Research recognizes that adverse childhood experiences (ACEs), such as being abused or neglected, are important risk factors for depression and other psychological disorders in later life. Relationships between ACEs and risk factors contributing to depression symptoms in older populations, such as socioeconomic situation, health status, and environmental characteristics have also been established in the literature. In the 20<sup>th</sup> century, China experienced an eight-year war of resistance against Japan, a three-year civil war, political and cultural revolutions, rapid economic development, and rural-urban transitions. These events may have had a long-term impact on the psychological and physical health of the Chinese population, especially for children who were exposed to these events. However, little research has examined the association between ACEs and depression symptoms in today's older Chinese population, who were children at the time of these transformative events in China's history.

## Objectives

This dissertation examined the association between several ACEs and depression symptoms among older adults in China, after controlling for covariates at individual and community levels. Examples of these ACEs include death of parents, death of siblings,

physical abuse, being bullied, feeling alone, poor relationships with parents/friends/neighbours, and disadvantaged neighbourhood.

## **Methods**

This dissertation was based on secondary data analysis of the China Health and Retirement Longitudinal Study (CHARLS) wave 1, wave 2, and life history surveys. A score of 10 on the 10-item Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (CES-D-10) was used as the cutoff for identifying the presence of meaningful depression symptoms. The associations between ACEs and depression symptoms were assessed using two-level, random-intercept simple and multiple logistic regression models, adjusting for individual- and community-level covariates. More specifically, the covariates were selected using theoretical justifications from the literature and the least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO) approach. The theoretical framework of this dissertation was based on the social determinants of health framework, life-course approach, and the social-ecological framework.

## **Results**

This thesis analysis included 1,218 older adults living in 360 communities after listwise deletion of missing values. The mean age of the respondents was 68.2 years, the majority of whom had low education levels, were female, married, living with their spouses, and living in rural areas. 33.4% reported CES-D-10 scores of 10 or higher, with a median of 7 and interquartile range (IQR) of 7 (maximum possible score = 30). Among ACEs, high rates of parental deaths, physical abuse, hunger, and rural residence before the age of 18 were reported among Chinese older adults. Overall, most of the respondents reported good or better childhood health and no health limitations before age 18.

The findings suggest some ACEs are associated with a higher prevalence of depression symptoms in older adults in China. The adjusted odds of depression symptoms were higher for older adults who experienced the following ACEs: bullying (OR= 1.45, 95% CI= [1.01, 2.10]), loneliness (OR= 1.58, 95% CI= [1.08, 2.30]), had a poor relationship with their mother (OR= 1.98, 95% CI= [1.09, 3.58]), and had poor health status (OR= 1.54, 95% CI= [1.07, 2.65]).

## **Conclusion**

Results from this dissertation show that some childhood adversities can impact depression symptoms in older adults.

**Keywords:** depression symptoms, adverse childhood experiences, community characteristics, risk factors, China, CHARLS

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# **DEDICATION**

Time flies but sweet memories never die.

I dedicate my PhD dissertation to my mother, Huiling Dai, I cannot find enough words to express my gratitude for everything she did for me.



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# LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACE - Adverse childhood experience

CHARLS - China Health and Retirement Longitudinal Study

CES-D - Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale

TICS - Telephone Interview of Cognitive Status

HRQoL - Health-related quality of life

DALYs - Disability-adjusted life years

WHO - World Health Organization

SES - Socio-economic status

HPA - Hypothalamic pituitary axis

CRF - Corticotrophin-releasing factor

DSM-5 - 5<sup>th</sup> edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders

ADLs - Activities of daily living

IADLs - Instrumental activities of daily living

SDOH - Social determinants of health

SEM - Social ecological model

EFA - Exploratory factor analysis

PLFA - Penalized likelihood factor analysis

KMO - Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin

RMSR - the Root mean square values

RMSEA - Root mean square error of approximation

CFI - Comparative fit index



MCA - Multiple correspondence analysis

LASSO - Least absolute shrinkage and selection operator

VIF - Variance inflation factor

AIC - Akaike's information criterion

BIC - Schwarz's Bayesian criterion

ICC - Intraclass correlation coefficient

HL - Hosmer-Lemeshow test

CI - Confidence interval

OR - Odds ratio

SD - Standard deviation

IQ - Intelligence quotient

IQR - Interquartile range

MAR - Missing at random

MCAR - Missing completely at random

NMAR - Missing not at random

# CHAPTER 1

## OVERVIEW AND INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Overview

This thesis examined the impact of adverse childhood experiences (ACEs) on current depression symptoms in Chinese older adults (i.e.,  $\geq 60$  years). The data used in this study came from the China Health and Retirement Longitudinal Study (CHARLS), a nationally representative sample of non-institutionalized individuals aged 45 years or older<sup>(1)</sup>. Clinically relevant symptoms of depression were measured by the 10-item version of the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (CES-D-10)<sup>(2)</sup>. ACEs included childhood traumatic life events (e.g., parental death, insufficient food, and health limitations), maltreatment (e.g. physical abuse, being bullied, and loneliness), and disadvantaged living conditions (e.g., rural residence and unsafe neighbourhood).

### 1.2 Introduction

The elderly are the fastest-growing segment of the global population. Population aging has been a public health issue throughout the world; it is particularly prominent in China for two reasons: 1) the one-child family planning policy, established in 1979, caused a dramatic decrease in birth rates and changes to traditional old-age caregiving scenarios; and 2) greater life expectancy due to improved living standards and healthcare services<sup>(3, 4)</sup>.

China is an ‘aging society’. In 2000, 88.11 million people were aged 65 years or over in China, making up 7% of the national population <sup>(5,6)</sup>. According to China Statistics, people aged 60 years or older made up 16% of the national population in the year 2015 <sup>(7)</sup>, and the rate is expected to reach 30% by 2050 <sup>(6)</sup>.

The aging population brings a series of social and economic challenges, such as increased healthcare expenditures, lower fertility, and shortages of skilled labour. Improving quality of life, maintaining healthy and active lifestyles, and prolonging the life of older adults are important public health tasks in China.

A considerable amount of empirical research has been carried out in China to study the effects of an aging population on society and economics in recent years <sup>(8,9)</sup>. Socioeconomic reforms, implemented in 1978, which included promoting market mechanisms and adopting policies to foster foreign trade and investment, have led to substantial improvements in health status and life expectancy for Chinese elders <sup>(10)</sup>. On the other hand, an increasing number of seniors in rural China live alone due to rapid urbanization and out-migration of their children <sup>(8, 11)</sup>. The geographic distribution of the Chinese aging population renders more challenges in economically disadvantaged rural areas. The psychological and physical health of the elderly population is becoming a public health issue because the senior population is increasing and therefore more people in society will be affected by medical comorbidities.

Symptoms of depression are one of the most substantial medical comorbidities among older adults because of the impact on seniors’ physical and psychological health. Depression symptoms can ultimately lead to physical decline, impairment of quality of life, and increases in chronic diseases and related health costs. Depression in late life persists in part because of inadequate identification and treatment. Almost 20% of the elderly suffer from depression

symptoms, and numerous studies have been conducted to understand factors related to depression symptoms in older age <sup>(12, 13)</sup>.

Whereas an individual's childhood experiences can strongly influence their adult health and wellbeing, ACEs such as poverty, abuse, neglect, and dysfunctional living environments can have a cumulative impact on later-life mental and physical illness <sup>(14, 15)</sup>. Epidemiologists are exploring the effects of exposure to adverse experiences earlier in the life course, including in childhood, on the vulnerability to depression symptoms later in life in Western countries <sup>(16,17)</sup>. However, very few studies have examined the long-term impacts of ACEs on health and wellbeing in China. Moreover, almost no studies have investigated the associations between multiple ACEs and depression symptoms in older populations in China. Given China's unique history in much of the 20<sup>th</sup> Century, results from studies conducted in the West may not be applicable to China. This thesis investigated the associations between a range of ACEs (see Section 4.4.2.1) and depression symptoms in older-aged persons in China, after adjusting for several individual- and community-level covariates (see Section 4.4.2.2).

### **1.3 Organization of the Thesis**

The thesis is organized into six chapters. This chapter briefly introduces the thesis. Chapter 2 provides a background review of previous literature about clinically relevant symptoms of depression ('depression symptoms' in the dissertation), ACEs and other related risk factors, and social determinants of health, as well life-course theories of depression. Chapter 2 also summarizes the knowledge gaps of the previous research. Chapter 3 addresses the rationale, study objectives, and hypotheses of the thesis. Chapter 4 focuses on research methodology, introduces the CHARLS dataset, describes the variables of interest, and presents all methods of analysis used in this thesis. Chapter 5 presents the results, ranging from preliminary analyses

such as descriptive analysis and feature selection analysis, as well as two-level simple and multiple logistic regression analyses. Finally, in Chapter 6, findings of the thesis are summarized and discussed. Along with the summary, Chapter 6 discusses the strengths and limitations of the thesis and suggests implications for future research, policy, and clinical practice. Conclusions are made about the contributions of the research to the current literature on ACEs and depression symptoms in older adults.

# **CHAPTER 2**

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 Overview**

This chapter describes the evidence linking ACEs with depression symptoms in older adults. Theoretical models explaining this relationship are also described in the chapter. Finally, the chapter concludes by identifying knowledge gaps in the current literature.

### **2.2 Depression Symptoms in Older Adults**

#### **2.2.1 Overview of Older Populations and Depression Symptoms**

The population of elderly people is increasing in countries throughout the world. Globally, the number of people aged 60 years or older has doubled since 1980, and the number of individuals aged 80 years or older is expected to quadruple to 395 million by the year 2050 <sup>(9)</sup>. The increasing senior population is attributable to the aging cohort of baby boomers, who recently started to reach the age of 65 years.

China holds the largest elderly population in the world and is one of the most rapidly aging societies, which poses significant challenges for population health. Because of low fertility and increasing longevity, the proportion of elderly adults in the Chinese population has been increasing over the past two decades. Moreover, those aged 45 or over form a rapidly growing cohort that will soon contribute to the aging demographic in China. The proportion of older individuals in China is projected to accelerate in the next 40 years, with the oldest-old (i.e.,  $\geq 80$  years) segment of the population growing the fastest, from 1.4% in 2010 to 7.6% by 2050 <sup>(6)</sup>.

China's aging population faces tremendous challenges such as an imperfect social security system, increasing 'empty nest' elderly families (no children in the home), incomplete pension coverage, and poor health care and social support. According to previous research about the health-related quality of life (HRQoL) of elderly people in China, keeping physically and psychologically healthy is an important determinant of achieving successful aging<sup>(18, 19)</sup>. However, the many social and economic changes currently underway in China have produced a misalignment between cultural traditions and modern practices. Caught between traditionalism and modernism, many elderly people have found their cultural values and beliefs to be at odds with new social dynamics. Several studies describe such stark disparities as one major role loss for Chinese older adults, who react with feelings of loneliness, panic, and depression, all of which have deleterious effects on older adults' HRQoL, including decreased life satisfaction and increased health service utilization<sup>(8, 19, 20)</sup>.

Research interest in elderly depression has gained increased momentum in recent years because depression is a major public health issue. Depression represents one of the most frequently reported psychiatric conditions among older populations. When depressed, elderly individuals appear to be at particularly high vulnerability for cognitive impairment in domains including visuospatial and language ability, episodic memory, and executive function<sup>(21)</sup>. Moreover, depression in the elderly damages health, decreases social and physical activities, and generates unsociability and self-grief, and is an important contributor to suicide<sup>(13, 19, 22, 23)</sup>. From a life-course perspective, past literature has shown that depression in older age is related to negative earlier life experiences<sup>(15, 17)</sup>. Moreover, older adults with significant medical comorbidities (e.g., cancer, hypertension, and cerebrovascular accidents), life stress, and decreased HRQoL are at greater risk for depression<sup>(24)</sup>.

## 2.2.2 Diagnosis of Depression and Depression Symptoms

A complex set of biological processes has been implicated in the etiology and course of depression, including interrelated mechanisms of genetic vulnerabilities, brain structure and function, neurotransmitter and neuroendocrine processes, and immune system processes <sup>(22)</sup>. The physical and psychological vulnerabilities and life changes that come with aging are considered to be the leading causes of depression symptoms in the aging population <sup>(25)</sup>. Nevertheless, the mechanisms and specific pathways linking cognitive impairment to late-life depression have not been fully understood <sup>(26, 27)</sup>.

Currently, most clinical diagnoses of depression in elderly individuals are based on the 5<sup>th</sup> edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-5) <sup>(28)</sup>. Depression disorder is an illness characterized by persistent sadness, a loss of interest or pleasure, and feelings of guilt or low self-worth, often accompanied by anxiety and an inability to carry out daily activities for at least two weeks <sup>(28, 29)</sup>. Additionally, based on the DSM-5, at least four supplementary symptoms from a set of criteria have to be met for someone to be classified as depressed. These symptoms include changes in appetite or weight, difficulty thinking, difficulty concentrating, decreased energy, sleepiness, feelings of worthlessness or guilt, trouble making decisions, regular thoughts of death, and plans or ideas of suicide <sup>(28)</sup>. Depression disorders are classified according to the duration of the symptoms, timing, and presumed etiology based on DSM-5 <sup>(28)</sup>.

The clinical psychiatric interview is paramount to diagnosing depression. Furthermore, physical laboratory and examination, functional status assessment, social and family history, and past psychiatric history are considered to help evaluate depression <sup>(30)</sup>. Because depression disorders are highly comorbid in common medical conditions, a thorough review of current and



past medical issues, plus medication and oral supplement use history, is needed in the evaluation process of depression <sup>(30)</sup>.

A number of research papers have shown that depression is a common mental health problem among older adults, but is often overlooked, misdiagnosed, and inadequately treated <sup>(31-33)</sup>. Unlike young persons with depression, older adults with depression usually have medical comorbidities such as cognitive impairment, pain, diabetes mellitus, cardiovascular and cerebrovascular diseases, or cancer <sup>(30,33)</sup>. In addition, chronic medical illnesses is a contributory factor to suicide attempts and completions in the elderly <sup>(30)</sup>. As a result, being older may reduce the likelihood of a depression diagnosis because aged persons will present with somatic complaints rather than psychological distress <sup>(30)</sup>.

The stigma of mental illness remains high with some older cohorts, although recent evidence suggests this attitude may be changing <sup>(34)</sup>. Older individuals with depression may be less inclined to seek help from mental health professionals or be less ready to accept help when offered because of the sense of stigma <sup>(35)</sup>. Moreover, many older people with depression do not receive adequate treatment because they are less likely to discuss their mood/behavioural complaints with others <sup>(35,36)</sup>. Indeed, many elderly persons live alone and have inadequate social/family support or little contact with physicians, let alone psychiatrists or psychologists. Evidence shows that recognition of depression disorders by non-psychiatric physicians is poor, and few elderly patients receive optimal treatment in or out of hospital <sup>(35,37,38)</sup>.

In an attempt to improve the identification of depression, numerous rating scales are used in older people to flag the presence of depression symptoms and monitor treatment responses <sup>(39-41)</sup>. These screening tools are helpful for case finding because, if a patient screens positive, then a

clinical interview to obtain a definitive diagnosis can follow. Hence, screening for depression symptoms should always be part of a comprehensive psychiatric interview <sup>(39)</sup>.

Most epidemiological studies do not have the resources to send participants to specialist clinicians for full medical workups and depression diagnoses. Therefore, these studies use screening instruments to assess depression symptoms instead. Examples of these screening instruments include 10 and 20 versions of the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (CES-D) <sup>(42, 43)</sup>, Beck Depression Inventory-II (BDI) <sup>(42-44)</sup>, the Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS) <sup>(42-44)</sup>, the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS) <sup>(42)</sup>, the Primary Care Evaluation of Mental Disorders Mood Module (PRIME-MD) <sup>(42)</sup>, the Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression (HRSD) <sup>(43)</sup>, the Zung Self-Rating Depression Scale (SDS) <sup>(43)</sup>, and the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-2) <sup>(45)</sup>.

### **2.2.3 Epidemiology of Depression and Depression Symptoms**

Predictions suggest depression will be the second leading worldwide contributor to disability by 2050, and a major contributor to the overall global burden of disease <sup>(46)</sup>. The World Health Organization (WHO) reported that the estimated overall prevalence of depression disorders varies between 10 and 20% among the elderly, depending on the cultural context <sup>(46)</sup>. A community-based meta-analysis of people aged 50 and over in Western countries found a prevalence of 3.29% (95% CI: 3.07-3.51%) for current, and 16.52% (95% CI: 15.5-17.54%) for lifetime, major depression disorders, and 19.47% (95% CI: 19.13-19.81%) for current depression symptoms that were identified using cutoff scores on self-rating questionnaires <sup>(12)</sup>. Another meta-analysis of 24 studies showed a pooled prevalence of major depression of 7.2% (95% CI: 4.4-10.6%), and the rates of major depression were between 4.0% and 10.3% for women, and 2.8% and 6.9% for men in the population aged 75 years or over <sup>(31)</sup>.

Depression is associated with a risk of poor HRQoL and chronic diseases, including various types of cancers and cardiac diseases, and cognitive dysfunction (e.g., cognitive decline, Alzheimer's disease, and all-cause dementia) among older adults<sup>(46,47)</sup>. Depression accounts for almost 12% of total years lived with disability, and 4.4% for all causes of Disability-Adjusted Life Years (DALYs) lost<sup>(46)</sup>. Late-life depression can lead to chronic or recurrent psychological problems for half of the affected seniors, particularly those in poor physical condition<sup>(23)</sup>. Furthermore, depression symptoms in the elderly are strongly associated with increased emotional and physical suffering, mortality, disabilities, health care costs, use of primary care visits, and suicide rates, which may cause increases in health and nursing care, and family disruption<sup>(32,48,49)</sup>.

### **2.2.3.1 Epidemiology of Depression and Depression Symptoms in China**

In a meta-analysis of depression and depressive moods in Chinese older adults between the late 1980s and early 1990s, Chen et al. found the prevalence of depression and depressive mood to be 3.86% (95% CI: 3.37-4.42%) and 14.8% (95% CI: 14.2-15.64%), respectively<sup>(13)</sup>. The study also found that the prevalence of depression was higher in rural (5.07%, 95% CI: 3.61-7.13%) versus urban areas (2.61%, 95% CI: 2.22-3.08%). Another meta-analysis on the prevalence of clinically relevant levels of depression symptoms among Chinese older adults from 2000 to 2010 found the pooled prevalence to be 22.7% (95% CI: 19.4-26.4%)<sup>(50)</sup>. This study also found the prevalence of depression symptoms was higher in women (24.2%, 95% CI: 20.3–28.5%) compared to men (19.4%, 95% CI: 16.2–23.0%), higher in rural (29.2%, 95% CI: 18.6–42.7%) compared to urban (20.5%, 95% CI: 17.3–24.1%) areas, and higher in western (30.5% , 95% CI: 22.8–39.5%) relative to eastern (19.5% , 95% CI: 15.5–24.1%) regions of the country<sup>(50)</sup>.

The WHO reported that the overall prevalence of depression was lower in the Chinese population compared to the populations of Western countries <sup>(46)</sup>. This may be attributed to the following reasons. First, the reluctance to seek help from health professionals due to the stigma imposed on mental illnesses in the traditional Chinese culture and conservative values; second, a relatively slow life pace and high levels of social support in traditional Chinese society (e.g. lifetime employment, filial culture, and close relationships between community members). On the other hand, paralleling rapid economic development and advanced industrialization and urbanization, depression awareness has increased among the general public, health professionals, and policymakers.

## **2.3 Risk Factors for Depression Symptoms in Older Adults**

As discussed above, recognizing depression symptoms can be difficult because of entwinement with the normal aging process of elderly individuals. Therefore, due to the multifaceted nature of depression, it is important to examine contributing risk factors for depression symptoms, including socioeconomic resources, health factors, and negative life events such as ACEs <sup>(14, 51-54)</sup>. This section describes childhood adverse experiences and other risk factors for depression symptoms in older individuals.

### **2.3.1 Childhood Exposures and Depression in Older Adults**

Stressful childhood events may exert deleterious influences on the development of children and adolescents, with long-term consequences into adulthood <sup>(55)</sup>. ACEs are traumatic events that affect children directly (e.g., being mistreated by others) and indirectly through their living environments (e.g., parents' substance abuse or physical/mental illness and neighbourhood

environment), and have long-lasting impacts on health and well-being beyond the first 18 years of life <sup>(56)</sup>.

A seminal ACE study sought to establish rates of childhood adversity and examine the relationship of ACEs to various health outcomes among patients at a health clinic in San Diego <sup>(56)</sup>. Results showed that 52% of respondents had experienced one or more adversities during childhood, with 6.2% reporting four or more. Results also indicated that ACEs were associated with multiple health outcomes in adulthood, such as cardiovascular disease, liver disease, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, suicide attempts, and alcohol dependence. Childhood adversities have proven to be associated with maladaptive family functioning, poor living conditions, and mental disorders at all life-course stages in 21 countries <sup>(14, 46)</sup>.

The World Mental Health Initiative reported an association between a broad range of childhood adversities and depression symptoms in older age <sup>(46)</sup>. The more stressful life events encountered in childhood, the more serious depression symptoms developed in later life. In a systematic review and meta-analysis of 124 articles on the long-term health outcomes of different types of childhood maltreatment, results showed statistically significant associations between childhood exposures to physical abuse, emotional abuse, and neglect and depression disorders later in life <sup>(57)</sup>.

The Adverse Childhood Experiences Study, which aimed to assess the association between adverse childhood events and lifelong health outcomes, reported that almost two-thirds of all participants experienced at least one ACE and 87% of these individuals reported experiencing two or more ACEs <sup>(56)</sup>. The proportion of participants with depression who reported serious ACEs (e.g., trauma and abuse) ranged from 62.2% to 94% <sup>(58-62)</sup>.

ACEs are strongly associated with lifestyle behaviours such as smoking, alcoholism, illicit drug use, obesity, and promiscuity in adults, as well as the development of chronic disease (e.g., liver disease, heart disease, and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease) <sup>(63)</sup>. The vulnerability-stress model lends support to the explanation that negative events, including ACEs, influence depression symptoms in later life <sup>(64)</sup>. Exposure to ACEs may cause long-term heightened sensitivity to psychological stress, anxiety, and depression disorders after the experience of new stressful life events such as accidents, severe illness, trauma, and interpersonal loss <sup>(64)</sup>.

Studies have shown that a history of negative events during childhood, such as interpersonal loss, parental maladjustment, maltreatment, physical illness, and poor living atmosphere, is associated with depression symptoms in older age <sup>(14, 16, 65-67)</sup>. These studies also document the link between interpersonal loss and depression symptoms, most likely as a result of both social and economic reasons. Interpersonal loss, including parental loss, the divorce/separation of parents, and death of close relatives/friends, has been associated with depression in older adults <sup>(14)</sup>.

Parents' divorce/separation and other parental maladjustment factors may lead to maladaptive family functioning, which influences children's mental development. For example, longitudinal surveys from Great Britain and the United States found that parental divorce or separation before age 16 years becomes a risk factor for mental health problems in adults, leading to greater psychological distress and depression <sup>(67)</sup>. Furthermore, children of parents with poor physical and mental health behaviours/problems are more likely to exhibit depression symptoms in late adulthood <sup>(68)</sup>. Significant associations were found between depression

symptoms and severe interpersonal conflicts between family members, parental substance or alcohol abuse, parental criminal behaviours, and domestic violence <sup>(14, 17)</sup>.

Child maltreatment has received substantial attention in the literature. The World Report on Violence and Health <sup>(69)</sup> and the WHO Consultation on Child Abuse Prevention <sup>(70)</sup> identified four types of child maltreatment: sexual abuse, physical abuse, emotional and psychological abuse, and neglect. WHO described that approximately 20% children report being sexually abused, while 25% to 50% of children report being victims of physical abuse or neglect <sup>(70)</sup>. These different types of maltreatment, which may lead to severe and enduring early life stress, were found to be associated with emotional (e.g., anxiety and psychological distress), mental (e.g., depression disorders), and behavioural (e.g., alcohol, substance abuse, and suicide attempts) disorders in adulthood <sup>(58-62)</sup>. A recent systematic review showed that reports of high levels of depression symptoms, anxiety and distress were observed in adults, including seniors, who were exposed to childhood sexual and physical abuse <sup>(71)</sup>. Consistent with this, substantial evidence suggested that a history of maltreatment early in life increases the risk of depression 2 to 5 fold <sup>(62, 71)</sup>.

Furthermore, the number of ACEs was associated with unhealthy behaviours (e.g., alcohol or substance abuse, smoking, and suicide) and depression symptoms <sup>(56, 62)</sup>. Individuals with at least four ACEs were at increased risk of poor health outcomes, such as depression, compared to individuals with no ACEs <sup>(62)</sup>. Relative to no childhood adversity, people who experienced six or more adversities were more likely to develop depression symptoms in adulthood <sup>(14)</sup>.

In addition, other childhood adverse environmental or personal factors were found to be associated with depression symptoms in older age. For example, older adults who experienced

poor health status and inferior economic status in early life were more likely to exhibit depression symptoms in adulthood<sup>(14, 17, 54)</sup>. Socioeconomic disadvantage early in life can cause poor nutrition, fewer educational opportunities, and limited access to health care, which can increase vulnerability to depression throughout the lifespan<sup>(14, 17, 56, 65)</sup>. Studies also indicated that community or neighbourhood stressors in childhood were associated with mental health problems over the life course<sup>(14, 17, 54)</sup>. Childhood bullying, the experience of poverty and malnutrition, disadvantageous living atmosphere (e.g., poor housing quality, lack of green areas, noise and air pollution, and services/amenities), insecure neighbourhoods, and social turmoil (e.g., war and natural disasters), have all been found to be associated with depression in older adults<sup>(14, 17, 65)</sup>.

Based on the evidence discussed above, a myriad of epidemiological and clinical studies have demonstrated that early childhood adversity is a well-documented risk factor for developing depression disorders in later life. Early environmental and personal stressors may play pivotal roles in the etiology of depression disorders in older age. Adverse or traumatic experiences during developmental stages may alter the structure and functioning of brain systems, with enduring consequences in adulthood<sup>(72-74)</sup>. For example, adult women with histories of childhood sexual or physical abuse exhibit increased neuroendocrine and autonomic responses to psychosocial laboratory stress, particularly those with depression<sup>(74)</sup>.

A biological pathway perspective indicates that early life stress may interfere with the normal construction and maturation of cortical and hippocampal synaptic connections, and lead to dysregulation of cortisol level and hippocampal atrophy, which in turn might lead to behavioural and physiological changes that form the phenotype of depression<sup>(74, 75)</sup>. Figure 2.1 describes an integrative model of depression disorder and early life stress. Early life stress and



genetic vulnerability lead to dysregulations of the hypothalamic pituitary axis (HPA), characterized by increased stress sensitivity, corticotrophin-releasing factor (CRF) hyperdrive, and neuronal damage in the hippocampus or key brain regions <sup>(74)</sup>. Enduring effects of early life stress on the brain and its stress regulatory outflow systems, including the autonomic, endocrine and immune systems, may lead to the development of a vulnerable phenotype, with increased sensitivity to stress and risk for behavioural and somatic disorders <sup>(72, 74)</sup>. When individuals with this phenotype are confronted with negative life events and stress, the system is prone to further dysregulation and CRF hyperdrive; this will in turn cause changes in other systems. Therefore, the combination of these neurobiological changes can lead to the conception of psychiatric stress-related disorders <sup>(72, 74)</sup>.

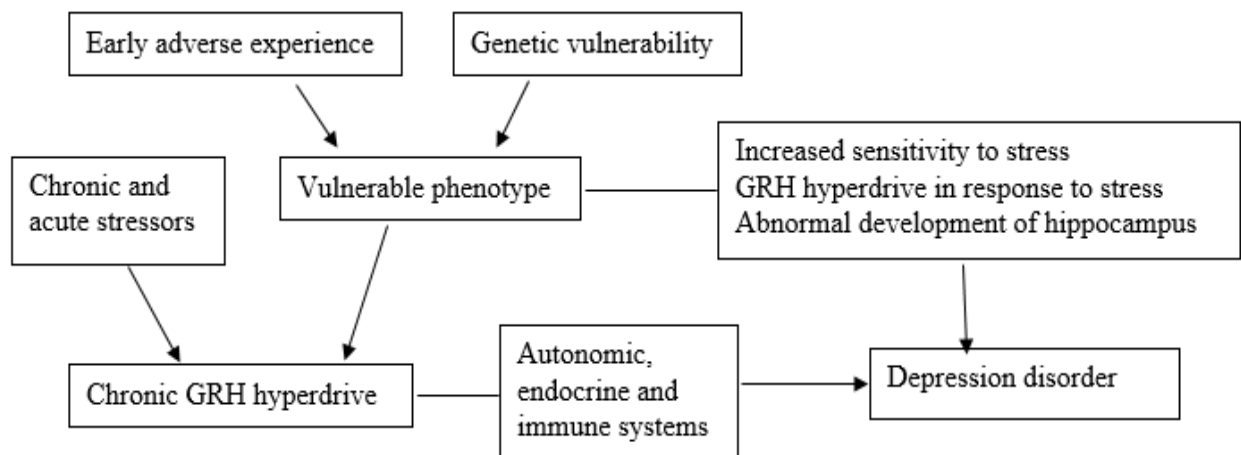


Figure 2.1 Interactive model of depression and early life stress. Adapted from “The theory and treatment of depression: Towards a dynamic interactionism model.” by Coverley, Józef, Patrick. Luyten, Sidney J. Blatt and Hilde Lens-Gielis.

### 2.3.2 Childhood Adversities and Depression in Chinese Older Adults

Chinese persons aged 60 years or older have experienced drastic demographic, socioeconomic, nutritional and health care changes, and Cultural Revolution, industrialization, urbanization and modernization during their lifetimes. Specifically, the Resistance Against Japan

War (1937-1945) and the Chinese Civil War (1946-1949) caused tens of millions of military and civilian casualties <sup>(76)</sup>. The Great Chinese Famine between 1959 to 1961 resulted in almost 24 million deaths, and the Cultural Revolution (1966-1976) was an unprecedented period of chaos in China <sup>(76, 77)</sup>. The ‘Up to the Mountain and Down to the Country’ Movement sent approximately 17 million urban youth to work and live in rural areas from 1969 to 1978 <sup>(76)</sup>. The birth-planning (one child) program, which was introduced at the end of the 1970s, brought tremendous change to household family arrangements in China <sup>(78, 79)</sup>. The open-door policy and economic reforms after 1978 drove millions of Chinese youth to leave their rural homes and seek opportunities in big cities.

Many older adults in China today directly experienced the aforementioned tumultuous events and economic changes of the 20<sup>th</sup> Century during their youth. These experiences led to enduring influences on physical and psychological health in older age. For instance, malnutrition caused by wars and the Great Chinese Famine produced long-term influences on behavioural and cognitive development, and physical and mental disorders, for persons born before 1961<sup>(80)</sup>. The forced ‘ruralization’ of urban students during the Cultural Revolution changed the life course of a generation and substantially affected people’s economic well-being and health status <sup>(77)</sup>. Additional adverse conditions during childhood, such as parents’ social and economic position, as well as parents’ health, social engagement, religious involvement, and urban or rural residence, were reported to be associated with poor physical health and depression symptoms in Chinese older adults <sup>(81-83)</sup>.

### **2.3.3 Other Risk Factors for Depression Symptoms in Older Adults**

Adult-onset physical health or functional problems are particularly important risk factors for depression symptoms in older adults. For instance, self-rated health <sup>(86)</sup>, physical disabilities

<sup>(84)</sup>, functional deficits <sup>(85)</sup>, chronic diseases <sup>(53, 58)</sup>, cognitive dysfunction <sup>(53)</sup>, unhealthy behaviours <sup>(53, 88-90)</sup>, and obesity <sup>(53)</sup> have all been shown to be associated with depression symptoms in older age. There is a significant relationship between self-perceived health and depression symptoms in older age <sup>(53, 85, 86)</sup> since self-perceived health is considered to be a reflection of other health indicators <sup>(85, 86)</sup>.

Physical disabilities <sup>(87)</sup> and functional deficits <sup>(85)</sup> have been found to be strongly associated with depression symptoms in older age. Moreover, older adults with chronic medical diseases (e.g., chronic pain, stroke, and diabetes) and cognitive dysfunction (e.g., epilepsy) are associated with depression symptoms <sup>(53, 58)</sup>. Unhealthy behaviours (e.g., physical inactivity, alcohol abuse, and smoking) in later life are also associated with depression symptoms over time <sup>(53, 88-90)</sup>. Individuals with good physical health and no unhealthy weight control behaviours have a relatively low risk of developing depression in later life <sup>(88, 90)</sup>.

Demographic factors such as age and gender which influence depression symptoms, are noteworthy. The prevalence of depression symptoms was higher in persons between 75 and 79 years of age, compared to individuals aged 85 to 90 years <sup>(36, 53, 88)</sup>. Women are reported to have a higher prevalence of depression symptoms in older age than men <sup>(16, 53, 91-94)</sup>.

Socio-economic status includes three main components in older adults: 1) material living standards (e.g., income), 2) living skills (e.g., education level and employment status), and 3) social relationships (e.g., marital status, family networks, social ties and social support or participations) <sup>(51, 53, 92)</sup>. A meta-analysis showed that low SES is associated with a high risk of later-life depression, whereas long-term improvement in socio-economic measures can reduce the occurrence of depression symptoms <sup>(51)</sup>.

In terms of income, an association between inadequate income and depression symptoms has been found in both cross-sectional<sup>(93, 94)</sup> and longitudinal studies<sup>(91)</sup>. Elderly adults with lower incomes may be less likely to reach out and use their scarce funds for mental health services, with concomitant reported higher rates of depression symptoms<sup>(51, 53)</sup>. Furthermore, studies show that older adults who continue to work full- or part-time within higher paying occupations have reported more social and economic resources, and higher levels self-esteem and mastery, and experience fewer depression symptoms than older adults who are not employed<sup>(92, 95)</sup>.

With regard to education, evidence consistently shows less educated older adults are at greater risk for depression, and the relationship between education and depression increases with age<sup>(51, 92, 95, 96)</sup>. Older adults with elevated depression symptoms and lower education are more susceptible to poorer cognitive performance or memory deficits<sup>(92, 96)</sup>. In addition, low academic achievement was found to be associated with major depression among middle- or older-aged women, but not among men<sup>(97)</sup>.

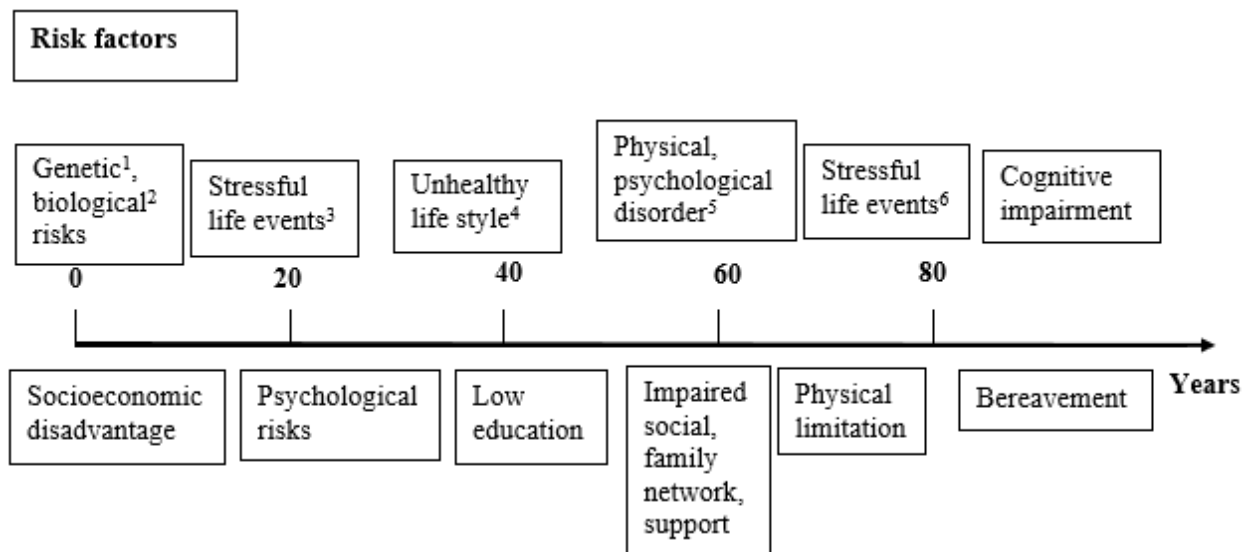
Social and family environment is also related to depression symptoms over time. Older individuals living with partners reported less depression than those who were single, separated, divorced, or widowed<sup>(91, 95, 98)</sup>. Moreover, older adults with small family networks experienced more loneliness, less family or/and social support, less social participation, and showed more depression symptoms than those with larger family networks<sup>(25, 88, 98)</sup>.

Neighbourhood environment also plays an important role in depression symptoms in older adults because the elderly are more likely to spend a large proportion of their daily lives in their neighbourhoods due to retirement and reduced mobility<sup>(99, 100)</sup>. The neighbourhood in which older adults live can influence health through mechanisms such as accessibility to health

care services, amenities availability, and communication or education. Disadvantaged neighbourhood characteristics, including remote region, low SES, higher population density, higher perceived neighbourhood problems, poor-quality housing, few resources, and unsecured environments have all been related to depression symptoms in older adults <sup>(99-102)</sup>.

Overall, Blazer and Hybels concluded that multiple biological (e.g., genetic and hereditary factors, endocrine changes, vascular disorders and medical co-morbidities), psychological (e.g., personality attributes, neuroticism, cognitive distortions, and lack of emotional control), environmental (e.g., built environment and neighbourhood characteristics), and social (e.g., stressful life events and bereavement) factors influence depression symptoms and disorders in later life <sup>(103)</sup>. The biopsychosocial model suggests that early and current biogenetic, psychological, somatic, and social/societal vulnerability might be contributing to the development or maintenance of the depression disorder across the lifespan <sup>(104, 105)</sup>.

According to the biopsychosocial approach to understanding onset and treatment of depression <sup>(103-105)</sup> and the literature discussed above <sup>(14, 53, 74, 88, 97, 103)</sup>, a number of factors that contribute to the onset and persistence of clinically important symptoms of depression in later life can be identified. The biopsychosocial model in Figure 2.2 schematically lays out the various factors identified as possible contributors to depression symptoms in the elderly. Inserted into the figure are the ages in which the risk factors are thought to initiate effects that ultimately lead to depression symptoms in later life. For example, genetic, biological, and socioeconomic factors can start affecting health at the time of birth (year 0).



<sup>1</sup>Genetic risks: genes and heredity, brain anomalies, familial depression history

<sup>2</sup>Biological risks: gender, endocrine changes, obesity, neurotransmitter dysfunction, physical illness, function limitation

<sup>3</sup>Stressful life events: ACEs, adverse living conditions (neighbourhood and family characteristics)

<sup>4</sup>Unhealthy lifestyle: smoking, alcoholism, substance abuse

<sup>5</sup>Physical, psychological disorder: chronic conditions, comorbidities, anxiety, insomnia, function limitation, neuropathology

<sup>6</sup>Stressful life events: chronic stress, acute negative life events, adverse living conditions

<sup>7</sup>Psychological risks: personality attributes, neuroticism, cognitive distortions, lack of self-esteem, self-efficacy, mastery

Figure 2.2. Lifespan perspective on risk factors for depression symptoms in old age. Adapted from “A biopsychosocial model as a guide for psychoeducation and treatment of depression” by Schotte, Chris KW, Bart Van Den Bossche, Dirk De Doncker, Stephan Claes, and Paul Cosyns.

## 2.4 Theoretical Models

The theoretical framework underpinning the analyses undertaken for this thesis incorporates the social determinants of health (SDOH) framework<sup>(106)</sup>, the life-course perspective<sup>(107)</sup>, and the social ecological model (SEM)<sup>(108)</sup>. Social determinants of health involve the social and economic contexts that may contribute to the differential distribution of health outcomes. The life-course approach emphasizes the effects of earlier life experiences on depression symptoms in later life. The SEM provides an understanding of the dynamic interactions between individual and environmental factors.

These theories are not mutually exclusive and provide important guidance to conceptually understand the impact of ACEs on depression symptoms across the life course.

Several studies in related fields have incorporated multiple theories to build theoretical frameworks. For example, one study applied both the life-course perspective and the SEM to investigate the psychological effects of life changes on occupational satisfaction, on childhood environment and social status variations <sup>(109)</sup>. Three more studies employed a life-course approach and the SDOH framework to investigate risks and trajectories for health outcomes (e.g., mental health and obesity) <sup>(110-112)</sup>. At present, no single model can describe the associations between ACEs and depression symptoms at individual- and community-levels comprehensively. Therefore, this thesis constructed a theoretical model by combining the components from these three models.

### **2.4.1 Social Determinants of Health**

The SDOH are the conditions in which people are born, live, grow, and work, and include contextual factors such as neighbourhoods (contextual) (e.g., facilities, housing, and segregation) and individual (compositional) factors (e.g., social support, SES, and behaviours) <sup>(106, 113)</sup>. The concept of SDOH gained momentum in the mid-1970s when a British epidemiologist found that people in high socioeconomic status had better health outcomes than persons in lower SES <sup>(106)</sup>. SDOH are major determinants of whether individuals stay healthy or become ill. Additionally, SDOH help determine the extent to which persons possess personal and social resources to identify and achieve ambitions, satisfy demands, and develop coping strategies <sup>(106)</sup>. Resources involved in shaping SDOH include childhood conditions, income, social support, education, food, housing, employment, built environment, working environment, and health and social services, among others <sup>(113-115)</sup>.

Brunner and Marmot provide a broad descriptive model that outlines how the SDOH can shape health outcomes. The model is presented in Figure 2.3. This model shows how social

structures and material resources influence the living and working circumstances people experience. These circumstances then go on to shape body organs and health outcomes. As such, the SDOH paradigm considers health as an outcome of social and material influences and regards health inequities as the result of socially constructed mechanisms such as early life experiences, culture, income, lifestyle, housing, racism, education, and social support <sup>(106, 113, 115)</sup>. The processes linking society and health operate through material, psychosocial and behaviour pathways. Genetics, early life, and cultural factors are further important influences upon people's health.

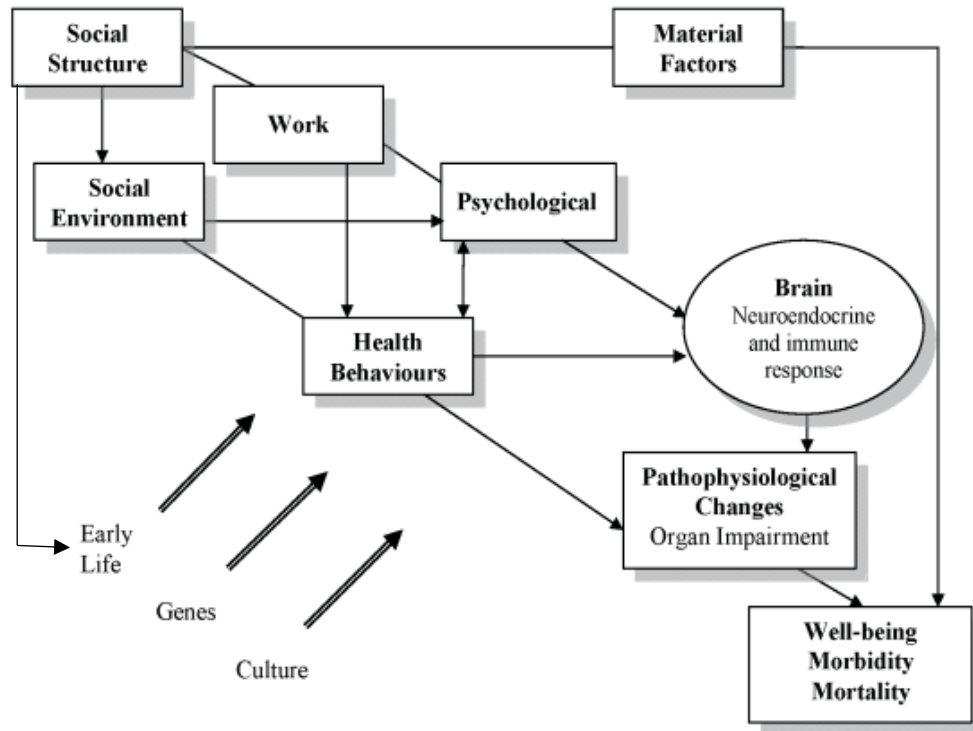


Figure 2.3 Social determinants of health and the pathways of health and illness. Adapted from “Social Organization, Stress, and Health” by Brunner, E., & Marmot, M. G. in M. G. Marmot & R. G. Wilkinson, Social Determinants of Health.

The model in Figure 2.3 shows three primary pathways that link social structure to three groups of health outcomes, namely well-being, morbidity, and mortality <sup>(106)</sup>. The first link is between social structure, material factors, and health status. Social structure includes concrete



living conditions that consist of both positive and negative exposures to health-enhancing events or situations. Material factors include housing, neighbourhood quality, and access to health care, etc. In the second pathway, social structure influences social and work environments to stimulate psychological and behavioural responses that operate through brain and immune mechanisms, and thus determine health outcomes. The third pathway views these same environments as creating behavioural responses that impair body organs. Early life events, genes, and culture contribute to the process at all levels in this model. Additionally, social structure has a direct impact on early life, which affects the entire lifespan.

SDOH are iterative in that each factor has both forward and backward effects. For instance, work and social environments both result from, as well as influence, the social structure. Another important aspect of SDOH is that they have cumulative effects over time. This means the likelihood of enduring negative health outcomes increases with the presence of multiple societal or personal disadvantages, and vice versa <sup>(115)</sup>.

The SDOH framework draws on many other models (e.g., the life-course model <sup>(107)</sup>, the behavioural model <sup>(116)</sup>, and the psycho-social model <sup>(103, 116)</sup>), but provides needed specificity to inform in-depth explorations of the mechanisms and pathways through which structural processes contribute to differential exposure or vulnerability and, consequently, differential health outcomes.

The Healthy People 2020 report from the US Office of Disease Prevention and Health Promotion developed an organizing framework for SDOH that includes five key areas or determinants (see Table 2.1) <sup>(114)</sup>. This SDOH framework is utilized in the thesis to develop the conceptual framework for examining the impact of early life experiences on depression

symptoms in older adults. As such, the framework provides a guide for the selection of covariates for inclusion in regression models.

Table 2.1 Organizing framework of SDOH

| Key areas                           | Examples   |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| Economic stability                  | Employment, food security, housing stability, absence of poverty   |
| Education                           | Early childhood education and enrollment in higher education<br>high school graduation, language and literacy          |
| Social community contexts           | Civic participation, discrimination, incarceration, social cohesion  |
| Health and health care              | Access to health care, access to primary care, health literacy   |
| Neighbourhood and built environment | Access to foods that support healthy eating patterns, crime and violence, environmental conditions, quality of housing |

Note. SDOH = Social determinants of health

## 2.4.2 Life-course Approach

Identifying the origins of adult disease and addressing them early in life are critical steps toward improving the health of people in later life. In the last 20 years, the life-course approach has emerged as a means of understanding and studying the trajectories and transitions of population health over time. This approach may be defined as the study of the cumulative and/or long-term effects of physical and social hazards during gestation, childhood, adolescence, young adulthood and mid-life on one's chronic disease risk and health outcomes in later life <sup>(107)</sup>. Life-course research views health in a holistic way and includes the study of the timing and duration of exposures to risk factors <sup>(107)</sup>. It offers a way to conceptualize how biological, behavioural, psychosocial, and socio-environmental determinants of health operate across the lifespan and differentially influence the development of chronic diseases <sup>(107, 117)</sup>.

The life-course approach provides researchers with the tools to integrate scientific, cultural, and sociological knowledge in a meaningful way. Several conceptual models have been

used to account for the importance of timing in disease development or hazard exposures, and these models serve as the basis for the underlying theoretical frameworks for life-course studies<sup>(107, 117)</sup>. These models, discussed below, explain the life-course impact of SDOH<sup>(118)</sup>.

The first model is the *critical period model* or *latency model*, which assumes that a hazard or adverse exposure at a specific period, usually early in life, has a permanent detrimental effect on tissues, organs, and health systems over time<sup>(118)</sup>. An extension of this model posits that early life hazards or exposures will modify or interact with factors in later life to influence the incidence and impact of chronic disease<sup>(118)</sup>.

Another model is the *accumulation of risks model* that suggests the development of disease results from cumulative exposures over the life course<sup>(107, 118)</sup>. As shown in Figure 2.4 (a) and Figure 2.4 (b), risk exposures may be independent of each other or clustered. Therefore, understanding cumulative exposures in childhood is important for elucidating long-term and persistent inequalities in health outcomes over time.

A third model is a *chain of risk model* or *pathway model* hypothesizing that early exposures to risk factors may increase the likelihood of exposure to subsequent stressors, and may also have an independent “additive effect” on later diseases, in addition to increasing the risk of later exposures<sup>(107, 118)</sup>. Alternatively, as presented in Figure 2.4 (c) and Figure 2.4 (d), an exposure in a chain of risks may have a trigger or additive effect for the next exposure, and only the final link in the chain has a marked effect on health. As a result, these clustered risks eventually lead to the development of the disease.

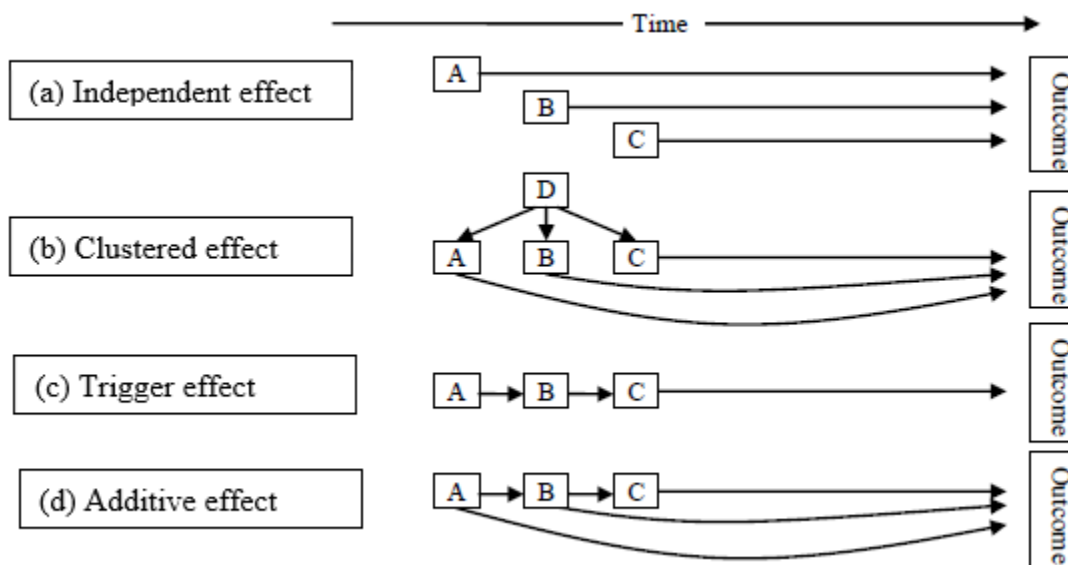


Figure 2.4. Life-course models (where A, B, C, D denote early exposures such as biological conditions and socioeconomic factors). Adapted from “Life course epidemiology” by Kuh, D., Ben-Shlomo, Y., Lynch, J., Hallqvist, J. and Power, C.

Direct and indirect mechanisms that explain the linkage between childhood hazards or exposures, and health and mortality in later life, were depicted in Preston et al.’s pathway model<sup>(119)</sup>. *Direct mechanisms* include physiological scarring effects and acquired immunity effects, which are disadvantaged conditions in childhood that have long-term negative effects on health at old ages. *Indirect mechanisms* pertain to advantaged early-life conditions that contribute to higher SES and lower mortality in later life. Another extended indirect mechanism is *differential mortality selection*, which suggests individuals who survived poor health conditions in childhood might have traits to help them survive in adversity over the lifespan.

### 2.4.3 Social Ecological Model

The SEM was first developed by Bronfenbrenner in the 1970s to investigate the influences of environmental factors on human development (including health)<sup>(120)</sup>. He posited that the ecological environment is comprised of multiple levels, namely individual, microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, and macrosystem. The individual-level pertains to demographic factors

such as sex, age, and personal health. The microsystem layer pertains to interactions within one's immediate social network, such as family, colleagues, and neighbourhood. The mesosystem layer incorporates interrelations between multiple microsystems, for example, social services, media, and local politics. Finally, the macrosystem level refers to material resources such as cultural values, healthcare system, and laws of society. These subsystems influence each other; thus, the SEM implies reciprocal relationships exist between the individual behaviour and environmental factors, and have an independent or joint impact on health outcomes.

A central feature of the SEM is the recognition that individuals exist within a larger social and physical environment and, as such, their health is influenced by individual-level (endogenous) and social-environmental (exogenous) factors.

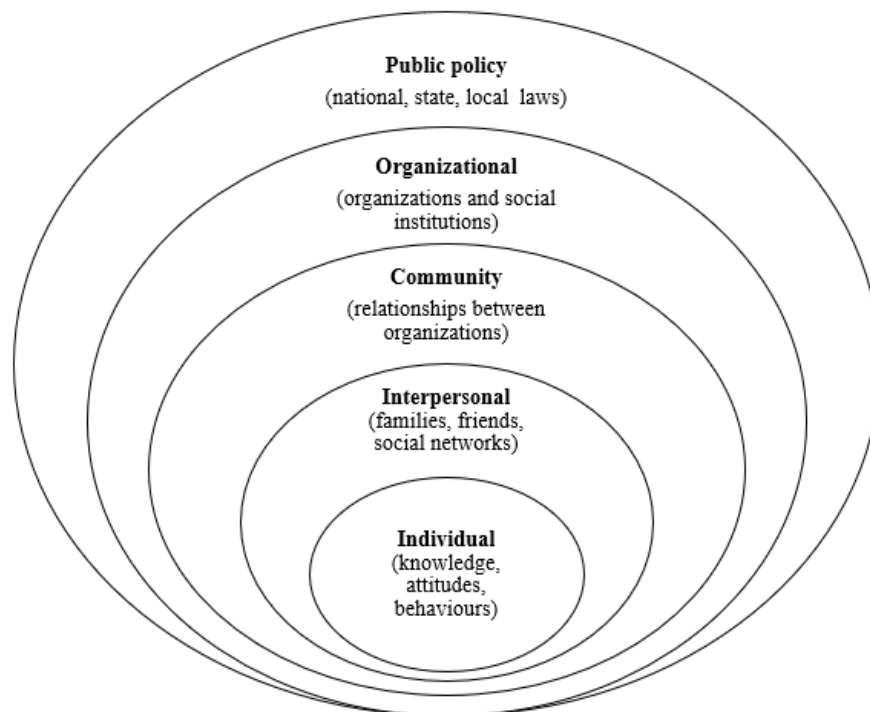


Figure 2.5 Social ecological model framework. Adapted from “The social ecological model: a framework for prevention” by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, <http://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/overview/social-ecologicalmodel.html>.

McLeroy and colleagues divided the SEM into five nested sets of factors, with each successive set encompassing all of the previous (lower-level) sets of factors (Figure 2.5). From lowest to highest setting, the SEM includes individual, interpersonal, community, institutional, and public policy factors <sup>(108, 121)</sup>.

The first level includes individual factors, which are characteristics of an individual that influence behaviour change, including knowledge, attitudes, skills, self-efficacy, values, goals, and expectations.

The second level refers to interpersonal factors incorporating formal and informal social networks and social support systems that have substantial influences on individuals' behavior and health, including significant others (e.g., family, colleagues and friends), customs or traditions.

The third level contains community factors, which include the groups or organizations to which individuals belong, the relationships among groups or organizations within a defined area and geographically, or politically defined boundaries such as the built environment, community leaders, businesses, and transportation.

Moreover, organizational factors refer to organizations or social institutions with formal and informal rules and regulations for operations that affect the views and practice of individuals. These institutional factors include the allocation of economic and social resources, transmission of social norms, and socialization into organizational culture.

Finally, public policy refers to local, state, and national laws and policies, such as policies regarding the allocation of resources for maternal, newborn, child health, and access to healthcare services. These laws and policies are the mandates within which society functions and they serve to raise awareness of key issues, as well as shape environments. Thus, SEM is

considered as a comprehensive framework to develop strategies to influence multiple levels and determinants of health <sup>(108)</sup>.

#### **2.4.4 Conceptual Model for the Thesis**

The health outcome of this study is depression symptoms in late life. Given the multifaceted nature of depression, integrative models are optimal for suggesting how biological (e.g., age, gender, chronic disease, cognitive impairment, and health limitations), environmental (e.g., residential status and neighbourhood/community conditions), and psychological states (e.g., bereavement, family/social support, and cognitive impairment) interact with depression symptoms in late life.

For this thesis, the conceptual model is based on the literature review and the three broad models discussed above. This thesis incorporated the life-course perspective <sup>(107)</sup> into the SDOH <sup>(106)</sup> and the SEM <sup>(108)</sup> frameworks to construct a conceptual model that underpins the analyses using the CHARLS dataset.

First, the life-course approach and the SDOH framework link early life experiences to health outcomes over the life cycle and therefore provide a way to explain the associations between ACEs and depression symptoms in late life. Drawing on the two theories and the literature review, the doctoral candidate conceptualize interpersonal loss, maltreatment, health status, and living conditions as key ACE components that influence depression symptoms in late life.

Second, the SDOH framework shows an integration of all possible risk factors to health outcomes across a person's lifetime. Additionally, the SEM framework recognizes that individual behaviour and health are shaped by SDOH factors that exist at multiple levels. According to the biopsychosocial model (see Section 2.3.3), besides early childhood adversities,

an assessment of ACEs and depression symptoms in older age (> 60 years) should include consideration of adult current risks for depression symptoms, which in the case of this thesis were measured at the time of CHARLS data collection. These risks include SES, education, social/family network or support, occupation, lifestyle, living conditions, physical activity, and health status etc. Therefore, the doctoral candidate included the following key individual-level factors in my analyses: demographic variables (e.g., age, gender and education level) and SES, health and functioning, living arrangements, and lifestyle (e.g., smoking and drinking).

According to the SEM framework, the surrounding environment may have an impact on depression symptoms. Communities have been shown to influence physical and mental health status through mechanisms such as lifestyles and habits, accessibility to health/food services, and the availability of amenities and infrastructure <sup>(99, 123, 124)</sup>. Neighbourhood characteristics, such as concentrated poverty and residential instability, are linked to depression symptoms <sup>(99-102)</sup>. However, these characteristics may vary systematically across local communities <sup>(99)</sup>. This thesis examines neighbourhoods as a macrosystem that affects depression symptoms. In the conceptual model, I propose two community factors - population density and socioeconomic influence - to be associated with depression symptoms in older age.

The conceptual model that depicts the associations between ACEs, individual- and community- level factors, and depression symptoms is illustrated in Figure 2.6. In this model, depression symptoms in late life are a result of complex combinations of familial, physical, and living circumstances accumulated during early childhood, as well as socioeconomic and community conditions accumulated over time (from the teenage years through adulthood). In this thesis, the variables related to the ‘over time’ component were collected at the CHARLS



interview. The analyses described in the next chapter follow the conceptual model shown in Figure 2.6.

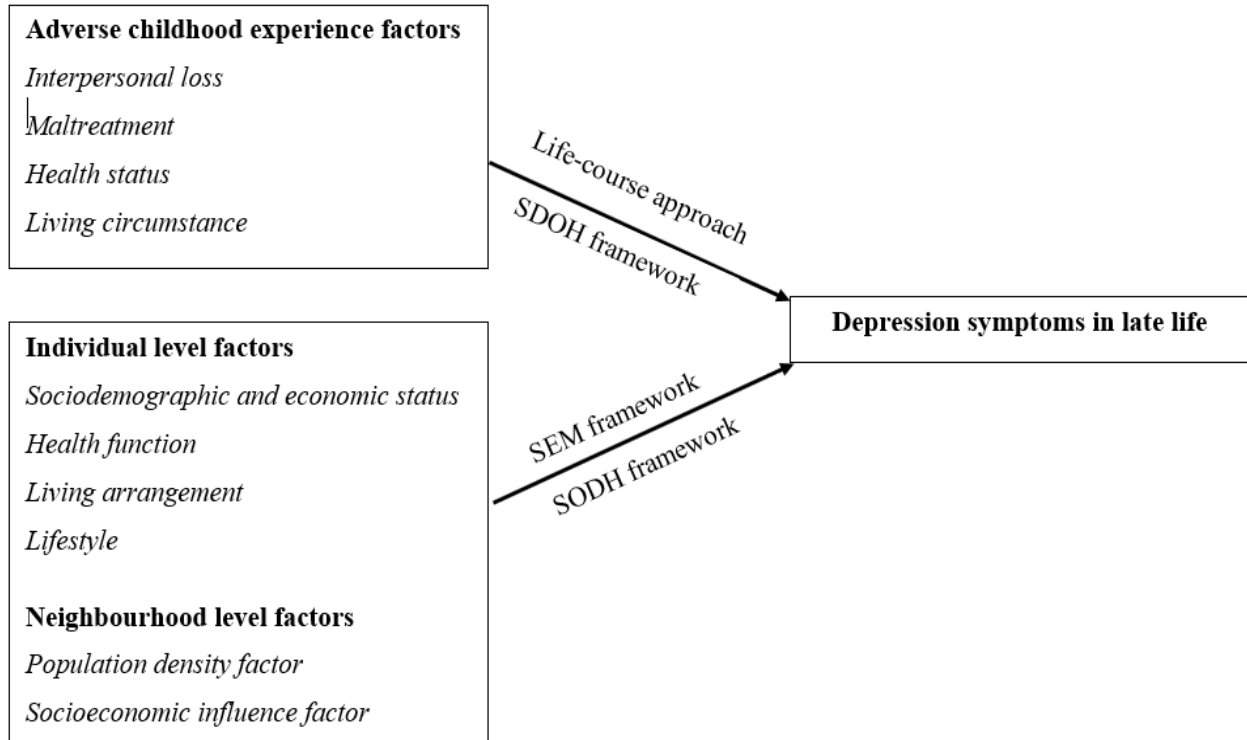


Figure 2.6 Final conceptual model for the thesis: SDOH covers a number of individual- and neighbourhood-level risk factors for depression symptoms; life-course approach and SDOH show the linkage between ACEs and depression symptoms in later life; SEM framework recognizes the neighbourhood impact on depression symptoms.

## 2.5 Identified Gaps

Based on the results of the literature review, associations between retrospectively reported childhood adversities and adult psychological or mental disorders have been documented in numerous studies. Most knowledge about the effect of ACEs on depression symptoms in later life among older adults was established through studies conducted in Western or developed countries <sup>(14, 62, 70)</sup>. This literature has sometimes focused on specific types of adversity, including sexual <sup>(60, 61)</sup> or physical abuse <sup>(57)</sup>, or it may have lumped multiple ACEs together in an index (e.g., a count of the total number of ACEs) <sup>(62, 122)</sup>. Most existing studies

used small samples (i.e., most existing studies used sample less than 300 people) <sup>(14, 58, 62)</sup> or single-gender samples <sup>(57, 60, 65)</sup> and focused on either negative childhood life events or childhood trauma <sup>(15, 59, 60, 62, 66, 68)</sup>, but not on both concomitantly.

Moreover, the majority of studies of neighbourhood effects and depression symptoms were conducted in Western countries, and the results have been conflicting <sup>(100, 123, 124)</sup>. The impact of neighbourhood/community characteristics in childhood and/or adulthood on depression symptoms among Chinese older adults is largely unexplored, and this thesis will specifically include such characteristics in the analysis. Studies looking at individual-level covariates in China to study the association between ACEs and depression symptom among older adults often did not include the community-level covariates.

Given the dearth of research in this area from the developing world and, more specifically, the unique characteristics of the Chinese experience in the 20<sup>th</sup> Century, much of the published research may not be applicable to older adults in China. Indeed, the living conditions, SES, and health of older Chinese adults was disrupted and influenced by a number of historical events during the 20<sup>th</sup> Century, including famines, political upheavals, and wars. The long-term repercussions of these events (e.g., parents left behind in rural areas) continue to affect China today. Thus, the connection between ACEs and depression symptoms in the Chinese older population is likely to be different from the connections observed in Western countries or even other developing countries.

To date, evidence about specific types of ACEs that confer a high risk for depression symptoms is relatively scant in the Chinese older population. Whether the effects of different ACEs are distinct from each other has also been left unaddressed. It is also not clear how

concomitant individual-level (endogenous) and area-level (exogenous) risk factors may also affect depression symptoms in the context of China.

## **2.6 Summary**

In this chapter, I discussed the literature regarding ACEs and depression symptoms (e.g., epidemiology and risk factors) in older adults. Further, I introduced three general theories, namely the SDOH model, the life-course approach, and the SEM model, and used these theories to build the conceptual approach to guide my analysis of the CHARLS dataset. In the last section of the chapter, I identified the knowledge gaps in the literature that the thesis will address in the forthcoming chapters.

# CHAPTER 3

## STUDY RATIONALE AND OBJECTIVES

### 3.1 Study Rationale

The enormous social changes experienced in China over the last 100 years have raised questions about spin-off effects on the physical and mental health of older Chinese adults. From a research perspective, the majority of knowledge about ACEs and depression symptoms in later life was established through Western or developed countries. Therefore, depression symptoms among the elderly Chinese population, and how these symptoms are affected by ACEs, have received little attention. The trajectory of modern China, having experienced dire poverty (e.g., post-war disasters and famine), communist fervor (e.g., Cultural Revolution) and economic boom (e.g., economic reform) make the country unique in terms of how early life experiences affect depression symptoms among older adults.

Chinese-based research investigating the association between ACEs and depression symptoms among older adults has suffered from a historical lack of national data. A better understanding of this association is needed in China to inform prevention strategies (e.g., community facilities and health services) improve treatment (e.g., social or family support and ACEs screening) for depressed seniors, and to establish policies regarding childhood health and wellbeing, education, and living circumstances, all of which have long-term benefits over the life-course. Given the fast pace of change that has characterized Chinese society in the early 21<sup>st</sup> Century, the time is ripe for decision makers to leverage the climate of change and translate research into actionable public policy.

To address the knowledge gaps discussed above, this thesis examined the relationship between ACEs and depression symptoms in China by using the nationally representative CHARLS dataset. CHARLS contained a rich mix of covariates encompassing individual- and community- level factors, in addition to ACE variables and depression symptoms. Table 3.1 identifies all of the variables from CHARLS that have been included in the thesis, along with how these variables map onto the conceptual framework described in Section 2.4.4.

Table 3.1 Mapping the conceptual framework and CHARLS variables

| Conceptual framework            | CHARLS variables  |
|---------------------------------|---|
| <b>ACEs factors</b>             |   |
| Interpersonal loss              | Death of parents before 18 years<br>Siblings died before 6 years                        |
| Maltreatment                    | Physical abuse<br>Bullied<br>Bad relationship to parents                                |
| Health status                   | Self-reported health status<br>Health limitation  |
| Living circumstance             | Relationship with neighbours<br>Unsafe neighbourhood<br>Urban/rural residence<br>Hunger |
| Other adversities               | Bad relationship with friends<br>Feel alone   |
| <b>Individual-level factors</b> |   |
| Demographic and SES             | Age<br>Sex<br>Education level<br>Annual household consumption<br>Occupation status      |

Table 3.1 (continued)

| Conceptual framework           | CHARLS variables  |
|--------------------------------|---|
| Health and functioning         | Chronic diseases<br>Cognitive status<br>Functional disability<br>Physical activity          |
| Living arrangements            | Living alone<br>Residential status<br>Marital status  |
| Lifestyle                      | Smoking<br>Drinking<br>Social participation   |
| <b>Community-level factors</b> |   |
| Population density             | Total population in the community<br>The proportion of older adults living in the community |
| Socioeconomic influence        | Amenities<br>Total income of the community<br>Overall community quality                     |

### 3.2 Research Question and Hypotheses

This thesis was undertaken to examine the association between ACEs and depression symptoms among Chinese older adults. In the literature, several ACEs have been shown to be associated with depression symptoms in Western populations. However, there is an absence of studies that have investigated the association in China.

Thereby, two research questions anchored the thesis.

#### ***Research question 1***

Will individual-level ACEs pertaining to interpersonal loss (e.g., death of parents, death of siblings), childhood maltreatment (e.g., physical abuse, being bullied, poor relationships with mother or father), and poor health status (e.g., poor self-reported health and health limitations),

as well as community-level ACEs (e.g., no neighbours to help when help was needed, no close-knit ties with neighbours, insufficient food, unsafe neighbourhoods, and rural residence) be associated with depression symptoms in later life?

**Hypothesis 1:** Individual- and community-level ACEs will be associated with depression symptoms in older Chinese adults. Among individual-level ACEs, maltreatment and poor health will be more important than interpersonal loss and difficulties <sup>(62, 63, 66, 162)</sup>. Among community-level ACEs, insufficient food and unsafe neighbourhood will be more important than rural residence <sup>(80, 167, 168)</sup>.

### **Research question 2**

What is the association between ACEs and depression symptoms after controlling for individual-level (e.g., gender, occupation, chronic disease, cognitive function, disability, residential status) and community-level covariates (e.g., the proportion of older adults living in the community, amenities, and overall community quality)?

**Hypothesis 2:** The magnitude and direction of the association between ACEs and depression symptoms will differ, compared to the crude associations observed in research question 1, following adjustment for individual- and community-level covariates. Previous research shows the magnitude or direction of association between ACEs such as maltreatment <sup>(57, 65-67, 71)</sup>, loneliness <sup>(57, 66)</sup>, and disadvantaged living circumstance <sup>(54, 65)</sup> changed after adjusting for covariates when depression symptoms is the outcome.

## **3.3 Summary**

This chapter described the study rationale, research questions, and hypotheses. The next chapter will describe the study methods.

# CHAPTER 4

## METHODS

This chapter provides a detailed description of the CHARLS dataset (Section 4.1, 4.2), the eligibility criteria for using CHARLS participants in this thesis (Section 4.3), outcome variables (Section 4.4.1), ACEs (Section 4.4.2.1), covariates (Section 4.4.2.2), analytical study design (Section 4.5), and completed data analysis (Section 4.6).

### 4.1 The China Health and Retirement Longitudinal Study

The China Health and Retirement Longitudinal Study (CHARLS) <sup>(1)</sup>, an ongoing collaborative project of the University of Southern California, Oxford University, and Peking University, was used for this study. CHARLS is representative of noninstitutionalized residents aged 45 years or older in China. It is a part of a set of longitudinal aging surveys undertaken in the USA, England, Korea, Japan, India, and Europe <sup>(1)</sup>.

CHARLS is a biennial survey that collects a wide range of data on demographics, SES, health conditions, family structure, and social support at the individual and household levels <sup>(1)</sup>. Physical measurements (e.g., anthropometric measurements such as height, weight, and waist circumference, blood pressure, and balance tests) are made every two years, and blood samples are collected every four years. A community survey of 453 communities was conducted in 2011 to provide community-level information about community/village infrastructure and amenities, economic characteristics, and socio-political characteristics <sup>(1)</sup>. Community questionnaires were completed by local administrators. The baseline survey of 17,708 participants aged 45 years and older was also conducted in 2011. The wave 2 (1<sup>st</sup> follow-up) survey in 2013 included 18,648



participants, of which 15,628 individuals from wave 1 were re-interviewed and 2,834 new participants were added to the sample (the ‘refresh’ sample).

A special life history wave of 20,543 participants was fielded in 2014. This sample contained 16,187 participants from the first two waves and a new sample of 4,360 individuals who were 41–42 years in wave 1. The life history questionnaire was based on the English Longitudinal Study of Ageing (ELSA) <sup>(125)</sup> and the Study of Health, Ageing, and Retirement in Europe (SHARE) <sup>(126)</sup>, both of which included ACEs. CHARLS’s life history survey covered family background, child health, and experiences during the Cultural Revolution and the Great Famine. Baseline, wave 2 and life history data were retrieved from the CHARLS database and used in this thesis (<http://charls.ccer.edu.cn>).

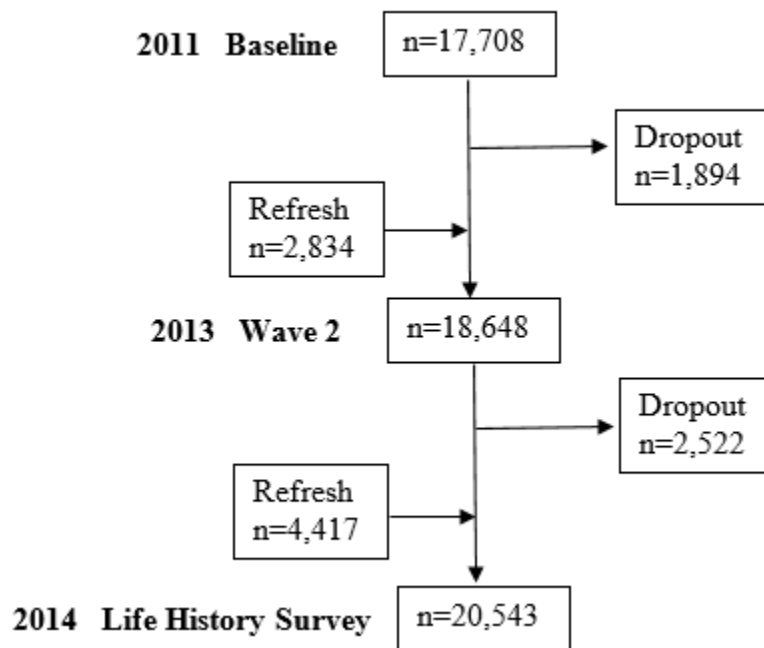


Figure 4.1 Data collection waves of CHARLS

## 4.2 Sampling and Data Collection

In CHARLS, a four-stage, stratified, cluster sample procedure was used to select eligible individuals. In the first stage, 150 county-level units covering 450 rural villages/urban communities from 28 provinces except Tibet were randomly selected with a probability proportional to size (PPS) technique to give a mix of urban and rural settings. The second stage involved the community/village level, where three primary sampling units (PSUs) were chosen in each selected county-level unit using PPS sampling: administrative villages in rural areas and communities in urban districts. In the third household stage, all dwellings in each selected PSU were outlined on Google Earth maps by means of the “CHARLS-GIS” software package that was specifically designed for the CHARLS survey. The software assigned 23,422 dwelling units to interviewers. Of these, 12,740 households contained age-eligible persons after excluding empty dwellings. In the fourth stage, twenty-four of the age-eligible households in each primary sampling unit were then randomly selected for a face-to-face contact, which was initiated by a trained CHARLS interviewer.

If a selected household had more than one person aged 39 years or older, then the individual who provided the most information during the face-to-face contact was recruited into the study. Persons aged between 39 and 44 years were designated for inclusion in a future refresh sample and not immediately interviewed. Persons aged 45 years or older proceeded directly to the baseline interview, which was conducted using computer-assisted personal interview (CAPI) software. These individuals’ spouses, provided they met the age criterion, were also recruited into CHARLS and interviewed at baseline.

Collective dwellings such as military bases, schools, dormitories, and nursing homes were excluded. Domestic helpers living in the homes of employers were also excluded. Migrants

living in factory dormitories or employers' homes were sampled in their homes of origin as household members living in collective dwellings away from home <sup>(1)</sup>. Sampling at all stages was undertaken by computers to avoid human manipulation.

In total, 17,708 individuals were interviewed from 10,257 households at baseline, 18,648 participants were interviewed from 10,832 households in wave 2, and 20,547 respondents were interviewed from 12,250 households in the life history survey. This study defined both rural villages (*cun* in Chinese) and urban communities (*shequ* in Chinese) as 'community'.

### **4.3 Eligibility for Inclusion in Thesis Analysis**

The sample for this thesis was restricted to CHARLS participants who were 'older adults', aged 60 years and above <sup>(127)</sup>, at the time of data collection (i.e., baseline for main participants and wave 2 for the refresh sample). These individuals also had to respond to the life history survey. A total of 6,548 participants residing in 447 communities across China met the thesis's eligibility criteria.

### **4.4 Variables and Measures**

Table 4.1 summarizes the variable groups used in the thesis, and the waves in which data for these variables were collected. The dependent variable (i.e., depression symptoms) and individual-level covariates were available at baseline (2011) and wave 2 (2013). The community-level covariates were drawn from the 2011 community survey. The ACE exposures came from the 2014 life history survey.

Table 4.1 Summary of variables and measures

| Variables                   | Waves                                | Collection year |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------------------|-----------------|
| Depression symptoms         | Wave 1 (baseline): main participants | 2011            |
|                             | Wave 2: the refresh sample           | 2013            |
| ACE exposures               | Life history survey                  | 2014            |
| Individual-level covariates | Wave 1 (baseline): main participants | 2011            |
|                             | Wave 2: the refresh sample           | 2013            |
| Community-level covariates  | Wave 1 community survey              | 2011            |

#### 4.4.1 Dependent Variable: Depression Symptoms

CHARLS used the ten-question Chinese version of the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (CES-D-10) <sup>(2, 128)</sup> to measure depression symptoms. This thesis employed the CES-D-10 data collected at wave 1 for the main participants and wave 2 for the refresh sample (see Table 4.1).

The 10 questions in the CES-D-10 ask participants about the frequency of mood and behaviour symptoms experienced during the past week, e.g., being ‘bothered by things that don’t usually bother you’, ‘had trouble keeping [one’s] mind on what [one] was doing’, etc. Participants responded to each question on a four-point Likert scale: rarely (< 1day), some days (1–2 days), occasionally (3–4 days), or most of the time (5–7 days). The total score was calculated using the metric suggested by Radloff <sup>(2)</sup>: for negative questions, the score is given as 0 for rarely to 3 for most of the time. For positive questions (i.e., ‘felt everything [one] did was an effort’, ‘felt hopeful about the future’, and ‘was happy’), the scoring is reversed from 0 for most of the time to 3 for rarely. The CES-D-10 score ranges from 0 to 30, with higher scores indicating participants have experienced greater depression symptoms during the past week <sup>(2)</sup>. The CES-D-10 is often analyzed as a dichotomous variable. A threshold of 10 or higher indicates

a clinically important number of depression symptoms<sup>(129)</sup>. This cut-point has been adopted in a number of studies<sup>(52, 54, 81, 85-87, 130)</sup>, and was also used in this thesis to identify those with (code = 1) and without (code = 0) a clinically important number of depression symptoms.

The CES-D-10 has shown good validity and reliability among the Chinese elderly<sup>(130, 131)</sup>. A standard validation exercise using the CHARLS data reported a Cronbach's  $\alpha$  of 0.82, which indicated a reasonable level of internal consistency<sup>(54)</sup>. In this thesis, the internal consistency of the CES-D-10 was analyzed by calculating Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for the whole scale and separately for the seven negative questions. The Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for the whole scale was 0.74, and it increased to 0.87 after removal of the three positive questions.

## **4.4.2 Predictor Variables**

### **4.4.2.1 Main effect: Adverse Childhood Experiences**

Data from the 2014 life history survey contained the ACE data. The age limits to define childhood differ between areas and cultures. Many countries, including China, agree that legal majority is attained at the 18th birthday<sup>(132, 133)</sup>. Therefore, we defined childhood experience exposures as those occurring before the age of 18 years. CHARLS asked questions about events that happened before the age of 18 years by specifically indicating, in the text of the questions, that the questions applied to the time period prior to age 18 years.

ACEs for this analysis, selected based on the conceptual framework from Section 2.4.4 and the literature review from Section 2.3.1 (see Appendix A1 for a list of ACE studies), included variables grouped under the following headings: interpersonal loss, parental maladjustment, maltreatment, other adversities (e.g., relationship with parents/friends/neighbours, health limitations, and other health issues), and living circumstances (e.g., community characteristics).

### **Interpersonal loss**

*Death of parents before 18 years:* Participants who reported either a biological mother or father died before the age of 18 were coded as 1 = yes, and 0 = no.

*Siblings died before 6 years:* Participants reported whether they had a sibling who died before turning 6 years of age. This variable was coded as 0 = no, and 1 = yes.

### **Maltreatment**

*Physical abuse:* Physical abuse was defined as ‘was hit often or sometimes’ by parents or siblings at home. This variable was coded as 0 = no, 1 = yes.

*Bullied:* The experience of being bullied in the neighbourhood or school was coded as 0 = never or 1 = any level of bullying, as 73% responded ‘never’.

*Relationship to parents:* Participants were asked to rate the relationship with their parents, when growing up, from ‘poor’ to ‘excellent’. Almost 34% of participants reported their relationship to parents was ‘excellent’, 32% reported ‘very good’, and 35% reported ‘poor’, ‘fair’, or ‘good’. This variable was coded as 0 = excellent, 1 = very good, and 2 = poor/fair/good, with low cell counts leading to the pooling of the poor, fair, and good categories.

### **Health status**

*Self-reported health status:* Participants were asked to rate their health compared to other children/peers of the same age. About half of them reported ‘about average’, and thus this variable was coded as 0 = below average, 1 = about average, and 2 = above average.

*Health limitation:* Health limitation was defined as at least once ‘missing school for a month or more due to a health condition’, or ‘confined to bed or home for a month or more’, or ‘hospitalized more than three times in a 12-month period’, or ‘received physical injury that led to

any permanent handicap, disability or limitations in daily life' during childhood. This variable was coded as 0 = none of these limitations, and 1 = at least one of these limitations.

### **Living circumstances**

*Relationship with neighbours:* CHARLS asked whether neighbours were willing to help in times of need or were close-knit. The two variables were dummy coded as 0 = willing to help, 1 = not willing to help, 0 = close-knit, and 1 = not close-knit.

*Neighbourhood safety:* Participants were asked whether it was safe being out alone in the neighbourhood where they lived as a child. Almost half (48.8%) of the participants reported 'yes'. This variable was dummy-coded as 0 = yes, and 1 = no.

*Urban/rural residence:* Participants were asked about the regions where they were raised for the longest time during their childhood. This variable was dummy-coded as 0 = raised in an urban area and 1 = raised in a rural area.

*Hunger:* Participants were asked whether their families ever faced food shortages during their childhood. This variable was coded as 0 = no, and 1 = yes.

### **Other adversities**

*Relationship with friends:* This variable was measured by two questions: 'having a group of friends comfortable spending time with', and 'having a good friend'. Participants who answered at least one of the questions as 'yes' were coded as 0 = yes, otherwise, 1 = no.

*Feel alone:* The frequency of feeling alone was rated across four categories ranging from 'never' to 'often'. Almost 65% of the participants reported 'often', so the variable was coded as 0 = less than often, and 1 = often.

#### 4.4.2.2 Covariates

Depression symptoms and ACE exposures have been shown in previous studies to be associated with other factors, including individual-level variables such as socio-demographic status, health status, and health functioning (see Appendix A2 with a list of studies), and community-level characteristics (see Appendix A3 with a list of studies).

As shown in Table 4.1, the individual-level variables in 2011 wave 1 (baseline) and 2013 wave 2 were used as covariates in this thesis. Community-level variables were only available in 2011 wave 1.

##### 4.4.2.2.1 Individual-level covariates

###### *Demographics and SES*

*Age:* Based on a previous study<sup>(134)</sup>, age was coded into three categories: 0 = 60 to 69, 1 = 70 to 79, and 2 = 80 or older.

*Sex:* Sex was dummy-coded as 0 = male and 1 = female.

*Education level:* The original questionnaire item measuring the respondent's highest education level included 24 categories ranging from "no formal education and illiterate" to "postgraduate, Ph.D". However, most of these categories had less than 100 cases. Nearly one-quarter of the older adults (27% from baseline and 20% from wave 2) in this dataset were "illiterate". Therefore, education was coded into four categories: 0 = illiterate, 1 = completed elementary school, 2 = completed high-school, and 3 = completed at least some postsecondary schooling.

*Occupation status:* There were three categories for this variable: 0 = employed (including self-employed), 1 = retired, 2 = unemployed.



*Annual household consumption:* Household expenditure is a better welfare measure than income in developing countries such as China <sup>(135)</sup>. The current yearly household expense was a continuous variable calculated by adding up expenses in 14 areas such as ‘clothing and bedding’, ‘education and training’, and ‘medical expenditure’.

### **Health and functioning**

*Chronic diseases:* Comorbid chronic conditions were measured by an index, which was calculated by the number of self-reported chronic diseases divided by the total listed number of 14 chronic conditions contained in the questionnaire (missing responses were omitted from the denominator of the index). For example, if someone was missing 2 conditions, the denominator to calculate the index would be 12.

*Cognitive status:* Cognitive status was measured using a 31-item scale adapted from the reduced and modified Telephone Interview of Cognitive Status (TICS) <sup>(136)</sup>. The TICS contained numeracy and memory tests, including five mathematical calculation tasks (serial subtractions of 7 from 100), a delayed recall test, recognition of date, day of week, and season, as well as the ability to draw a picture of overlapping pentagons. Each item was given one point, and the score ranged from 0 to 31. The TICS was validated using the CHARLS data and researchers reported a Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  of 0.71 <sup>(137)</sup>. The Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  of all items in TICS was 0.76 for older individuals in this thesis. A continuous variable, computed by adding the correct answers, with higher scores indicating better cognitive status, was constructed for this study.

*Functional disability:* Disability was identified in CHARLS as reported difficulties in the following areas: (1) activities of daily living (ADLs) <sup>(138)</sup>, including dressing, bathing/showering, eating, transfers (i.e., getting into and out of bed), using the toilet, controlling urination and defecation; and (2) instrumental activities of daily living (IADLs) <sup>(139)</sup>, namely doing household

chores, preparing hot meals, shopping, managing money, and taking medications. These two variables were coded as 0 = no ADL difficulty, 1= having any ADL difficulty in at least one area, and 0 = no IADL difficulty or 1= having any IADL difficulty in at least one area.

*Physical activity (PA):* PA during a usual week in this study was measured in four categories: 0 = no PA, 1 = ‘walking for at least 10 minutes continuously at least once per week’, 2 = ‘moderate activities per week’, and 3 = ‘vigorous activities per week’. Moderate physical activities were defined as activities that make one breathe somewhat harder than normal and may include carrying light loads, bicycling at a regular pace, or mopping the floor. Vigorous activities make one breathe much harder than normal and may include heavy lifting, digging, plowing, aerobics, fast bicycling, and cycling with a heavy load.

### **Living arrangements**

*Living alone:* Participants who reported living alone were coded as 1, otherwise 0.

*Marital status:* In the CHARLS sample, the majority of participants (87% from baseline and 82% from wave 2) were married and living with their spouses. Only a small portion (13% from baseline; 18% from wave 2) reported their marital status as divorced, widowed, separated or never married. This variable was categorized dichotomously with 0 = married and living with spouse, and 1= other marital status.

*Residential status:* Residential status was coded with 0 = urban and 1 = rural.

### **Lifestyle**

*Lifestyle indicators:* In CHARLS, participants were asked whether they ‘chewed tobacco, smoked a pipe, smoked self-rolled cigarettes, or smoked cigarettes/cigars’, as well as the frequency of liquor intake, including white liquor, whiskey, and others. Lifestyle measures included, 1= currently a smoker, 0 = not currently a smoker; for drinking, 1= drinking 4-6 times

a week (any type of alcohol), 0 = drinking < 4-6 times a week. These cut-points were contained in wave 1 and wave 2 questionnaires.

*Social participation:* Social participation over the last month was measured by a list of ten social activities, such as interacting with friends, going to group activities, or performing voluntary/charity work. Participants who reported performing at least one such activity were coded as 1 = at least 1 social activity, otherwise, 0 = no social activity.

#### **4.4.2.2.2 Community characteristics**

The community committee office is the lowest level of official administration and organization in China. It is responsible for civil/personal affairs within communities and for implementing policies from the central government. CHARLS used data from the community offices to quantify the variables listed in this section.

##### **Population density**

*Total population in the community:* The total population who lived more than half a year in the community at the end of the last calendar year was used in this study.

*The proportion of older adults living in the community:* This variable was the proportion of a community's population aged 65 or older.

##### **Socioeconomic influence**

*Amenities:* This was a composite measure calculated by summing together the number of items available within the community, including basketball playgrounds, swimming pools, outside exercise facilities, rooms for card games and chess games, rooms for ping pong, associations for calligraphy and painting, dancing teams or other exercise organizations, organizations for helping the elderly and the handicapped, employment services, activity centres for the elderly, elderly associations, nursing homes, community-based elderly care, and other

entertainment facilities. Amenities were measured by an index, which was calculated by the number of reported items divided by the total listed number of 15 items. However, some communities were missing 2 amenities, and in these cases the denominator for the index was changed to 13.

*Total income of the community:* Total income of the community was measured by total net income of the community in the last calendar year.

*Overall community quality:* Interviewers rated overall quality on the following six metrics: SES, tidiness, neatness of the architectural pattern, crowdedness, handicapped access, and Mandarin fluency. Ratings based on interviewer observations, with a 7-point scale for each metric, ranged from ‘very poor’ (score = 1) to ‘very rich’ (score = 7). The scale was validated and reported a Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  of 0.70 in CHARLS. An additional question asked whether roads passed through the community, and one point was given if the response was ‘yes’. This yielded an overall quality score, ranging from 0 to 43, which was calculated by summing together the individual scale scores across all seven metrics.

## **4.5 Study Design**

As shown in Figure 4.2, an unmatched case-control design was used to look retrospectively and examine past ACEs in relation to current depression symptoms (Figure 4.2). Old-aged Chinese adults who exhibited depression symptoms were cases (CES-D-10 score  $\geq 10$ ) and those who did not exhibit depression symptoms were controls (CES-D-10 score  $< 10$ ), with ACEs considered as exposures.

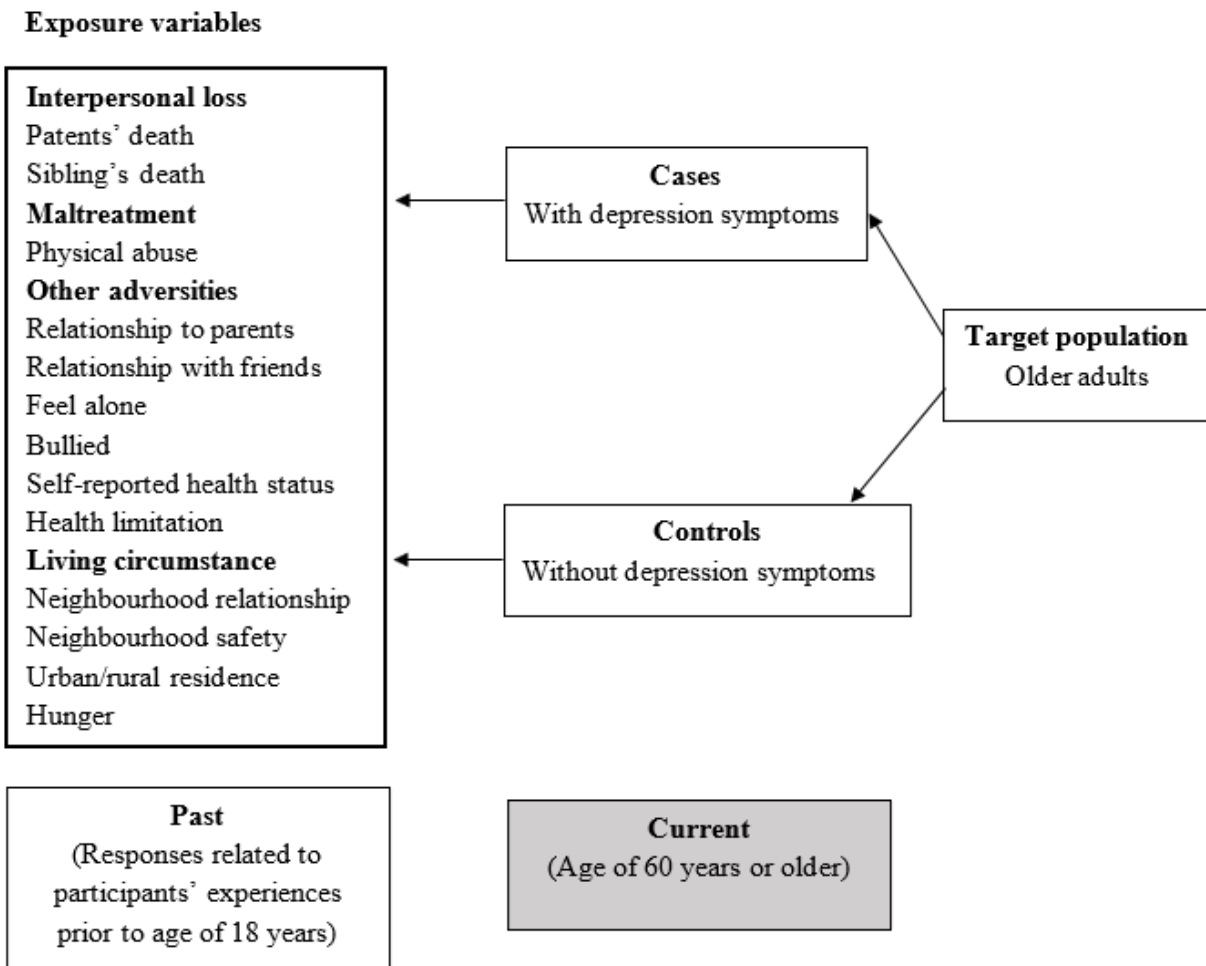


Figure 4.2 Case-control design of this study

## 4.6 Statistical Analysis

### 4.6.1 Data Preparation and Evaluation of Assumptions

Before conducting the statistical analysis, an a priori statistical power analysis was conducted, and the three waves of the CHARLS data were checked for missing data, outliers and influential cases, linearity, distribution, and multicollinearity.

#### 4.6.1.1 Power Analysis

G\*Power 3.1<sup>(140)</sup> was utilized to conduct an a priori statistical power analysis for sample size estimation. Given the dichotomous outcome, the doctoral candidate used logistic regression to analyze the data, with the odds ratio (OR) being the measure of association<sup>(140, 141)</sup>. Chen et al. (2010) calculated equivalent OR values for Cohen's  $d$ <sup>(142)</sup> across epidemiological studies where disease rates were relatively low in the unexposed group, with Cohen's interpretation of  $d$  values of 0.2, 0.5, and 0.8 representing small, median, and large effect sizes, respectively. OR values with equivalent Cohen's  $d$  are the following: 1.1 to 1.4, equivalent to Cohen's  $d < 0.20$ , indicating a small effect or weak association; 1.5 to 4.0, equivalent to  $0.20 \leq d \leq 0.80$ , suggesting a medium effect or moderate association; and, 5.0 to 30.0 with  $d > 0.80$ , indicating a large effect or strong association.

For the power calculation, the doctoral candidate identified the exposed and unexposed groups based on a cutoff of 6 or more ACEs being present. This cutoff was based on a study using WHO world mental health surveys, which showed a greater risk for depression symptoms among individuals with six or more ACEs<sup>(14)</sup>. The respective proportions of individuals with depression symptoms in the exposed group (individuals with 6 or more ACEs) and unexposed group (individuals with 5 or fewer ACEs) were obtained from the CHARLS dataset after excluding missing values on depression symptoms and ACEs.  $P_1$  = the proportion of depressed individuals in exposed group =  $548/1677 = 0.327$ , and  $P_2$  = the proportion of depressed individuals in the unexposed group =  $414/1878 = 0.22$ . The OR was automatically calculated from the proportions using the formula  $(P_1 (1 - P_2)) / (P_2 (1 - P_1))$  in G\*Power. The analysis indicated a total sample size of 937 would be adequate to detect medium to moderate changes in the logistic regression model (i.e., OR = 1.72), given power = 0.95 and  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

#### 4.6.1.2 Missing Values

All participants in the eligible sample extracted from CHARLS were screened for missing values on the CES-D-10 score and all ACE variables. The missing value pattern analysis was conducted to identify the proportion and locations of missing values. Also, participants were divided into two groups based on whether they had missing or complete data on the dichotomized CES-D-10 variable. The chi-square test was used to examine whether the proportion of participants within each ACE response level differed between the groups with missing or complete CES-D-10 data.

#### 4.6.1.3 Outliers and Influential Cases

A check of multivariate outliers was performed via Mahalanobis distance, which provided the distance from the case to the centroid of all cases for the continuous predictor variables. Extreme values would be detected if their Mahalanobis distance is beyond the critical chi-square value for the degree of freedom (number of predictor variables) at  $\alpha=0.01$  <sup>(143)</sup>.

Multiple correspondence analysis (MCA) was used to detect outliers in categorical predictor variables. MCA presented data using two-dimensional plots, which displayed row and column categories together indicating the distance between individuals <sup>(144)</sup>. Also, the *outlier* function under the FactoMinR package in R v3.4.2 was used to identify the location of the detected outliers in categorical data.

All detected outliers were double-checked with the questionnaire and verified for plausibility. The outliers were removed if found to be data entry errors, or if they exceeded the threshold for the Mahalanobis distance described above, or if they were detected by the *outlier* function and the MCA plots.

Cook's distance, a combination of each observation's leverage and residual values, was employed to detect influential cases <sup>(145)</sup>. An observation has a high influence on regression coefficients if Cook's distance exceeds  $4/(n-k-1)$ , where  $k$  is the number of predictors and  $n$  is the number of observations (participants) <sup>(145)</sup>.

#### **4.6.1.4 Linearity**

Linear relationships between continuous predictors and the logit of the response variable were tested by visually inspecting the scatterplots between these predictors and the logit values. The logit function is  $logit(p) = \log(p/(1-p))$ , where  $p$  is the probability of occurrence of the outcome event.

#### **4.6.1.5 Distributions**

Distributions of the continuous variables were examined by checking histograms. The skewness value of 0 and a kurtosis value of 3 were used to measure the normality of the distributions <sup>(146)</sup>. When skewness is less than -1 or greater than 1, and kurtosis is different from 3, then the distribution in question is skewed and unlikely to be normal <sup>(146)</sup>.

#### **4.6.1.6 Multicollinearity**

This study mainly built logistic regression models, thus, regression assumptions such as normality and homoscedasticity were not tested. Multicollinearity was explored by examining variance inflation factors (VIF) between 4 and 10 (equivalent to a tolerance of 0.25 or 0.1) <sup>(147)</sup>. Moreover, VIFs exceeding 10 are signs of serious multicollinearity requiring correction <sup>(147)</sup>.



## 4.6.2 Statistical Description and Analysis

Figure 4.3 presents a framework of analysis and the statistical methods used to conduct the analysis. Within this framework, statistical descriptive techniques were first utilized to provide an overall depiction of the dataset. All dependent and independent continuous variables in the final sample were descriptively analyzed using absolute numbers and percentages, as well as means and standard deviations (SD) for normally distributed data, and medians and interquartile ranges (IQR) for non-normal data. Frequencies were used to describe categorical variables.

After the data were prepared for analysis by reviewing outliers and excluding missing data, three dimensional reduction techniques were used to reduce a large number of covariates into a smaller and more manageable set of variables to include in the regression models: a) exploratory factor analysis (EFA), b) least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO) regression, and c) penalized likelihood factor analysis (PLFA). All of the ACEs were included in the multilevel logistic regression models (i.e., no dimension reduction techniques were applied to the ACEs).

After implementing each of the three dimension reduction techniques to obtain smaller sets of covariates, and placing each of these sets into separate regression models containing all of the ACEs, the doctoral candidate determined the best feature selection technique for this study by comparing model fit parameters (i.e.,  $-2 \log$  likelihood, Akaike's information criterion [AIC], Schwarz's Bayesian criterion [BIC], and the Hosmer-Lemeshow [HL] estimate) across models. The smaller the  $-2 \log$  likelihood or AIC or BIC is, the better the model fit<sup>(148)</sup>. Goodness of model fit was also measured by the Hosmer-Lemeshow test, where large p-values suggest good model

fit to the data <sup>(148)</sup>. The model with the smallest -2 log likelihood, AIC, BIC and HL estimates was chosen as the final model and presented in the body of the thesis.

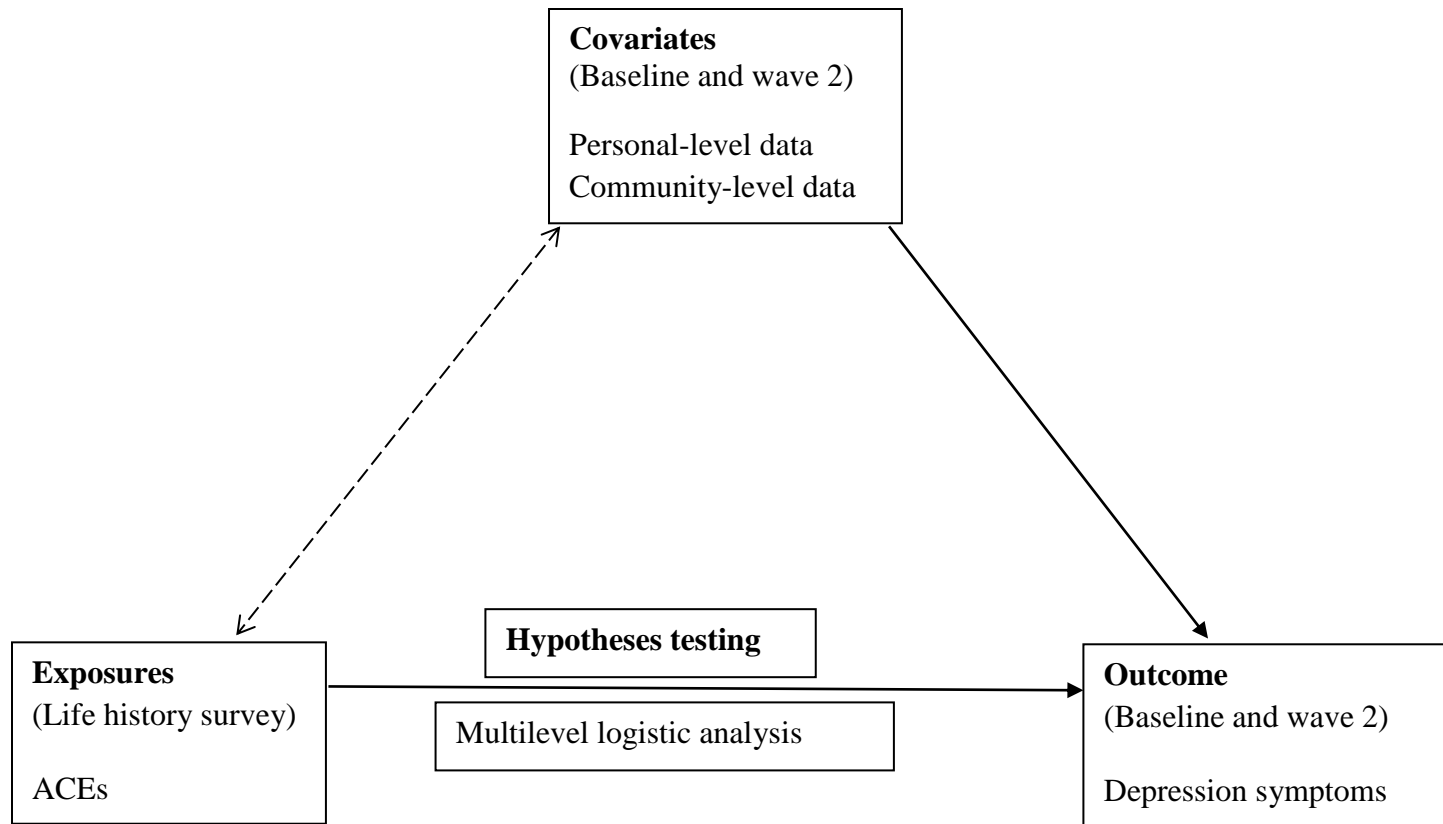


Figure 4.3 The framework for the quantitative analysis procedure. Solid arrows indicate relations that were tested by analysis, the dashed arrow indicates the relation was identified in the literature but was not tested by analysis.

### **4.6.2.1 Covariate Selection**

EFA and PLFA collapse large sets of variables into new, more understandable, and smaller sets of predictors. LASSO regression is a feature selection technique for filtering irrelevant or redundant features from large sets of variables. To achieve interpretable regression models, the doctoral candidate employed EFA, PLFA, and LASSO to reduce the number of individual- and community-level covariates that would be needed for the regression analyses. She applied these three techniques to the individual- and community-level covariates separately. The benefits of the three techniques include:

1. Reducing the number of individual- and community-level covariates included in the regression models, thus reducing overfitting issues; and
2. Helping to identify unique aspects of both personal- and community- level factors, removing redundant variables, and handling potential multicollinearity.

#### **4.6.2.1.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis**

EFA searched for distinct aspects of the individual covariates that could be extracted to represent specific groups of variables by calculating factor loadings and factor scores. The extracted aspects are called factors or latent variables, which account for the correlations among observed variables that have similar patterns of response <sup>(149)</sup> (see Appendix D1 for a detailed description).

Before building EFA models, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Test of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were examined to determine the factorability of the data <sup>(150)</sup>. The minimum acceptable value of KMO is 0.50, indicating the sample is adequate and can proceed with the factor analysis. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity ( $p < 0.001$ ) confirms that there are structured relationships between the variables.

Next, the PSYCH package in R v3.4.2 was used to build three interpretable EFA models for ACEs and the individual- and community-level covariates. Factors extracted from these variables were used to support the mapping between the conceptual framework and CHARLS dataset (see Section 3.1). Moreover, two EFA models collapse multiple personal- and community-level variables into single latent variables that can be included in a multilevel regression model. In general, a good EFA model explains the most amount of variance with the least number of factors. The EFA model fit was assessed by several indicators such as the chi-square statistic, root mean square values (RMSR), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and comparative fit index (CFI). RMSR close to 0, RMSEA below 0.06, or CFI over 0.9 indicate a good fit <sup>(149, 150)</sup>.

#### **4.6.2.1.2 Least Absolute Shrinkage and Selection Operator Regression**

The second method used in this study to select individual- and community-level covariates was LASSO regression. This method is a more robust and accurate means of variable selection, compared to forward or backward stepwise regression, when there are many predictors intended to be included in the analysis <sup>(151)</sup>.

To reduce the number of covariates, LASSO regression identifies a small set of the covariates with the highest predictive power (i.e., the set that explains the largest percentage of variance in the response variable) by imposing a penalty on the size of the coefficients of all predictors, while constraining all other predictors' coefficients to zero <sup>(151)</sup> (see Appendix G for a detailed description). As such, LASSO regression reduces the sensitivity of regression parameters to multicollinearity and provides the optimal selection of important covariates <sup>(151)</sup>.

The outcome variable in this study was binary and the logistic LASSO estimates, expressed by penalizing the negative log-likelihood with  $L1$ -norm, were obtained using the

*glmnet* function for binomial distributions under the GLMNET package in R v3.4.2. The tuning parameter  $\lambda$  controls the strength of the penalty term. When  $\lambda$  is small, the result is essentially the least squares estimates. As  $\lambda$  increases, shrinkage occurs so variables that are at zero can be removed. During the selection process, the best tuning parameter  $\lambda$  was estimated using the k-fold cross-validation procedure in R v3.4.2. Variables that still had non-zero coefficients after the shrinking process utilizing the best  $\lambda$  were selected and fitted in the follow-up multilevel regression models. Two LASSO regression models were built for individual- and community-level covariates. The selected variables from the two models were then included in regression models.

#### **4.6.2.1.3 Penalized Likelihood Factor Analysis**

PLFA is the third method used in this study to reduce the number of covariates. PLFA imposes a likelihood penalization method that contains a tuning parameter  $\rho$  on the traditional EFA model to shrink factor loadings to zero (see Appendix E for a detailed description). Therefore, PLFA can achieve sparser models (i.e., models with fewer covariates) than LASSO regression and traditional EFA models<sup>(152, 153)</sup>. As  $\rho$  increases, shrinkage occurs to remove variables' factor loadings that are at zero. During the filtering process, the PLFA model fit was assessed by three indicators, i.e., the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and comparative fit index (CFI). CFI greater than 0.9, SRMR below 0.08, and RMSEA below 0.06 indicated a reasonable or good fit<sup>(149, 150)</sup>. In this thesis, two simple interpretable PLFA models for individual- and community-level covariates were constructed using the *fanc* function in the FANC package in R v3.4.2<sup>(152)</sup>.

#### 4.6.2.2 Multilevel Regression

A series of two-level random-intercept logistic models were built with R v3.4.2's *glmer* function under the LME4 package (see Appendix H for a detailed description). Impacts of the ACEs and individual- and community-level covariates were assessed as the fixed effects, and the variations across communities were assessed as random parameters in these multilevel regression models. All models utilized the *logit* link function, the odds ratios (OR) were calculated by *exp(logit)*, and the 95% confidence intervals were calculated by means of a profiled log-likelihood<sup>(148)</sup>. As a generalized linear mixed model, the ORs in this thesis must be interpreted as conditional on the clusters, i.e., the community level. That is, the odds ratios apply only to people living in the same community, or to people living in different communities with identical random effects. Moreover, the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC), which provides a quantitative measure of similarity between individuals within communities<sup>(149)</sup>, was used to quantify the degree of variation in depression symptoms across communities.

The 'stage 1' regression analysis began by building three regression models. The purpose of these three models was to select the covariate set that would be carried forward to the 'stage 2' regression analysis. The 'stage 2' analysis addressed research question 2 (Section 3.2). The three 'stage 1' models included all the ACEs, with the difference between the models being that each model contained a different set of covariates, based on EFA (see Appendix D3), PLFA (see Appendix E3), or LASSO (see Section 5.2.3). The optimal model of the three was determined through a comparison of four model fit parameters, i.e., smallest -2 log likelihood, AIC, BIC, and HL estimate.

The optimal model from stage 1 became the basis of a set of four models for the stage 2 regression analysis, including a null model, model with all ACEs and no covariates, model with

all ACEs and individual-level covariates, and model with ACEs and covariates at both individual and community levels (see Appendix H for a detailed description).

## **4.7 Summary**

This chapter described the CHARLS dataset and the methods for this thesis. The next chapter describes the results of the data analysis.



# CHAPTER 5

## RESULTS

This chapter summarizes the results of the data analysis, including preliminary analyses and the results organized by research question.

### 5.1 Preliminary Analyses

#### 5.1.1 Missing Values Analysis

##### 5.1.1.1 Missing Data Descriptive Analysis

The percentage of missing values on the CES-D-10 score was 8.4%. In terms of ACEs, being bullied had the largest amount of missing values (36.3%), the second was physical abuse (15.7% missing), and the third was the relationship with parents (i.e., 7.7% for relationship with mother and 10.9% for relationship with father). Additional ACE variables with large amounts of missing data were neighbourhood safety (5.6%), and feel alone ( $\approx 5\%$ ). The percentage of missing values for the remaining ACEs was less than 5%. The patterns of variables that had more than 5% missing values were depicted in Figure B1 (see Appendix B1.1).

##### 5.1.1.2 Chi-square Tests

After dividing the 6,548 participants into two groups depending on whether they had missing data on depression symptoms, the proportion of participants in each group did not differ statistically across categories of each ACE (hunger was the only exception [ $p = 0.02$ ]) (Table 5.1). Thus, the thesis did not conduct missing value imputations.

Table 5.1 Participants with and without missing data on depression symptoms: comparison across ACE categories (n=6,548)

| ACE exposures                | Depression symptoms |          | Test of Significance |                      |
|------------------------------|---------------------|----------|----------------------|----------------------|
|                              | Missing             | Complete | Chi-square statistic | P-value <sup>a</sup> |
| Death of parents             |                     |          |                      |                      |
| Yes                          | 517                 | 5,793    | 0.40                 | 0.53                 |
| No                           | 10                  | 138      |                      |                      |
| Death of siblings            |                     |          |                      |                      |
| Yes                          | 86                  | 1,186    | 2.46                 | 0.12                 |
| No                           | 419                 | 4,767    |                      |                      |
| Physical abuse               |                     |          |                      |                      |
| Yes                          | 227                 | 3,376    | 0.21                 | 0.65                 |
| No                           | 172                 | 2,683    |                      |                      |
| Bullied                      |                     |          |                      |                      |
| Yes                          | 91                  | 1,028    | <0.01                | 0.96                 |
| No                           | 312                 | 3,549    |                      |                      |
| Feel alone                   |                     |          |                      |                      |
| Yes                          | 88                  | 1,314    | <0.01                | 0.96                 |
| No                           | 305                 | 4,524    |                      |                      |
| Relationship with mother     |                     |          |                      |                      |
| Excellent                    | 139                 | 1,842    | 2.67                 | 0.26                 |
| Very good                    | 110                 | 1,698    |                      |                      |
| Poor/fair/good               | 132                 | 2,127    |                      |                      |
| Relationship with father     |                     |          |                      |                      |
| Excellent                    | 119                 | 1,514    | 4.25                 | 0.12                 |
| Very good                    | 99                  | 1,677    |                      |                      |
| Poor/fair/good               | 161                 | 2,262    |                      |                      |
| Relationship with neighbours |                     |          |                      |                      |
| Willing to help              |                     |          |                      |                      |
| Yes                          | 180                 | 2,540    | 0.36                 | 0.55                 |
| No                           | 219                 | 3,290    |                      |                      |
| Close knit                   |                     |          |                      |                      |
| Yes                          | 185                 | 2,401    | 3.09                 | 0.08                 |
| No                           | 223                 | 3,467    |                      |                      |
| Relationship with friends    |                     |          |                      |                      |
| Good                         | 130                 | 1,979    | 0.19                 | 0.66                 |
| Not good                     | 268                 | 3,887    |                      |                      |

Table 5.1 (continued)

| ACE exposures         | Depression symptoms |          | Test of significance |                      |
|-----------------------|---------------------|----------|----------------------|----------------------|
|                       | Missing             | Complete | Chi-square statistic | P-value <sup>a</sup> |
| Self-reported health  |                     |          |                      |                      |
| Below average         | 74                  | 806      | 2.02                 | 0.36                 |
| About average         | 270                 | 3,076    |                      |                      |
| Above average         | 159                 | 2,059    |                      |                      |
| Health limitation     |                     |          |                      |                      |
| Yes                   | 37                  | 500      | 0.38                 | 0.54                 |
| No                    | 436                 | 5,280    |                      |                      |
| Safe neighbourhood    |                     |          |                      |                      |
| Yes                   | 196                 | 2,899    | 0.01                 | 0.98                 |
| No                    | 196                 | 2,892    |                      |                      |
| Hunger                |                     |          |                      |                      |
| Yes                   | 372                 | 4,577    | 5.68                 | 0.02                 |
| No                    | 141                 | 1,356    |                      |                      |
| Urban/rural Residence |                     |          |                      |                      |
| Rural                 | 492                 | 5,444    | 0.09                 | 0.76                 |
| Urban                 | 43                  | 500      |                      |                      |

Note. <sup>a</sup>=Two-tailed test

ACE = adverse childhood experiences

### 5.1.3 Evaluation of Assumptions

#### 5.1.3.1 Outliers and Influential Cases

Mahalanobis Distance was utilized to check multivariate outliers among continuous exploratory variables. No extreme cases were found in the data, as Mahalanobis Distance did not exceed the critical chi-square value of 24.32 for 7 degrees of freedom at  $\alpha=0.001$ . No outliers or extreme cases among categorical variables were detected using MCA and the *outlier* function (see Figure B2 in Appendix B1.2).

Cook's distance was used to find influential outliers among continuous predictors.

Cooks' distances for all individuals were located well below the threshold of 0.003 (calculated

by  $4/(n-k-1)$ , described in Section 4.6.1.3 [4/1209], where  $n = 1,218$  and  $k = 8$ ) (see Figure B3 in Appendix B1.2).

### **5.1.3.2 Linearity**

To test linearity, the doctoral candidate used scatter plots comparing continuous predictors at both the individual (i.e., annual household consumption, chronic disease index, TICS) and community levels (e.g., amenities index, total income of the community, and overall community quality) with the logit values of CES-D-10 score. The scatter plots in Appendix B1.3 showed that individual- and community-level variables were all linearly associated with depression symptoms in the logit scale.

### **5.1.3.3 Distribution and Multicollinearity**

All continuous predictors were normally distributed and the values of both Kurtosis and Skewness ranged between -2 and 2 except for annual household expenditure (skewness=7.08 and kurtosis=8.23) and total income of the community (skewness=11.45 and kurtosis=15.73) (see Table B1 in Appendix B1.4). Therefore, data transformations, such as the logarithmic transformation, were considered. However, models with and without a transformation did not display substantive differences from one another. Thus, no transformations were used in the models reported in the thesis.

Multicollinearity was checked using variance inflation factors (VIF) in regression analyses. The VIF values for all variables were less than 10, indicating multicollinearity was not an issue in the data.

## 5.1.4 Descriptive Results

After excluding the missing data, a total of 1,218 older adults living in 360 communities were included in the analysis sample. Tables 5.2-5.3 provide descriptive statistics for general characteristics of the respondents (Appendix B2 contains detailed descriptions for sub-questions pertaining to chronic diseases, ADL, IADL, and TICS). Figure 5.1 displays the CES-D-10 data (Appendix B3 contains detailed descriptions of CESD-10 items), and Table 5.4 describes the ACE variables (Appendix B4 contains detailed descriptions of ACE sub-questions regarding physical abuse, bullied, health limitation, and relationship with friends). Table 5.5 depicts community-level variables (Appendix B5 contains detailed descriptions of amenities and overall community quality).

### 5.1.4.1 Descriptive Data for Individual-level covariates

The analysis sample was majority female (746 [61.2%]). The average age of the respondents was 68.2 years and 64.3% were between 60 and 69 years old. Approximately 65.3% of the respondents had low education levels (51.8% received at least some elementary education and 13.5% were illiterate), and most were employed (76.6%). The average annual household income was 29,230 Chinese yuan (about \$5,689.03 Canadian dollars). The majority of respondents were married and living with their spouses (83.2%), and over a half (61%) lived in rural areas.

The mean chronic disease index was 0.16, meaning approximately two chronic comorbidities were reported by the average person out of a total possible number of 14 conditions (arthritis [40.9%] and high blood pressure [36.2 %] were reported most). The average score on the TICS was 14.75 out of 31, meaning that the average older adult in China did not screen positive for cognitive impairment<sup>(154)</sup>. Approximately half of the respondents (57%)

reported current smoking, and only a small proportion (14.3%) were heavy drinkers (i.e., drink any alcohol 4-6 times per week). Slightly greater than half of the respondents (58.46%) reported moderate or vigorous physical activity during a usual week.

Table 5.2 Descriptive statistics for individual-level continuous variables (n=1,218)

| Variables                                 | Mean   | SD    | Median | IQR      |
|---|--------|-------|--------|----------|
| <b>Demographic and SES</b>                |        |       |        |          |
| Annual household consumption <sup>a</sup> | 29,230 | 3,602 | 20,288 | 22,214.5 |
| <b>Health function</b>                    |        |       |        |          |
| Chronic disease index                     | 0.16   | 0.13  | 0.15   | 0.23     |
| TICS                                      | 14.75  | 5.18  | 15     | 11       |

Note. SES = socio-economic status

SD = standard deviation

IQR= interquartile range

<sup>a</sup> = Chinese yuan

Table 5.3 Descriptive statistics for individual-level categorical variables: number (%) reporting each predictor (n=1218)

| Variables                  | n (%)      |
|----------------------------|------------|
| <b>Demographic and SES</b> |            |
| Age                        |            |
| 60-69                      | 783 (64.4) |
| 70-79                      | 359 (29.5) |
| 80 or older                | 76 (6.2)   |
| Education level            |            |
| Illiterate                 | 165 (13.6) |
| Elementary school          | 631 (51.8) |
| High-school                | 368 (30.2) |
| Postsecondary school       | 54 (4.4)   |
| Occupation                 |            |
| Employed                   | 933 (76.6) |
| Retired                    | 275 (22.6) |
| Unemployed                 | 10 (0.8)   |
| Sex                        |            |
| Female                     | 746 (61.3) |
| Male                       | 472 (38.8) |

Table 5.3 (continued)

| Variables                  | n (%)         |
|----------------------------|---------------|
| <b>Living arrangements</b> |               |
| Living alone               |               |
| Yes                        | 186 (15.3)    |
| No                         | 1,032 (84.73) |
| Marital status             |               |
| Married                    | 1,013 (83.2)  |
| Other marital status       | 205 (16.8)    |
| Rural residence            |               |
| Rural                      | 746 (61.3)    |
| Urban                      | 472 (38.8)    |
| <b>Health function</b>     |               |
| ADL difficulties           |               |
| Yes                        | 222 (18.2)    |
| No                         | 996 (81.8)    |
| IADL difficulties          |               |
| Yes                        | 190 (15.6)    |
| No                         | 1,028 (84.4)  |
| <b>Lifestyle</b>           |               |
| Smoking                    |               |
| Yes                        | 520 (42.7)    |
| No                         | 698 (57.3)    |
| Drinking                   |               |
| 4-6 times a week           | 174 (14.3)    |
| < 4-6 times a week         | 820 (67.3)    |
| Social participation       |               |
| Yes                        | 708 (58.1)    |
| No                         | 510 (41.9)    |

Note. SES = socio-economic status

#### 5.1.4.2 Descriptive Data for Depression Symptoms

Four hundred and four (33.2%) respondents reported a CES-D-10 score of 10 or greater. The median CES-D-10 score was 7 and the IQR was 7. As shown in Figure 5.1, the majority of the respondents answered ‘rarely (<1 day)’ for most of the negative symptoms, while the

minority answered ‘rarely’ for the positive symptoms (e.g., felt hopeful about the future and was happy).

Positive questions



Negative questions

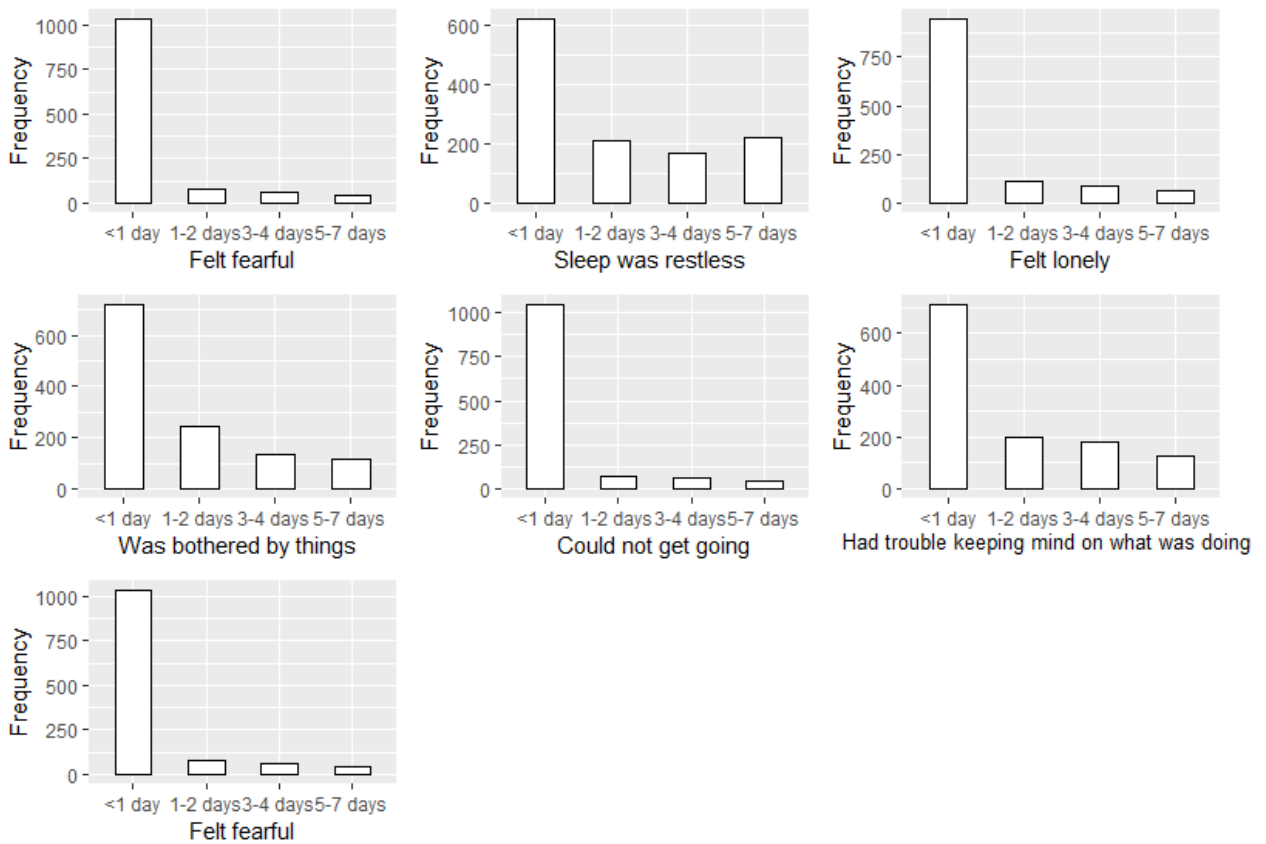


Figure 5.1 Bar charts for CES-D-10 items

### 5.1.4.3 Descriptive Data for Main Effect: Adverse Childhood Experiences

As shown in Table 5.4, approximately 67.4% of the respondents had at least one parent who died before the age of 17, while a small proportion (20%) reported the death of a sibling.



Approximately one-third (34.2%) of the respondents reported an ‘excellent’ relationship with their mother, while fewer (28.7%) respondents reported an ‘excellent’ relationship with their father. The majority of respondents experienced physical abuse (62.2%: half of them were hit by their father [see Appendix B4]), hunger (78.7%), living in rural areas during childhood (71.9%), and approximately 20% reported bullying or feeling alone. About half of the respondents rated their health ‘about average’ compared to children of the same age. More than half of the respondents did not have good friends (61.8%), while about 40% reported having a good relationship with neighbours and living in a safe neighbourhood.

Table 5.4 Descriptive statistics for ACEs: number (%) reporting each ACE (n=1218)

| ACE exposures                       | n (%)      |
|-------------------------------------|------------|
| Death of parents                    |            |
| Yes                                 | 881 (72.3) |
| No                                  | 337 (27.8) |
| Death of siblings died before age 6 |            |
| Yes                                 | 236 (19.4) |
| No                                  | 982 (80.6) |
| Relationship with mother            |            |
| Excellent                           | 417 (34.2) |
| Very good                           | 380 (31.2) |
| Poor/fair/good                      | 421 (34.6) |
| Relationship with father            |            |
| Excellent                           | 349 (28.7) |
| Very good                           | 400 (32.8) |
| Poor/fair/good                      | 469 (38.5) |
| Physical abuse                      |            |
| Yes                                 | 757 (62.2) |
| No                                  | 461 (37.8) |
| Bullied                             |            |
| Yes                                 | 272 (22.3) |
| No                                  | 946 (77.8) |
| Feel alone                          |            |
| Yes                                 | 247 (20.3) |
| No                                  | 971 (79.7) |

Table 5.4 (continued)

| ACE exposures               | n (%)       |
|-----------------------------|-------------|
| Hunger                      |             |
| Yes                         | 958 (78.7)  |
| No                          | 260 (21.4)  |
| Self-reported health        |             |
| Below average               | 156 (12.1)  |
| About average               | 647 (53.1)  |
| Above average               | 415 (34.1)  |
| Health limitation           | 108 (8.7)   |
| Relationship with neighbour |             |
| Willing to help             | 557 (45.7)  |
| Close knit                  | 521 (42.8)  |
| Relationship with friends   |             |
| Good                        | 782 (64.2)  |
| Not good                    | 436 (35.8)  |
| Safe neighbourhood          |             |
| Yes                         | 601 (49.3)  |
| No                          | 617 (50.7)  |
| Urban/rural Residence       |             |
| Rural                       | 1083 (88.9) |
| Urban                       | 135 (11.1)  |

Note: ACE = Adverse childhood experience

#### 5.1.4.4 Descriptive Data for Community-level Covariates

Table 5.5 provides descriptive statistics for the community-level characteristics (Appendix B5 provides a detailed description of amenities and the overall community quality). The average amenity index was 0.28, which indicated the average number of facilities in every community was approximately four. The average population size in each community was 3,441 and the average number of older adults was 392. The average annual income in the community was 194,184 Chinese yuan (about \$37,794 Canadian dollars). The average overall community quality score was relatively low (22.65 out of 43).

Table 5.5 Descriptive statistics for community-level variables ( $n_1=360$ ,  $n_2=1,218$ )

| Variables                      | Mean    | SD    | Median | IQR     |
|--------------------------------|---------|-------|--------|---------|
| Amenities                      | 0.28    | 0.27  | 0.21   | 0.43    |
| Overall community quality      | 22.65   | 6.17  | 22     | 9       |
| The proportion of older adults | 0.15    | 0.32  | 0.11   | 0.11    |
| Total income <sup>a</sup>      | 194,184 | 63,80 | 61,060 | 159,800 |
| Total population               | 3,440   | 3,455 | 2,273  | 3,200   |

Note.  $n_1$ = number of communities

$n_2$ = number of individuals

SD = standard deviation

IQR= interquartile range

<sup>a</sup> = Chinese yuan

### 5.1.5 Identifying the Optimal Subset of Individual- and Community-level Covariates (Stage 1 Regression Analysis)

As mentioned in Chapter 2, numerous individual- and community-level covariates (Tables 5.2 and 5.3 above) are associated with depression symptoms. To reduce the number of these covariates needed for the regression models used in stage 2 of the regression analysis, I employed the EFA, LASSO regression, and PLFA techniques described in Section 4.6.2.1 above. Four individual-level factors (i.e., demographic and SES, health and functioning, living arrangements, and lifestyle) and two community-level factors (i.e., population density and socioeconomic influence) were constructed by EFA (see Appendix D2) and PLFA (see Appendix E2). A subset of individual- and community-level covariates were selected by the LASSO regression, and are described in Section 5.1.5.2.

#### 5.1.5.1 Determine the Optimal Model

The common factors extracted by EFA and PLFA, and the covariates selected by LASSO, were entered into three separate multilevel logistic regression models (stage 1

regression analysis). Each of the three models included the ACEs, depression symptoms (outcome), and the covariate set from one of the selection methods: (1) the model in Section 5.2.2.3 contained individual- and community-level covariates selected by LASSO; (2) the model in Appendix D3 included the covariates identified by EFA; (3) and the model in Appendix E3 included the covariates identified by PLFA.

Of the three models, the model with the covariates that were selected by the LASSO technique showed the best fit. This particular model had the smallest absolute numerical  $-2 \log$  likelihood, AIC, BIC, and Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test results (See Appendix F for model fit parameters comparison), compared to the other two models. Smaller values on these tests indicate better fit.

Given the results described in the previous paragraph, the covariate set chosen through LASSO regression was used in the subsequent stage 2 of regression modelling, where four models were developed to examine the association between ACEs and depression symptoms: null model, model with all ACEs and no covariates, model with all ACEs and individual-level covariates, and model with ACEs and both individual- and community-level covariates.

### **5.1.5.2 Least Absolute Shrinkage and Selection Operator Regression**

In the LASSO regression procedure, I applied the cross-validation approach to choose the best tuning parameter ( $\lambda$ ) for 21 individual-level covariates ( $\lambda=0.045$ ) and five community-level covariates ( $\lambda=0.028$ ). The coefficients of the covariates that were shrunk to zero (i.e., age, education level, annual household consumption, marital status, living alone, IADL difficulties, total income of the community, and total population in the community) were not included in further modelling.

Table 5.6 displays the individual-level covariates selected by multiple LASSO regression, namely sex, occupation status, chronic disease index, cognitive function, ADL, and rural residence. Respondents who were female, had higher chronic disease index scores, some ADL difficulties, or lived in rural areas had higher odds of reporting depression symptoms compared to males, individuals with lower chronic disease index scores, no ADL difficulties, and persons who lived in urban regions. Compared to persons who were employed, respondents who were retired or unemployed had lower odds of reporting depression symptoms.

Table 5.6 The estimates of LASSO regression on individual-level covariates (n=1,218)

| Variables             | Adjusted OR | 95% CI        |
|-----------------------|-------------|---------------|
| Sex                   |             |               |
| Male                  | REF         |               |
| Female                | 2.73        | (1.11, 3.45)  |
| Occupation            |             |               |
| Employed              | REF         |               |
| Retired               | 0.58        | (0.26, 0.87)  |
| Unemployed            | 0.62        | (0.34, 2.91)  |
| Chronic disease index | 18.19       | (8.85, 25.62) |
| TICS                  | 0.83        | (0.77, 0.96)  |
| ADL difficulties      |             |               |
| Yes                   | REF         |               |
| No                    | 1.21        | (1.02, 3.40)  |
| Rural residence       | 1.06        | (0.78, 1.69)  |

Note. REF = reference level

OR = odds ratio, ORs were adjusted for other covariates

CI = confidence interval

LASSO = least absolute shrinkage and selection operator

Table 5.7 lists the community-level covariates chosen by LASSO regression, including the proportion of older adults living in the community, amenities, and overall community quality. Respondents who lived in communities with fewer amenities had greater odds of exhibiting depression symptoms.

Table 5.7 The estimates of LASSO of community-level variables (n=360)

| Variables                      | Adjusted OR | 95% CI       |
|--------------------------------|-------------|--------------|
| The proportion of older adults | 1.00        | (0.92, 1.06) |
| Amenities                      | 0.71        | (0.52, 0.93) |
| Overall community quality      | 1.01        | (0.93, 1.15) |

Note. OR=odds ratio, ORs were adjusted for other covariates

CI = confidence interval

LASSO = least absolute shrinkage and selection operator

## 5.2 Multilevel Regression Models Assessing the Association between Adverse Childhood Experiences and Depression Symptoms (Stage 2 Regression Analysis)

### 5.2.1 Community Impacts and Depression Symptoms

The first step in the multilevel regression analysis entailed estimating the intercept only. Table 5.8 reports the results of the null model (Model 1 without any predictor variables). The test results indicated that 360 communities were different from one another regarding depression symptoms among elderly residents. From the model estimates, the log-odds of exhibiting depression symptoms in an ‘average’ community (one with random effect  $v_{0j}$ ) was estimated as  $\gamma_{00} = -0.78$ .

The likelihood ratio statistic was 1,538.8 ( $-2*(-769.41)$ ) with one degree of freedom, so there was strong evidence that the between-community variance was non-zero. The ICC was 0.09, indicating that about 9% of the variation in depression symptoms could be explained by community factors. These results supported the use of multilevel models.

Table 5.8 Fixed and random parameter estimates from Model 1 (null model)

|                               | Model 1                |
|-------------------------------|------------------------|
|                               | Coefficient (95% CI)   |
| Intercept                     | -0.78 (-0.93, -0.62)** |
| <b>Random parameters</b>      |                        |
| Across communities            | 0.31 (1.10, 1.41)***   |
| Intra-class correlation (ICC) | 0.09                   |
| <b>Model fit statistics</b>   |                        |
| -2 log likelihood             | 1,538.80               |
| AIC                           | 1,542.80               |
| BIC                           | 1,553.00               |

Note. †p<0.10, \*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01, \*\*\*p<0.001  
 CI = confidence interval

## 5.2.2 Research Question 1: Adverse Childhood Experiences and Depression

### Symptoms

Research question 1 asked whether there will be an association between ACEs and depression symptoms among Chinese older adults. To answer this research question, depression symptoms was first regressed on each separate ACE to assess the univariate association. As shown in Table 5.9, the crude odds of exhibiting depression symptoms were higher for respondents who experienced bullying, felt alone, had no close-knit ties with neighbours, had at least one health limitation, experienced hunger, and lived in rural areas during their childhood. On the other hand, the odds of experiencing depression symptoms were lower for respondents who reported above average health, compared to those who reported below average health.

Next, all ACE variables were entered together into Model 2 (without adjusting for individual- or community-level covariates) to estimate adjusted odds ratios for each ACE. The results of Model 2 were presented in Table 5.10: older adults who were bullied, felt alone, had a relatively poor relationship with their mother, and had some health limitations were at

greater odds of exhibiting depression symptoms compared to individuals who were not exposed to these adversities. Also, the odds of depression symptoms were lower for respondents who reported above average health compared to below average health in childhood.

Table 5.9 Univariate regression results for ACEs (n=1,218)

| Main effects: ACEs                           | Unadjusted OR     | 95% CI       |
|--|-------------------|--------------|
| Death of parents <sup>1</sup>                | 0.84              | (0.44, 1.59) |
| Death of siblings <sup>1</sup>               | 1.18              | (0.83, 1.69) |
| Physical abuse <sup>1</sup>                  | 1.22              | (0.91, 1.63) |
| Bullied <sup>1</sup>                         | 1.41*             | (1.04, 1.91) |
| Relationship with mother                     |                   |              |
| Excellent                                    | REF               |              |
| Very good                                    | 1.13              | (0.80, 1.61) |
| Poor/fair/good                               | 1.35              | (0.96, 1.91) |
| Relationship with father                     |                   |              |
| Excellent                                    | REF               |              |
| Very good                                    | 1.16              | (0.81, 1.65) |
| Poor/fair/good                               | 0.54              | (0.81, 1.63) |
| Relationship with neighbours                 |                   |              |
| Helping neighbours <sup>1</sup>              | 1.29 <sup>+</sup> | (0.97, 1.71) |
| Close-knit ties with neighbours <sup>1</sup> | 1.41*             | (1.06, 1.88) |
| Good relationship with friends <sup>1</sup>  | 1.29              | (0.96, 1.73) |
| Self-reported health                         |                   |              |
| Below average                                | REF               |              |
| About average                                | 0.74              | (0.48, 1.13) |
| Above average                                | 0.49*             | (0.31, 0.78) |
| Health limitation <sup>1</sup>               | 1.91*             | (1.02, 2.41) |
| Unsafe neighbourhood <sup>1</sup>            | 1.10              | (0.83, 1.46) |
| Live in rural <sup>1</sup>                   | 1.68*             | (1.02, 2.77) |
| Hunger <sup>1</sup>                          | 1.45*             | (1.01, 2.07) |
| Feel alone <sup>1</sup>                      | 1.78**            | (1.27, 2.48) |

Note. <sup>+</sup>p<0.10, \*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01, \*\*\*p<0.001

OR= odds ratio

CI = confidence interval

REF= reference level

<sup>1</sup>= Yes vs. no

ACE = Adverse childhood experience



### **5.2.3 Research Question 2: Adverse Childhood Experiences, Individual-, Community-level Covariates, and Depression Symptoms**

Univariate analysis of depression symptoms and all individual-level covariates are reported in Appendix C. The results demonstrated that some individual-level covariates, including female sex, higher scores on the chronic disease index, any versus no ADL difficulties, and cognitive impairment were positively associated with depression symptoms.

To test associations between ACEs and depression symptoms after adjustment for individual-level covariates, the individual-level covariates selected by LASSO regression were added to Model 2, to form Model 3. As shown in Table 5.10, Model 3 showed that respondents who were bullied, felt alone, had a bad relationship with their mother, and had some limitations in health were at increased odds of exhibiting depression symptoms compared to participants who were not exposed to these adversities. Respondents who reported a poor/fair/good relationship with their father had lower odds of depression symptoms compared to participants who reported an excellent relationship with their father.

The next analysis aimed to test whether the associations between ACEs and depression symptoms would change after adding community-level covariates to Model 3. These community-level variables were selected via LASSO regression, and together with the ACEs and individual-level variables formed Model 4 (Table 5.10). In model 4, the odds of depression symptoms were higher for respondents who reported being bullied, feeling alone, having relatively poor (i.e., poor/fair/good) relationships with their mothers during childhood, and having at least one health limitation, compared to participants who did not report any of these issues. Respondents who reported a poor/fair/good relationship with their father during

childhood had lower odds of experiencing depression symptoms compared to participants who reported an excellent relationship with their father.

Additionally, the results from Model 4 suggested that older adults who were living in communities/villages with more amenities had lower odds of reporting depression symptoms. These results were consistent with the results from the univariate analysis of depression symptoms and all community-level covariates (see Appendix C).

### **5.2.4 Model Summary**

Table 5.10 provides a comparative summary of Models 2 through 4. As shown in the table, the directions of association for most of the ACEs were consistent across the three models, except for two ACEs in Model 3 and 4 compared to model 2 (i.e., had a very good relationship with father and lived in an unsafe neighbourhood). The ORs for most ACEs increased after adding covariates except for having relatively poor relationship with father, hunger, and living in rural. Also, parameter estimates for the ACEs were stable and robust in Model 3 and 4. For example, significant associations between some ACEs (i.e., bullied, feel alone, had a poor relationship with mother, and had at least one health limitation) and depression symptoms remained after controlling for individual-level covariates or both individual- and community-level covariates. Some differences across the models can also be noted. For instance, the odds ratio of having a poor/fair/good relationship with one's father became significant after controlling for the covariates in Models 3 and 4.

Compared to Models 2 and 3, the doctoral candidate chose Model 3 as the final model because this model had the lowest model fit parameters (e.g., -2 log likelihood, AIC, and BIC, etc.), and only one of the ORs (i.e., death of parents) for the ACEs changed appreciably when the community-level covariates are added to model 3 to form model 4.

Table 5.10 Fixed and random parameter estimates from Model 2 - Model 4 (n=1,218)

|  | Model 2                        | Model 3                        | Model 4                        |
|--|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
|  | OR (95% CI)                    | OR (95% CI)                    | OR (95% CI)                    |
| Intercept                                    | 0.21 (0.08, 0.57)**            | 0.01 (0.00,0.03)**             | 0.01 (0.00, 0.04)**            |
| <b>Fixed parameters</b>                      |                                |                                |                                |
| <b>Main effects: ACEs</b>                    |                                |                                |                                |
| Death of parents <sup>1</sup>                | 0.94 (0.49, 1.78)              | 0.92 (0.36, 1.80)              | 0.72 (0.36, 1.46)              |
| Death of siblings <sup>1</sup>               | 1.17 (0.82, 1.68)              | 1.31 (0.89, 1.95)              | 1.30 (0.88, 1.93)              |
| Physical abuse <sup>1</sup>                  | 1.08 (0.78, 1.45)              | 1.21 (0.87, 1.68)              | 1.24 (0.89, 1.72)              |
| Bullied <sup>1</sup>                         | 1.35 (1.06, 1.88) <sup>+</sup> | 1.45 (1.01, 2.10)*             | 1.44 (1.01, 2.01) <sup>+</sup> |
| Feel alone <sup>1</sup>                      | 1.57 (1.11, 2.21) <sup>+</sup> | 1.58 (1.08, 2.30)*             | 1.57 (1.08, 2.29)*             |
| Relationship with mother                     |                                |                                |                                |
| Excellent                                    | REF                            | REF                            | REF                            |
| Very good                                    | 1.00 (0.59, 1.71)              | 1.19 (0.68, 2.08)              | 1.20 (0.68, 2.10)              |
| Poor/fair/good                               | 1.58 (1.03, 3.03)*             | 1.98 (1.09, 3.58)*             | 1.93 (1.07, 3.49)*             |
| Relationship with father                     |                                |                                |                                |
| Excellent                                    | REF                            | REF                            | REF                            |
| Very good                                    | 1.11 (0.69, 1.81)              | 0.86 (0.49, 1.53)              | 0.86 (0.49, 1.52)              |
| Poor/fair/good                               | 0.89 (0.54, 1.47)              | 0.53 (0.29, 0.98)*             | 0.54 (0.29, 1.00)*             |
| Helping neighbours <sup>1</sup>              | 1.05 (0.74, 1.49)              | 1.08 (0.73, 1.57)              | 1.08 (0.74, 1.58)              |
| Close-knit ties with neighbours <sup>1</sup> | 1.22 (0.86, 1.74)              | 1.35 (0.92, 2.00)              | 1.33 (0.90, 1.95)              |
| Good relationship with friends <sup>1</sup>  | 1.21 (0.90, 1.63)              | 1.19 (0.86, 1.66)              | 1.20 (0.87, 1.66)              |
| Self-reported health                         |                                |                                |                                |
| Below average                                | REF                            | REF                            | REF                            |
| About average                                | 0.82 (0.53, 1.27)              | 0.88 (0.54, 1.41)              | 0.86 (0.54, 1.39)              |
| Above average                                | 0.59 (0.37, 0.95)*             | 0.71 (0.43, 1.20) <sup>+</sup> | 0.73 (0.43, 1.21) <sup>+</sup> |
| Health limitation <sup>1</sup>               | 1.52 (1.02, 2.49) <sup>+</sup> | 1.54 (1.07, 2.65)*             | 1.57 (1.00, 2.67) <sup>+</sup> |
| Unsafe neighbourhood <sup>1</sup>            | 0.95 (0.70, 1.29)              | 1.06 (0.76, 1.49)              | 1.05 (0.75, 1.46)              |
| Hunger <sup>1</sup>                          | 1.27 (0.88, 1.83)              | 1.18 (0.79, 1.76)              | 1.21 (0.81, 1.81)              |

Table 5.10 (continued)

|                                    | Model 2           | Model 3                | Model 4                |
|------------------------------------|-------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
|                                    | OR (95% CI)       | OR (95% CI)            | OR (95% CI)            |
| Live in rural <sup>1</sup>         | 1.50 (0.91, 2.50) | 1.05 (0.55, 2.01)      | 1.03 (0.55, 1.96)      |
| <b>Individual level covariates</b> |                   |                        |                        |
| Female                             |                   | 2.11 (1.52, 2.92)***   | 2.08 (1.51, 2.88)***   |
| Occupation                         |                   |                        |                        |
| Employed                           |                   | REF                    | REF                    |
| Retired                            |                   | 0.63 (0.38, 1.05)      | 0.62 (0.38, 1.02)+     |
| Unemployed                         |                   | 0.75 (0.163, 3.47)     | 0.75 (0.16, 3.45)      |
| Chronic disease index              |                   | 19.32 (6.97, 53.53)*** | 18.03 (6.57, 49.51)*** |
| TICS                               |                   | 2.96 (1.30, 7.00)*     | 0.96 (0.93, 0.99)*     |
| ADL                                |                   | 2.96 (1.30, 7.00)*     | 0.96 (0.93, 0.99)*     |
| Rural residence <sup>1</sup>       |                   | 1.22 (0.83, 1.81)      | 1.24 (0.84, 1.83)+     |
| <b>Community level covariates</b>  |                   |                        |                        |
| Older people composition           |                   |                        | 1.00 (1.00, 1.01)      |
| Amenities index                    |                   |                        | 0.80 (0.41, 0.90) *    |
| Community environment              |                   |                        | 1.02 (0.99, 1.05)      |
| <b>Random parameters</b>           |                   |                        |                        |
| Across communities                 | 0.32**            | 0.21***                | 0.18***                |
| Intra-class correlation (ICC)      | 0.03              | 0.06                   | 0.05                   |
| <b>Model fit statistics</b>        |                   |                        |                        |
| -2 log likelihood                  | 1,190.14          | 1,069.39               | 1,068.73               |
| AIC                                | 1,230.10          | 1,123.40               | 1,128.70               |
| BIC                                | 1,634.40          | 1,255.70               | 1,275.80               |
| HL estimate                        | 5,571.20          | 4,664.80               | 4,862.00               |

Note. +p<0.10, \*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01, \*\*\*p<0.001, REF= reference level, <sup>1</sup>= Yes vs. no, ACE = Adverse childhood experience  
HL= Hosmer-Lemeshow, OR= odds ratio, CI = confidence interval.

## **5.3 Summary**

This chapter reported the results of the quantitative analyses undertaken for the doctoral dissertation. The following chapter will explain the results, address the strengths and limitations of the thesis research, and discuss the implications of the findings for researchers, public health policy makers, and clinicians.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **DISCUSSION**

This chapter discusses the main findings of the thesis. It also includes the strengths and weaknesses of the thesis, and future implications such as research directions and policy and clinical applications. The chapter ends with a general conclusion.

#### **6.1 Summary of the Findings**

This is the first study of individual- and community-level ACEs and depression symptoms in older Chinese adults. Using CHARLS data, this dissertation focused on examining the association between ACEs and depression symptoms after adjustment for covariates at the individual and the community levels. Specifically, this study focused on two research questions.

The first question asked about the crude association between ACE exposures and depression symptoms prior to covariate adjustment. It was proposed that each childhood adversity was associated with depression symptoms.

This thesis provides empirical evidence to answer this research question. Several ACE variables were found to be positively associated with depression symptoms in simple regression analyses, with the crude odds of experiencing depression symptoms being higher for older adults who experienced bullying, felt alone, had at least one health limitation, reported relatively poor health status, reported hunger, and were raised in rural regions before the age of 18 years. On the other hand, respondents who reported close-knit ties with their neighbours had lower odds of

experiencing depression symptoms, compared to participants who reported no close-knit ties with their neighbours.

Moreover, multivariable regression analysis (Model 2) with just the ACEs and no covariates showed older adults who were bullied, felt alone, had a relatively poor relationship with their mother, had relatively poor health, and had some health limitations were at greater odds of exhibiting depression symptoms compared to respondents who did not report these adversities.

The second question examined the association between ACEs and depression symptoms following adjustment for different individual- and/or community-level covariates. It was proposed that the strength of some of the associations would change after controlling for individual- and community-level covariates.

Results showed that ACE exposures, including being bullied, feeling alone, having poor health, having at least one health limitation, and having a relatively poor relationship with mother were positively associated with depression symptoms after adjustment for individual-level covariates (Model 3) and both individual- and community-level covariates (Model 4). Also, having a relatively poor relationship with father was found to be negatively associated with depression symptoms in both models.

For most ACE variables and individual-level covariates, the adjusted ORs were quite similar in Models 3 and 4. One exception was the odds of depression symptoms for participants who reported the death of parents in childhood, which decreased from 0.92 to 0.72 after adding the community-level covariates (though the adjusted ORs in Models 3 and 4 were both not statistically significant at  $\alpha = 0.05$ ). Female, unemployed/retired, unhealthy older participants were at greater risk of depression symptoms. Respondents who lived in rural areas and

communities with more amenities were found to have lower odds of experiencing depression symptoms compared to participants who did not live in such communities (Model 4).

## **6.2 Adverse Childhood Experiences and Depression Symptoms**

While research has shown associations between ACEs and depression symptoms in Western countries, no known studies in this area have focused on Chinese older adults. Thereby, this study advances the literature by empirically demonstrating associations between a wide range of ACE exposures and depression symptoms in older adults in China, which is important given the unique childhood experiences of these participants. Strong adjusted associations with depression symptoms were observed for many ACEs, including maltreatment, health status, and living circumstance among Chinese elderly.

In our sample, 82.7% of participants experienced at least three ACEs. Most frequently reported ACEs were death of parents, insufficient food, and rural residence before the age of 18 years. As most persons in our sample lived in rural areas during the Cultural Revolution and the Great Chinese Famine, the high prevalence of these adversities is not surprising.

Despite the unique childhood experiences of participants in the context of China, the associations between ACEs and depression symptoms in the thesis were consistent with previous findings in non-Chinese samples <sup>(16, 62, 93, 155-158)</sup>, as will be shown in the following sections. This important finding suggests many ACEs are associated with detrimental effects on late-life depression regardless of the unique historical experiences of specific groups of people.

### **6.2.1 Interpersonal Loss**

Interpersonal loss, including the death of parents and the death of siblings, were not statistically significant in this study. This finding mirrors what has been reported in most



previous research <sup>(14, 17, 83, 159, 160)</sup>, though one study found an early loss of the male's mother and an early loss of the female's father to be predictive of depression in older age <sup>(161)</sup>. No existing study found any results about the association between loss of siblings and depression symptoms in later life. Results from a study using a nationally representative longitudinal survey in South Korea indicated the association between parental deaths and depression symptoms differed by gender and age at the time of data collection <sup>(162)</sup>. In our data, we did not differentiate between the deaths of fathers and mothers, and we did not stratify analysis across gender and age, which may explain some of the discrepant findings.

One possible explanation for the absence of an association in the thesis is that the relationship between depression symptoms and death of parents or siblings was moderated by other factors such as closeness to parents or siblings <sup>(163)</sup>. Another possible explanation is China's extended kinship system and joint family culture before the 1980s, especially in the rural areas, where married relatives tended to live close to one another even if they formed separate family units. In these cases, other family members might take on the role of parents when children were orphaned and resources from family members might be pooled together for joint economic survival in times of social turmoil.

## **6.2.2 Maltreatment**

In this thesis, estimates of the adjusted positive association between childhood physical abuse and depression symptoms were small yet stable. Substantive evidence suggests that childhood physical abuse has adverse effects on mental health in later life <sup>(14, 16, 57, 157, 158, 164)</sup>. Childhood physical abuse has been found to be associated with depression (OR: 2.0, 95% CI= [1.7, 2.3]) in developing countries using the WHO World Mental Health survey <sup>(14)</sup>. About 30% of later-onset depression disorders were associated with childhood abuse, and the Netherlands

Study of Depression in Older Persons reported a strong association between these two variables (OR= 13.71, 95% CI= [3.25, 57.91])<sup>(157)</sup>. Moreover, a dose-response relationship between childhood abuse and depression has been found in a cross-sectional analysis<sup>(16)</sup>, where a greater frequency of abuse was positively associated with late-life depression. Abuse in this cross-sectional study was measured using an index calculated as the sum of the number and frequency of childhood abuse episodes suffered by each participant.<sup>(7)</sup>

One explanation for these findings is that childhood physical abuse could trigger elevated neuroticism levels and contribute to inflammation of multiple organs (e.g., heart and liver), which may increase vulnerability to late-life depression<sup>(14, 158)</sup>. Childhood abuse may also be associated with lower self-esteem and deteriorating health, which in turn can lead to depression in later life<sup>(16)</sup>.

This study is among the first in China to demonstrate that bullying in childhood influences mental health in adulthood. Results across models showed stable adjusted ORs between these two variables. The associations between being bullied in childhood and depression symptoms in older age were consistent, with most ORs in Models 2 - 4 approximating 1.5, similar to estimates in previous studies<sup>(165, 166)</sup>.

The mechanisms underlying the association between bullying and depression symptoms remain to be clarified. On one hand, it is possible that poor mental health is a function of stress symptoms that develop and intensify over time, after repeated exposure to bullying, and serve as an early precursor of symptoms of depression across the life-course. On the other hand, biological embedding of stress theories suggests that childhood bullying is associated with a blunted cortisol response and higher serotonin transporter gene methylation levels, which could constitute a further pathway for poor mental health outcomes in later adulthood<sup>(22)</sup>. Persistent

bullying in childhood may instill feelings of low self-esteem and low self-worth that define personas throughout adulthood, eventually leading to depression.

### **6.2.3 Health Status**

This thesis found a positive association between poor self-reported childhood health status and late-life depression symptoms in China. Significant variations in childhood health status were observed among different age groups. There was a lower proportion with self-reported good childhood health status for the cohort aged 60 to 69 years, reflecting the possible adverse impact of the Great Chinese Famine during 1959-61<sup>(80)</sup>. A higher proportion of participants aged 70 years or over reported good childhood health, probably due to survival effects during periods of deprivation around the civil war and its aftermath, and the turmoil of the Cultural Revolution<sup>(4)</sup>.

These findings are in line with studies showing that individuals who experienced severe physical illness during childhood had a considerably increased risk of developing depression symptoms in old age<sup>(17, 62, 157)</sup>. Similar finds have also been reported in previous studies that were conducted in China<sup>(82, 83, 167)</sup>. In the Chinese context, it is possible that poor health in childhood restricts access to higher educational attainment, migration to urban areas, higher relative living standards, and better health care, all of which coalesce to increase depression symptoms in later life.

### **6.2.4 Living Circumstances**

Unfavorable childhood living conditions, namely rural residence status, unsafe neighbourhoods, and insufficient food, exerted a positive impact on late life depression symptoms in old age in this thesis. These findings are in line with several other studies<sup>(62, 80, 83,</sup>

<sup>167, 168</sup>). For example, recent evidence showed that childhood living conditions exerted direct or indirect long-term effects on physical and mental health in older age <sup>(167, 168)</sup>. The similarities between studies, many of which were conducted in different settings, suggest that universal mechanisms underlie the association between childhood living conditions and depression symptoms in old age. <sup>(8, 9)</sup>

First, disadvantageous living conditions early in life can affect the development of innate and acquired immune functions via ‘resource allocation trade-offs’, where external exposures can affect variations in immune functions later in life <sup>(169)</sup>. Second, adverse living conditions during childhood can influence the development of self-esteem, personal traits, and coping strategies and may impact health throughout the life course, such as by a dose-response function between toxins and intelligence quotient (IQ) reduction <sup>(168, 169)</sup>. This finding is in accordance with the ecological theory, which suggests that negative health outcomes do not stem from a single incident or types of adversities, but rather factors that exist across various levels of a child’s environment, including a child’s surrounding community <sup>(168, 169)</sup>. Additionally, unique features regarding disease and urbanization profiles in China, such as intense deprivation during World War II and the Civil War, continuing famine and political upheaval during Mao Zedong’s era, and subsequent marketization and urbanization, may have led to long-term exposures to disadvantaged environments that enhance depression symptomatology in later life.

These studies also propose that residing in an insecure community may lead to negative effects for parents, such as depression or economic deprivation, which can negatively impact parenting abilities and parent-child relationships. A problematic living environment in childhood could have a detrimental impact on academic achievement and social class, which could affect health in later life <sup>(169)</sup>.

## **6.2.5 Other Adversities**

### **6.2.5.1 Loneliness**

The thesis showed feeling lonely in childhood influences depression symptoms in older Chinese adults. This meshes with existing evidence in other studies <sup>(22, 170)</sup>. Loneliness from lack of friends/peers and seclusion are more explanatory for depression than loneliness related to parents <sup>(171)</sup>. It could be possible that friends are the preferred source of social support during childhood <sup>(22, 171)</sup>. Higher social and peer support increases levels of self-esteem and lowers the potential for later life depression symptoms <sup>(22, 171)</sup>. Past studies also pointed out that children who experienced loneliness tended to achieve lower educational attainment and less advantaged social class in adulthood, and were therefore more likely to be psychologically distressed across the life-course <sup>(22, 170, 171)</sup>.

### **6.2.5.2 Interpersonal Difficulties**

This thesis consistently found an increased likelihood of exhibiting depression symptoms among older adults who had poor relationships with their mothers, friends, and neighbours. Published studies showed that childhood interpersonal challenges, including difficult relationships or interactions with friends, parents, and acquaintances are often associated with high prevalence, relapse, or poor recovery from depression symptoms in adulthood <sup>(164, 170-172)</sup>. Childhood interpersonal challenges may have a negative impact on social relationships, support networks, and coping strategies. Changes in social networks or social functioning in early life may destabilize psychological well-being throughout the life course <sup>(170, 172)</sup>.

It is possible that childhood interpersonal difficulties may predispose persons to develop vulnerable beliefs about themselves and society, and view the world as threatening. From a

cognitive perspective, poor relationships with parents or guardians who are harsh, or overly critical or neglectful during childhood, may influence the development of maladaptive schema (22, 170-172). Thus, poor child-parent relationships can help form the basis for later negative information processing regarding the self and others. For instance, perceiving others to be emotionally unavailable, hostile, or rejecting can lead to an increased risk of depression symptoms over the lifetime (22, 170-172).

This thesis found that respondents who reported a relatively poor relationship with their fathers were less likely to show depression symptoms than those who had an excellent relationship with their fathers. As a consequence of the influence of traditional Chinese culture on gender positions, where fathers were more likely to dominate economic and social life (e.g., moneymaking and socializing outside the home), while mothers were more likely to dominate in the family (e.g., take care of family members and domestic work), a so-called ‘stern father and compassionate mother’ family culture was formed (173). The father was a representative of family authority and rather distant, while the mother spent most of her time caring for the children. Therefore, children may have developed the belief that ‘poor’ relationships with the father were ‘normal’ and expected, and the impact of such poor relationships was not sufficient to adversely affect their psychological profile in later life.

Childhood friendship has been shown to be a protective factor on the effects of depression in later life, especially in women (174). This study also suggested that the development of friendship in childhood is one of the most important non-family activities negatively related to later depression symptoms. Friendships in childhood offer an environment in which children are capable of developing social competencies and skills, both of which are crucial for good mental health in later life.

Good relationship with neighbours is negatively associated with depression symptoms in late life <sup>(171, 174)</sup>. Neighbours can be a source of emotional and instrumental support, and offer material assistance and emotional understanding to children experiencing maltreatment or harsh parental relationships.

## **6.3 Individual and Community-level Covariates and Depression**

### **Symptoms**

This thesis found a number of individual- and community-level covariates - measured at the time of data collection in CHARLS rather than in childhood - to be risk factors for depression symptoms, consistent with previous studies. First, existing research almost always concludes that older women are at more risk of depression symptoms than men <sup>(53, 92, 93)</sup>. On the one hand, preference for sons has been documented in developing countries, such as China, where boys are treated better than girls in families, especially in disadvantaged or rural families <sup>(175)</sup>. Families who allocate more resources to sons at the expense of daughters might produce feelings of neglect among women that ultimately lead to depression in later years. Conversely, this finding may be due to women being more likely to report their feelings, while men are more likely to deny their feelings or act them out through smoking or alcoholism <sup>(33)</sup>.

Second, the finding of higher depression scores among older unhealthy adults (e.g., persons with chronic disease comorbidities, cognitive impairment, and functional limitations) reflects published findings in the depression literature that indicate health or functional factors are important risk factors for late-life depression <sup>(85, 88, 176, 177)</sup>. One explanation is that older adults may experience functional challenges, frailty or other chronic health problems, for which they require utilization of long-term care services and costs <sup>(85, 88)</sup>. Also, depression symptoms

have negative impacts on physical health and vice versa <sup>(85, 88)</sup>. Therefore, late-life physical frailty negatively affects depression symptoms and requires multifaceted interventions.

Third, the results showed a negative association between occupation or employment and depression symptoms in older adults, which was consistent with the previous literature <sup>(88, 176, 177)</sup>. It is possible that employment or occupation category in the elderly not only provides economic support (e.g., wage and pension), but also provides social support, social participation, and emotional recognition <sup>(88, 176)</sup>. Thus, the benefits of employment may translate into better health in later life. This finding suggests that public policies promoting or protecting older adults' employment may have positive impacts on mental health among seniors.

Additionally, rural seniors are at greater risk of depression symptoms than those residing in urban regions. Studies in China have consistently reported higher levels of depression symptoms among rural older adults compared to their urban counterparts <sup>(13, 50)</sup>. In China, urban residence benefits health primarily through better access to social, economic and health resources. However, the majority of aging people live in rural areas, and these individuals may have lower levels of social support and social participation than their urban peers, in part because fewer amenities and organizations exist in rural villages to facilitate social interactions. Also, access to health services in rural areas is often restricted.

Finally, this study found a significant association between the availability of community-based amenities and depression symptoms in later life. The finding supports the evidence that community characteristics are important mediators or moderators of older residents' mental health status (e.g., greater access to help, mutual support, and information diffusion) <sup>(100, 178, 179)</sup>. Consistent with this finding, studies have reported that living in disadvantaged neighbourhoods is related to a higher risk of late-life depression symptoms <sup>(99-102)</sup>. The thesis results provide



further empirical evidence that the organizations in communities/villages may help to facilitate interactions with others and improve coping capacities. In this thesis, older respondents from different communities/villages had different patterns of depression symptoms even accounting for individual-level effects.

## **6.4 Study Strengths**

This thesis enriches the current literature in several ways. First, to our knowledge, this is the first study to investigate the association between a wide range of ACEs and depression symptoms in Chinese older adults. Respondents in this thesis were born in 1954 or earlier. During that time period, Chinese history was tumultuous and challenging, especially for children. One a priori belief underlying the thesis research was that Western findings pertaining to ACEs and depression symptoms might not be readily applicable to China on account of the latter's unique history. However, the analysis of CHARLS data found the opposite for many ACEs, with results showing general agreement with Western findings. This suggests ACEs have an overarching detrimental effect on depression symptoms, regardless of the unique historical circumstances of any population under study. From a clinical perspective, the thesis results stress the need to consider childhood adversity when treating late-life depression, irrespective of historical context.

Second, the CHARLS dataset includes a large nationwide sample of older adults in China, which promotes representativeness of the study population and helps minimize the effect of selection bias.

Third, this study contributes to the ongoing discussion about the pathways linking early-life adversities to mental health in China <sup>(162, 167, 168)</sup>. Moreover, this thesis has important

implications for the impact of Chinese traditional culture, values and beliefs during childhood on depression symptoms in older age.

We also found that favourable early life conditions could protect against depression symptoms in old age. Health policy makers in China can target maltreatment (e.g., physical abuse), bullying, loneliness, environmental characteristics (e.g., access to food and living conditions), and social functioning (e.g., family and school networks or relationships) to improve the mental health of children, and, over time, the well-being of older persons.

In addition, this study employed a theoretical framework that incorporated social determinants, socioecological contexts, and life-course perspectives to underpin the link between ACEs and depression symptoms in older age. This theoretical framework yields an integrated picture regarding contributors to psychological well-being among Chinese older adults. Moreover, this study included a rich assortment of covariates at the individual and community levels to present a more holistic analysis of the intertwined processes that coalesce to affect the association between ACEs and later life depression symptoms.

## **6.5 Limitations**

Some limitations exist with the research undertaken for the thesis. First, ACEs are reported retrospectively; as such, the memory of these traumatic events may be subject to recall bias. Also, childhood maltreatment and politically related items (e.g., Cultural Revolution) are sensitive topics and may be difficult for some participants to report accurately. Some of the participants may be reluctant to provide responses to questions pertaining to agonizing memories, or admit to experiencing ACEs. Other participants may block out ACEs as a means of coping with traumatic events from the past. As a result, the association between ACEs and depression symptoms may be underestimated due to the reporting bias. Additionally, the ACEs

measured in CHARLS do not constitute the entire universe of early life adversity that a child may experience, and should therefore not be considered as an exhaustive set.

Second, CHARLS was not specifically designed for investigating the effects of early life events among older adults in China. Consequently, important ACEs such as sexual abuse and neglect were not included in the CHARLS questionnaires, nor were participants asked to complete valid and reliable ACE scales (e.g., Adverse Childhood Experiences International Questionnaire and Child Abuse and Trauma Scale) <sup>(62, 122)</sup>.

Third, the thesis did not examine whether a dose-response relationship existed between ACEs and the severity of depression symptoms. However, several meta-analyses did not find such dose-response relationships <sup>(13, 62, 65, 66)</sup>.

Fourth, the measures of the individual- and community-level covariates, such as employment, living arrangements, household consumption status, health status, amenities, etc., reflected participants' circumstances at the time they answered the CHARLS questionnaires. Therefore, these responses may not reflect participants' experiences over the long term. In the thesis, only two community-level factors were addressed. CHARLS did not collect data on other factors such as environmental hazards, built environment, and social capital. Consequently, residual confounding on community-level variables might exist in the thesis <sup>(180)</sup>.

Fifth, variables such as depression symptoms, ADL and IADL were treated as dichotomized variables, which may lead to a loss of information <sup>(186)</sup>. For example, dichotomizing the CES-D-10 score prevented the doctoral candidate from assessing the severity of depression symptoms in her analyses. However, the CES-D-10 scores were right-skewed and transforming the data would not have eliminated the skewness. Thus, ordinary least squares regression models would be unlikely to fit the transformed data all that well. The absence of a

valid set of multiple cut-points on the CES-D-10 prevented the doctoral candidate from employing alternative models such as ordinal regression to retain some information.

Sixth, CHARLS recruited and interviewed both husband and wife in some households. This design mechanism could have created dependence in some participants' responses, thereby necessitating the use of a cluster variable in the regression analyses. However, CHARLS interviewed spouses separately from one another, which could have lessened the degree of dependence among responses. This mitigation is important to note, as CHARLS did not contain a variable to identify spousal pairs.

Seventh, the LASSO technique employed in this thesis to reduce the number of covariates for inclusion in the multilevel regression models was not designed to recognize hierarchical structures. In the case of a hierarchical structure, which the doctoral candidate employed in recognition of the need to include community-level variables, the LASSO technique can underestimate the standard errors of regression coefficients and produce spurious 'significant' results. Consequently, more covariates than necessary may have been selected and added to the final multilevel models. In future research involving hierarchical models, a technique called generalized mixed LASSO can be used to explicitly test for differences in parameters by group-level variables.

Finally, the final analytical sample was much smaller than the number of participants who met the thesis eligibility criteria. This was due to a large number of missing values, particularly with regard to ACEs and health-related questions. These missing values led to a limited sample size, which may have reduced the representativeness of the sample and diminished statistical power. Omitting all cases with missing data may have also led to non-response bias. For example, the occurrence of ACEs such as maltreatment and abuse could have

been underestimated due to missing data that were caused by underreporting, which in turn may have understated the impact of these ACEs on depression symptoms in the final models. The analysis sample may have also been biased due to missing data. For example, 61.3% of the analysis sample were women between the ages of 60 and older, whereas the Chinese Census reported that 51.3% of the overall population were women <sup>(7)</sup>. Women are more likely to report depression symptoms than men <sup>(16, 53, 91-94)</sup>, which means the level of depression symptoms in the thesis may have been overestimated. Since the thesis excluded participants with missing data and used only complete cases, one should exercise caution when applying the results to the full CHARLS dataset, or to the target population from which the CHARLS sample was drawn.

While researchers sometimes utilize procedures like multiple imputation to create complete datasets from available data, such processes should not be regarded as a solution to the missing data issue. Multiple imputation requires analysts to specify a valid list of variables to be included in an ‘imputation dataset’. This dataset contains the variables that one believes can best estimate plausible replacement values for the missing values. However, the most valid set of variables to include in an imputation dataset is often unknown.

Multiple imputation is implemented under the assumption that data are missing at random (MAR) or missing completely at random (MCAR) <sup>(181, 187)</sup>. MAR means the missing values on one variable are dependent on the values of another variable (e.g., males are less likely to report income, so missing income values are the result of sex, not actual income). MCAR means random processes are responsible for the missingness, the probability of missingness is the same for each observation, and the missing values are unrelated to the exposures and outcomes of interest. Data that are missing not at random (NMAR) occur when the missing values are dependent on the variable itself (e.g., more data are missing at higher income levels because

affluent participants are less likely to disclose their incomes) <sup>(181, 187)</sup>. In many studies, especially when large numbers of variables are used in analyses, missing data patterns can be difficult to discern using the graphical methods available in most statistical software packages. As well, missing data on any one variable can be a mix of MCAR, MAR, and MNAR, thus exacerbating the difficulty of pattern detection.

In terms of the CHARLS dataset, no firm means existed to guide the selection of a valid imputation dataset and the assumption of MCAR or MAR could not be verified with certainty after examining patterns of missingness (see an example in Appendix B1.1). Therefore, the validity of any regression analyses based on multiple imputation datasets was questioned a priori, with the view being that imputing data would not be a better alternative to the complete case analyses (i.e., listwise deletion) undertaken for this thesis. As such, multiple imputation was not conducted for the thesis.

## **6.6 Implications**

### **6.6.1 Future Research Directions**

More work is needed to analyze group-level impacts (e.g., city or regional level), hierarchical spatial characteristics (e.g., geographical distribution and variation), and dynamic social characteristics (e.g., the impact of overwhelming social changes such as the Cultural Revolution) on ACEs and depression symptoms. Also, the biological pathways that contribute to the relationship between ACEs and depression symptoms in later life require further study. For example, we do not know how ACEs stimulate gene or epigenetic changes, hormone release, and neural pruning, all of which have long-term impacts on adult mental health.

Even with an expanded set of variables, the complexity of the association between ACEs and depression symptoms prevents one from considering and analyzing all potential risk factors in one model or in one project. Future work may focus on one ACE or one subgroup of ACEs to add context to the pan-ACE approach (i.e., studying all available ACEs together) taken in this thesis. Moreover, variables such as depression symptoms or age can be treated as continuous variables in future research.

The use of qualitative research in a mixed methods design is also recommended for future research. Qualitative research can provide a richer description of respondents' childhood adversities and offer a better understanding of how these adversities have gone on to affect mental health in later life.

### **6.6.2 Practical Implications**

The thesis results have policy implications. First, this study shows that policies promoting childhood welfare, education campaigns against bullying, and living circumstances (e.g., neighbourhood security, housing, and built environment) can have long-term benefits throughout the life-course. Health-related policies such as early detection of ACEs through routine screening batteries could facilitate psychiatric or psychological interventions before the adversities become chronic and assume a deleterious impact on the life course. Also, rural home visitation programs by physicians and allied health professionals can address the medical needs of children who may otherwise lack timely access to health care. Additionally, counselling programs (e.g., group therapy and peer mentoring) for adolescents who suffer a death in the family, maltreatment, or harsh interpersonal relationships can help children learn coping strategies, improve self-care, foster resiliency, and prevent more costly treatment later in life.

Second, this study suggests the importance of providing better non-clinical childhood supports for children who experience ACEs. Social services such as Children's Aid and Family and Children's Services offer one-to-one programs (e.g., crisis counseling, parent education or parent support groups) focusing on fostering child-parent relationship quality, creating positive self-images, and promoting self-control.

Third, individuals with a history of ACEs and depression symptoms may experience deficits in support-seeking behaviour and social attachments. Therefore, additional interventions may include social skills training, strengthening neighbourhoods, and honing job skills or household competencies.

Fourth, clinicians could ask about ACEs when evaluating and treating older persons with depression symptoms. As a result of these questions, physicians could order psychotherapy for depressed patients with a history of ACEs, especially since evidence shows a poorer medication response (i.e., pharmacotherapy with antidepressants) for persons with depression symptoms who were exposed to ACEs compared to persons who were not exposed <sup>(158)</sup>.

Finally, this study may have important implications for other countries. The results may be applicable to other groups of people who underwent similar socio-political experiences throughout the world (e.g., Argentinians who lived through the 1974-1983 'Dirty War', Cambodians who lived through the 1975-1979 'Killing Fields').

## **6.7 Conclusion**

This study shows that ACEs are associated with late-life depression symptoms after adjusting for potential individual- and community-level confounders among Chinese older adults. Interestingly, the findings in this sample displayed similarities to the results of studies



undertaken in Western samples, despite my a priori belief that the unique circumstances of China's recent history would lead to different findings.

The results imply that early intervention during childhood to reduce the impacts of ACEs may be an important strategy to improve mental health throughout the life-course in China. Similarly, addressing ACEs as part of depression treatment in seniors might help alleviate depression symptoms. Future research could benefit from examining the relationship between ACEs and late-life depression symptoms through a broader lens, such as including social and environmental stressors over the entire lifecycle.

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# APPENDICES

## Appendix A Literature Review Results

Appendix A lists all of the ACEs and individual- and community-level risk factors shown in the thesis literature review to be associated with depression symptoms in older adults.

Matching variables that were available in the CHARLS dataset were included in this thesis (see checkmarks in right-hand column of appendix tables).

Table A1 Summary of ACEs shown to be risk factors for depression symptoms

| ACE Variables  | Literature (reference number) | This thesis |
|--|-------------------------------|-------------|
| <b>Interpersonal loss</b>  |                               |             |
| Parental death   | 14, 17, 65, 83, 168           | √           |
| Divorce / separation of parents  | 14, 16, 66                    |             |
| Death of important other   | 14, 17, 65                    | √           |
| <b>Parental maladjustment</b>  |                               |             |
| Parental mental illness  | 14, 63, 68                    |             |
| Parental substance abuse   | 14, 63                        |             |
| Parental criminal behaviour / imprisoned   | 14                            |             |
| Other family problems (e.g., unemployment and domestic violence)   | 17                            |             |
| <b>Separation/Loss</b>   |                               |             |
| Being placed in a juvenile prison; being raised in a foster family; being placed in a child home; absence of a significant care-taker for a prolonged time | 16                            |             |

Table A1 (continued)

| ACE Variables   | Literature (reference number)      | This thesis |
|---|------------------------------------|-------------|
| <b>Childhood trauma/ Maltreatment</b>   |                                    |             |
| Physical abuse: being hit, kicked, beaten up or other types of physical abuse                               | 14, 16, 57, 61,63, 65, 66, 67,71   | √           |
| Emotional abuse (including neglect)   | 14, 15, 57, 60, 63, 66             |             |
| Psychological abuse: being yelled at, falsely punished, subordinated to your siblings, or being blackmailed | 15, 58, 60, 66, 64                 |             |
| Sexual abuse: being touched or having to touch someone in a sexual way against the will                     | 13, 15, 16, 58, 60, 62, 64, 66, 67 |             |
| Intimate-partner violence   | 60                                 |             |
| <b>Other childhood adversities</b>  |                                    |             |
| Physical illness  | 13, 16, 66, 67, 83, 161            | √           |
| Poverty/economic adversity  | 16, 13, 66, 83, 84, 161            |             |
| Severe illness of significant others  | 66                                 |             |
| Sudden unexpected events  | 66                                 |             |
| Loneliness  | 13, 15, 60, 66, 156                |             |
| Bullying  | 13, 15, 154                        | √           |
| <b>Childhood Circumstances</b>  |                                    |             |
| Living condition  | 66, 83, 84, 161                    | √           |
| War experience, natural disasters   | 16, 81, 83, 84                     |             |
| Relocation  | 83, 161                            |             |

Note. ACE = Adverse childhood experience



Table A2 Summary of individual-level risk factors for depression symptoms

| Individual-level Risk factors                         | Literature (reference number)  | This thesis |
|---|--|-------------|
| <b>Socio-demographic factors</b>                      |  |             |
| Education level                                       | 15, 51, 83, 85-87, 89, 92-94, 100, 102, 164, 189-191                   | √           |
| Socio-economic status (income, social class)          | 51-53, 83, 98, 100, 102, 124, 130, 154, 164, 171, 178, 189             | √           |
| Employment status (occupation)                        | 51, 55, 89, 92, 94, 134, 190   | √           |
| Age (older)   | 52, 53, 55, 85, 87, 89, 91-93, 98, 100, 101, 126, 134, 154, 188-191    | √           |
| Rural or urban residence                              | 52, 98, 85, 83, 100, 93, 167, 172                                      | √           |
| Marital status (unmarried)                            | 15, 85, 52, 53, 55, 89, 93, 94, 134, 167-169                           | √           |
| Gender (female)                                       | 15, 53, 55, 83, 85-87, 89, 91-93, 98, 101, 126, 134, 154, 167-170, 172 | √           |
| Family living arrangements (alone or not)             | 52, 53, 55, 91, 92, 167, 169   | √           |
| Number of children                                    | 53, 55, 126, 134   |             |
| Social support / social participation, network        | 25, 53, 55, 62, 86, 91, 92, 94, 98, 98, 154                            | √           |
| <b>Health-related variables</b>                       |  |             |
| History of depressive and other psychiatric disorders | 15, 52, 53, 86, 87, 91, 93, 167, 168, 172                              |             |
| Family depression                                     | 53   |             |

Table A2 (continued)

| Individual-level Risk factors  | Literature (reference number)                                       | This thesis |
|--|---|-------------|
| Sensory impairment, chronic condition and somatic pathologies (hypertension, diabetes, hypercholesterolemia, obesity, ischemic heart disease, arthritis, history of stroke, dyspnea, pain, and intestinal transit disorders) | 52, 53, 55, 85, 86, 89, 92, 98, 102, 164, 189-191                   | √           |
| BMI  | 55, 89, 98, 164, 188, 189   |             |
| Cognitive impairment   | 52, 53, 55, 83, 85, 89, 126, 168, 171, 173                          | √           |
| Self-perceived health  | 53, 55, 89  |             |
| Medication use (hypnotics, tranquilizers, antidepressant and benzodiazepine)   | 52, 53, 93  |             |
| Function disability  | 25, 52, 53, 55, 85-87, 89, 92, 98, 98, 100, 102, 134, 168, 189, 191 | √           |
| Health insurance   | 188, 190, 191   |             |
| <b>Health behaviours</b>   |   |             |
| Alcohol consumption  | 25, 53, 52, 167   | √           |
| Smoking  | 52, 53, 55, 89, 167   | √           |
| Physical activity  | 25, 53, 55, 85, 89, 91, 98, 171, 188-191                            | √           |
| <b>Psychosocial resources</b>  |   |             |
| Life satisfaction, mastery, self-esteem, sleep disturbance, anxiety, neuroticism   | 52, 53, 93  |             |
| <b>Other factors</b>   |   |             |
| Birth weight   | 130, 173  |             |
| Negative life events (deaths, divorce, and changes in financial status)  | 53, 86, 91, 98  |             |

Table A3 Summary of community-level risk factors for depression symptoms

| Community-level Risk factors  | Literature (reference number)         | This thesis |
|---|---------------------------------------|-------------|
| <b>Socioeconomic influence</b>  |                                       |             |
| Income (poverty, overcrowding, local grocery, tobacco, and alcohol outlets, traffic)                  | 99, 101, 102, 123, 134, 137, 189-191  | √           |
| Education level   | 99, 101, 102, 134, 137, 172, 189, 191 |             |
| Employment  | 99, 101, 102, 137, 189                |             |
| <b>Residential stability</b>  |                                       |             |
| Racial/ethnic heterogeneity   | 99, 101, 102, 130                     |             |
| Age structure (>64)   | 100, 101, 130, 161,179                | √           |
| Other population characteristics (e.g., size, years of living, family structure, household ownership) | 99, 100, 102, 134, 137, 191-193       | √           |
| <b>Amenities</b>  |                                       |             |
| Community infrastructure  | 102, 123, 130, 134, 137, 191, 194     | √           |
| Community/ health resources   | 100, 102, 123, 130, 134, 191, 194     | √           |
| <b>Other characteristics</b>  |                                       |             |
| Housing   | 99, 100, 123, 174, 179, 191           |             |
| Unsafe conditions/crime   | 123, 191, 194                         |             |
| Built environment / overall quality   | 99, 101, 130, 134, 137, 180, 191, 194 | √           |

## **Appendix B Ancillary Analyses 1**

Appendix B provides some results of preliminary analyses as well as a detailed description pertaining to sub-questions from the ACE, household, and community surveys.

### **Appendix B1 Preliminary Analyses**

Appendix B1 provides the plots that were created in the preliminary analyses.

#### **Appendix B1.1 Missing Values**

All participants in the samples from the three waves were screened for missing values on all the key variables (e.g., depression symptoms, all ACE variables, and individual- and community-level variables that were identified by means of LASSO regression [see Section 5.1.5.2]) were included in the missing value analysis. Figure B1 displayed the patterns of variables that had more than 5% missing values. Each pattern (row) reflected a group of cases with the same pattern of missing values. The patterns of groups of cases were exhibited based on where the missing values were located. For example, Pattern 1 represented cases with no missing values, while Pattern 2 represented cases that had missing values on exposure of ‘feeling alone’. The variables along the x-axis were listed in ascending order by the amount of missing values each contained. As shown in Figure B1, household expenditure had the largest amount of missing values (36.3%) and was listed on the right, the second was bullied with 23.9% of missing values, the third was abuse and the percentage of missing values was 15.7%, relationship with parents (i.e., missing values percentage was 7.7% in relationship with mother item and 10.9% in relationship with father item). The following variables were depression symptom, chronic disease index, safe neighbourhood, and feel alone. The percentage of missing values for the remaining variables was less than 5%.

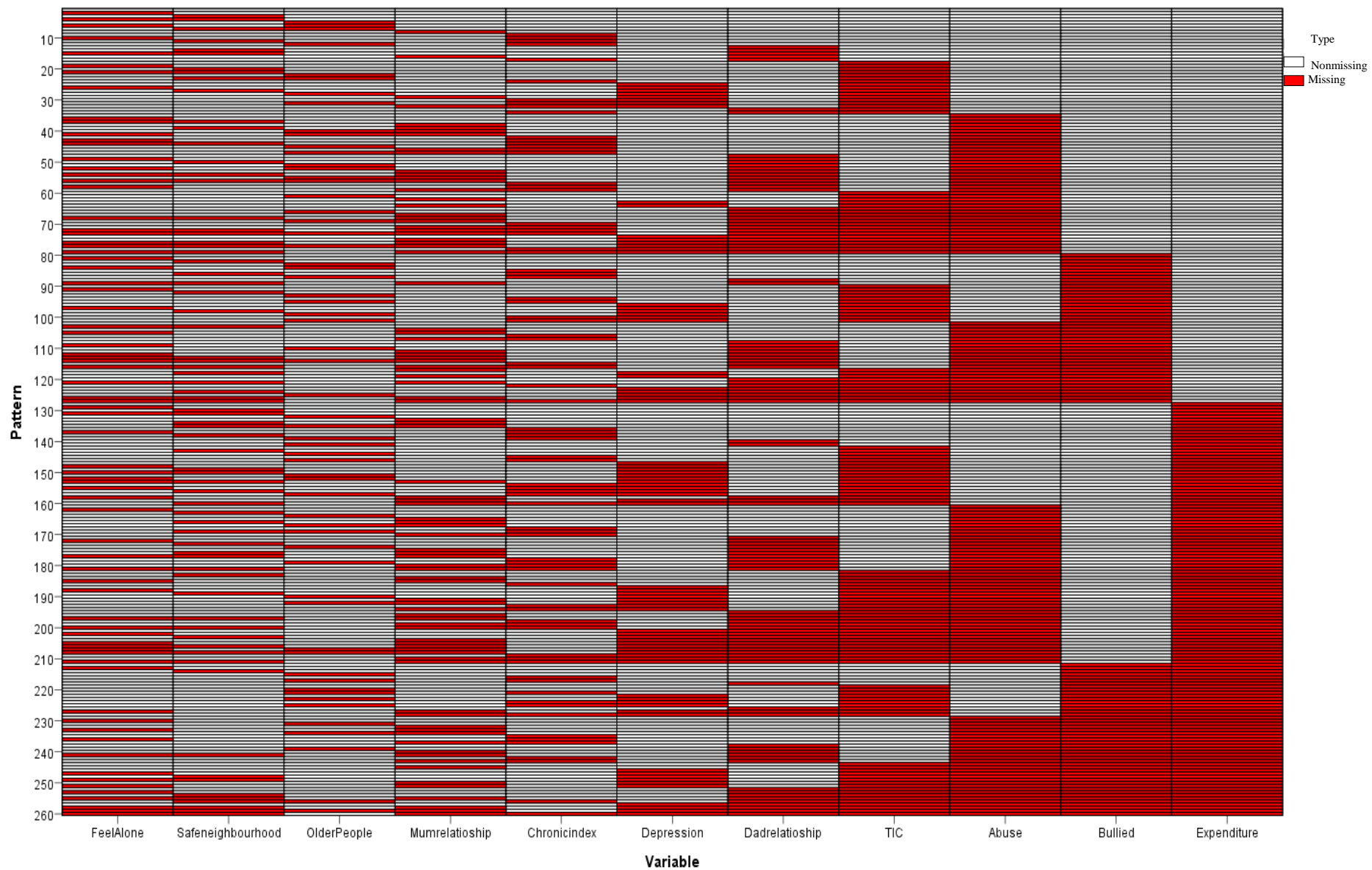


Figure B1 Missing value patterns



# Appendix B1.3 Linearity

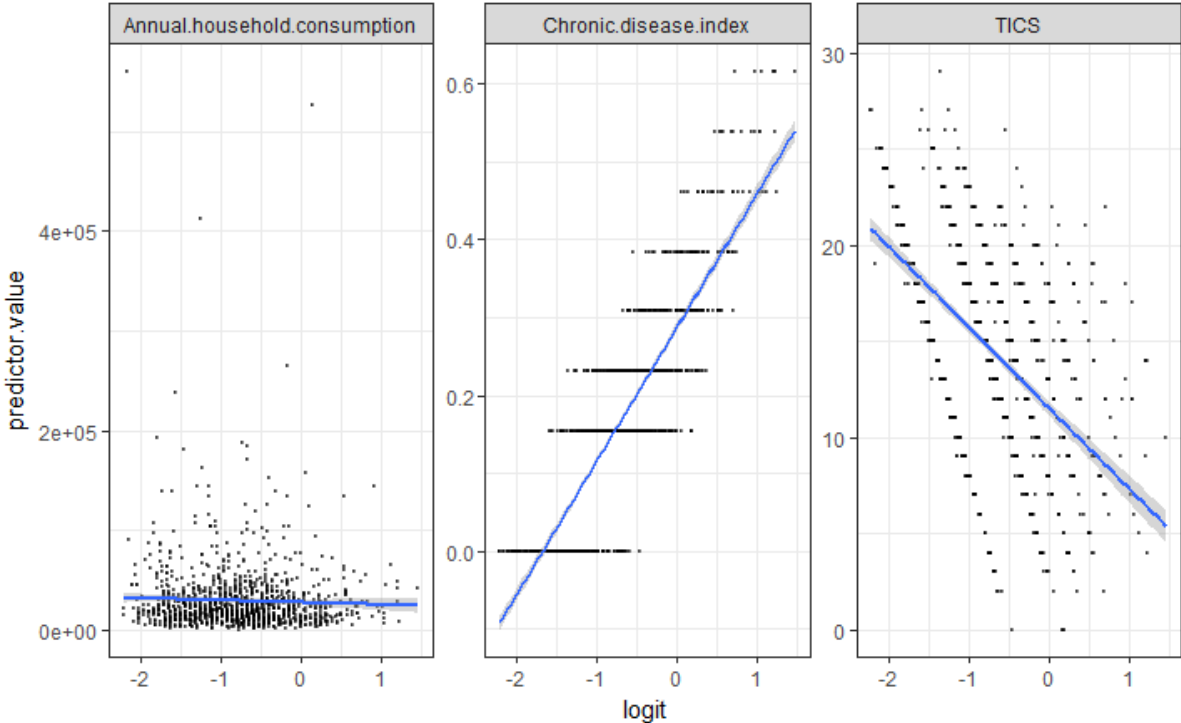


Figure B4 Scatter plots between individual-level predictors and the logit values

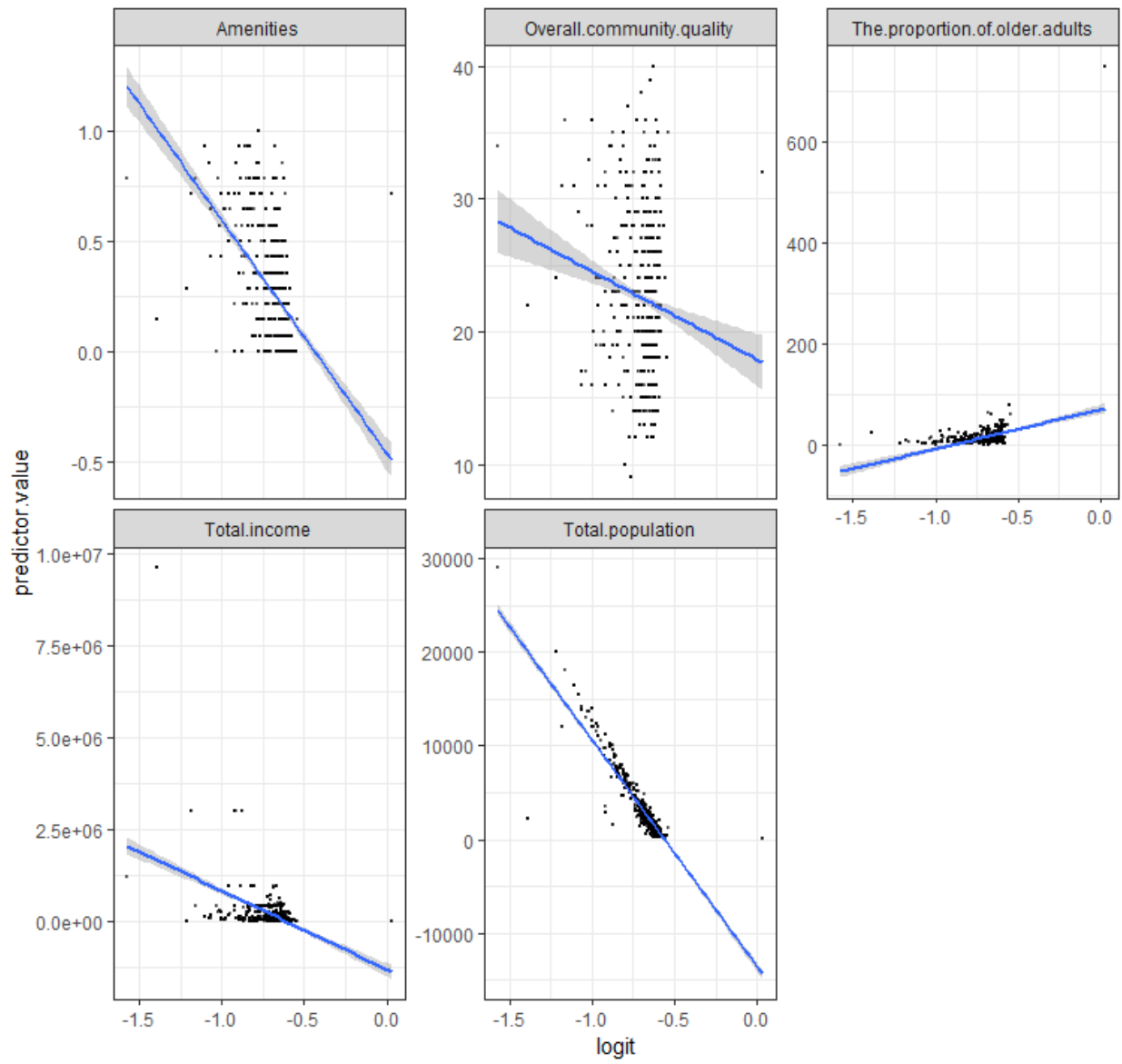


Figure B5 Scatter plots between community-level predictors and the logit values



## Appendix B1.4 Distribution and Multicollinearity

Table B1 Kurtosis and skewness on continuous predictors (n=1,218)

| Predictors   | Kurtosis     | Skewness     |
|--|--------------|--------------|
| Individual level                                       |              |              |
| <b>Annual household consumption</b>                    | <b>7.08</b>  | <b>8.23</b>  |
| Chronic disease index                                  | 2.60         | 0.24         |
| TICS   | 3.26         | -0.31        |
| Community level  |              |              |
| Amenities  | 2.77         | -0.49        |
| Overall community quality                              | 3.30         | -0.44        |
| The proportion of older adults living in the community | 3.08         | 0.58         |
| <b>Total income of the community</b>                   | <b>11.46</b> | <b>15.73</b> |
| Total population in the community                      | 2.17         | 0.20         |

## Appendix B1.5 Power Calculation

Listwise deletion of missing values produced a sample size of 1218 persons for the analyses, another power analysis was conducted to test whether the power obtained meet the hypotheses requirement. Similar to the earlier power analysis (see Section 4.6.1.1),  $P_1$  = the proportion of depressed individuals in exposed group =  $221/571 = 0.387$ , and  $P_2$  = the proportion of depressed individuals in the unexposed group =  $183/647 = 0.283$ . Therefore, with 1218 participants, the study reported in this thesis had adequate statistical power to detect an OR = 1.60 at 90% power and  $\alpha = 0.05$  <sup>(140, 141)</sup>.

## Appendix B2 Descriptive Analysis for Individual-level Sub-questions

Table B2 Descriptive statistics for individual-level sub-question items (n=1,218)

| Variables                            | n (%)        |
|--------------------------------------|--------------|
| <b>Chronic disease index</b>         |              |
| High blood pressure                  | 441 (36.2)   |
| Diabetes                             | 119 (9.8)    |
| Cancer                               | 18 (1.5)     |
| Lung disease                         | 198 (16.3)   |
| Heart disease                        | 280 (23)     |
| Stroke                               | 61 (5)       |
| Psychological problem                | 7 (0.6)      |
| Arthritis                            | 498 (40.9)   |
| Dyslipidemia                         | 235 (19.3)   |
| Liver disease                        | 65 (5.3)     |
| Kidney disease                       | 130 (10.7)   |
| Digestive disease                    | 353 (28.9)   |
| Asthma                               | 80 (6.6)     |
| <b>ADL</b>                           |              |
| Self-dressing                        | 46 (3.8)     |
| Bathing or shower                    | 78 (6.4)     |
| Eating                               | 14 (1.1)     |
| Getting in/out of bed                | 57 (4.7)     |
| Using toilet                         | 148 (12.2)   |
| Controlling urination and defecation | 42 (3.4)     |
| <b>IADL</b>                          |              |
| Managing money                       | 101 (8.3)    |
| Taking medication                    | 32 (2.6)     |
| Preparing hot meal                   | 80 (6.6)     |
| Cleaning housing                     | 91 (7.5)     |
| Using telephone                      | 110 (9.0)    |
| <b>TICS</b>                          |              |
| Immediate word recall                | 4.06 (1.7)   |
| Delayed word recall                  | 3.04 (2.0)   |
| Serial 7's test                      | 3.15 (1.9)   |
| Naming month                         | 1,059 (87.0) |
| Naming day                           | 876 (71.9)   |
| Naming year                          | 979 (80.4)   |
| Naming day of week                   | 788 (64.7)   |
| Naming season                        | 917 (75.3)   |
| Draw a picture                       | 877 (72.0)   |

## Appendix B3 Descriptive Analysis for CES-D-10 Items

Table B3 Descriptive statistics for CES-D-10 items (n=1,218)

| CES-D-10 items <sup>a</sup>                | <1 day       | 1-2 days   | 3-4 days   | 5-7 days   |
|--|--------------|------------|------------|------------|
| <b>Negative questions</b>                  |              |            |            |            |
| Was bothered by things                     | 715 (58.7)   | 242 (19.9) | 134 (11.0) | 127 (10.4) |
| Had trouble keeping mind on what was doing | 706 (58.0)   | 199 (16.3) | 177 (14.5) | 136 (11.2) |
| Felt depressed                             | 704 (57.8)   | 234 (19.2) | 160 (13.1) | 120 (9.9)  |
| Felt hopeful about future                  | 469 (38.5)   | 167 (13.7) | 193 (15.9) | 389 (31.9) |
| Sleep was restless                         | 622 (51.1)   | 208 (17.1) | 165 (13.6) | 223 (18.3) |
| Felt lonely                                | 947 (77.8)   | 113 (9.3)  | 89 (7.3)   | 69 (5.7)   |
| Could not get going                        | 1,048 (86.0) | 67 (5.5)   | 59 (4.8)   | 44 (3.6)   |
| <b>Positive questions</b>                  |              |            |            |            |
| Felt everything he/she did was an effort   | 712 (58.5)   | 180 (14.8) | 147 (12.1) | 179 (14.7) |
| Felt hopeful about future                  | 469 (38.5)   | 167 (13.7) | 193 (15.9) | 389 (31.9) |
| Was happy                                  | 342 (28.1)   | 191 (15.7) | 259 (21.3) | 426 (35.0) |

Note. <sup>a</sup> number (%) reporting each item

## Appendix B4 Descriptive Analysis for ACEs Sub-questions

Table B4 Descriptive statistics for ACEs sub-question items (n=1,218)

| Exposures                        | n (%)      |
|----------------------------------|------------|
| <b>Physical abuse</b>            |            |
| Hit by mother                    | 646 (53.0) |
| Hit by father                    | 478 (39.2) |
| Hit by siblings                  | 144 (11.8) |
| <b>Bullied</b>                   |            |
| Bullied in neighbourhood         | 266 (21.8) |
| Bullied at school                | 153 (13.5) |
| <b>Health limitation</b>         |            |
| Missed school                    | 51 (4.2)   |
| Confined to bed                  | 73 (6.0)   |
| Hospitalization                  | 25 (2.1)   |
| Physical impairment              | 8 (0.7)    |
| <b>Relationship with friends</b> |            |
| Group friends                    | 442 (36.3) |
| Good friends                     | 564 (46.3) |

## Appendix B5 Descriptive Analysis for Community-level Sub-questions

Table B5 Descriptive statistics for community-level sub-question categorical items (n=1,218)

| Variables                            | n (%)        |
|--------------------------------------|--------------|
| <b>Amenities index</b>               |              |
| Basket-ball                          | 550 (45.2)   |
| Swimming pool                        | 47 (3.9)     |
| Outside exercising facilities        | 404 (33.2)   |
| Table tennis                         | 483 (39.7)   |
| Games room                           | 462 (37.9)   |
| Ping Pong room                       | 319 (26.2)   |
| Calligraphy and painting association | 124 (10.2)   |
| Dancing or exercise organizations    | 464 (38.1)   |
| Elderly helping organizations        | 424 (34.1)   |
| Employment service                   | 304 (25.0)   |
| Elderly activity center              | 475 (39.0)   |
| Elderly association                  | 411 (33.7)   |
| Nursing home                         | 162 (13.3)   |
| Elderly care                         | 279 (22.9)   |
| Other                                | 186 (15.3)   |
| Roads paving                         | 1,120 (92.0) |

Table B6 Descriptive statistics for community-level sub-question continuous items (n=1,218)

| Variables              | Mean (SD)   |
|------------------------|-------------|
| <b>Overall quality</b> |             |
| SES                    | 3.80 (1.40) |
| Tidiness of the roads  | 3.96 (1.50) |
| Construction structure | 3.37 (1.66) |
| Crowdedness            | 4.67 (1.63) |
| Handicapped access     | 2.09 (1.48) |
| Mandarin fluency       | 3.83 (1.85) |

## Appendix C Ancillary Analyses 2

Appendix C provides univariate analyses results on individual- and community-level covariates.

Table C1 and Table C2 display the univariate analysis results of all potential individual and community-level risks. Female, completed high school or completed at least some postsecondary schooling, retired, chronic disease index, had any ADL or IADL difficulty, TICS, and community amenity index were associated with depression symptoms.

Alternatively, respondents who received higher education (i.e., completed high school or at least some postsecondary schooling), less cognitive impairment (i.e., higher TICS score) had decreased odds of being depressed. Also, the point estimate of unadjusted OR of TICS was only 0.95, and the 95% CI was between 0.90 and 0.97, the decreased odds was quite small.

Table C1 Univariate regression results for individual-level risks (n=1,218)

| Personal-level variables | Unadjusted odds ratio | 95% CI                      |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|
| <b>Socio-demographic</b> |                       |                             |
| Age group                |                       |                             |
| 60-69                    | REF                   |                             |
| 70-79                    | 1.27                  | (0.93, 1.73)                |
| 80 or older              | 0.55                  | (0.28, 1.08) <sup>+</sup>   |
| Female <sup>1</sup>      | 2.00                  | (1.48, 2.65) <sup>***</sup> |
| Education level          |                       |                             |
| Illiterate               | REF                   |                             |
| Elementary school        | 0.69                  | (0.41, 1.15)                |
| High-school              | 0.51                  | (0.30, 0.89) <sup>*</sup>   |
| Postsecondary school     | 0.12                  | (0.04, 0.38) <sup>***</sup> |

Table C1 (continued)

| Personal-level variables                  | Unadjusted odds ratio | 95% CI                        |
|---|-----------------------|-------------------------------|
| <b>Socio-demographic</b>                  |                       |                               |
| Occupation                                |                       |                               |
| Employed                                  | REF                   |                               |
| Retired                                   | 0.49                  | (0.34, 0.72) <sup>***</sup>   |
| Unemployed                                | 0.94                  | (0.22, 4.08)                  |
| Annual household consumption <sup>2</sup> | 0.94                  | (0.80, 1.11)                  |
| <b>Living arrangement</b>                 |                       |                               |
| Rural residence <sup>3</sup>              | 1.34                  | (0.98, 1.83) <sup>+</sup>     |
| Living alone <sup>3</sup>                 | 0.81                  | (0.54, 1.21)                  |
| Marital status                            |                       |                               |
| Married                                   | REF                   |                               |
| Other marital status                      | 1.43                  | (0.98, 2.10) <sup>+</sup>     |
| Social participation <sup>3</sup>         | 0.77                  | (0.58, 1.02) <sup>+</sup>     |
| <b>Health function</b>                    |                       |                               |
| Chronic disease index                     | 34.03                 | (13.00, 89.09) <sup>***</sup> |
| ADL                                       | 3.85                  | (2.75, 5.38) <sup>***</sup>   |
| IADL                                      | 2.71                  | (1.92, 3.81) <sup>***</sup>   |
| TICS score                                | 0.94                  | (0.91, 0.97) <sup>***</sup>   |
| <b>Health behavioural</b>                 |                       |                               |
| Smoking <sup>3</sup>                      | 0.76                  | (0.58, 1.01) <sup>+</sup>     |
| Drinking <sup>3</sup>                     | 0.77                  | (0.53, 1.13)                  |
| Physical activity                         |                       |                               |
| No physical activity                      | REF                   |                               |
| Walking 10 minutes                        | 0.88                  | (0.51, 1.51)                  |
| Moderate                                  | 0.74                  | (0.43, 1.27)                  |
| Vigorous                                  | 0.99                  | (0.56, 1.75)                  |

Note. <sup>+</sup>p<0.10, <sup>\*</sup>p<0.05, <sup>\*\*</sup>p<0.01, <sup>\*\*\*</sup>p<0.001

REF= reference level

<sup>1</sup>= Female vs. male

<sup>2</sup>= Chinese yuan

<sup>3</sup>= Yes vs. no

In terms of community-level covariates, individuals living in communities with more amenities were less likely to exhibit depression symptoms.

Table C2 Univariate regression results for community-level risks (n<sub>1</sub>=360, n<sub>2</sub>=1,218)

| Community level factors        | Unadjusted OR | 95% CI                      |
|--------------------------------|---------------|-----------------------------|
| Amenity index                  | 0.47          | (0.38, 0.59) <sup>***</sup> |
| Total population               | 0.98          | (0.84, 1.14)                |
| The proportion of older adults | 1.01          | (0.87, 1.18)                |
| Total income of the community  | 1.04          | (0.96, 1.13)                |
| Overall community quality      | 1.01          | (0.98, 1.04)                |

Note. n<sub>1</sub>= number of communities

n<sub>2</sub>= number of individuals

<sup>+</sup>p<0.10, \*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01, \*\*\*p<0.001

## Appendix D Ancillary Analyses 3

Appendix D includes an introduction of EFA, EFA analysis on ACEs, individual- and community-level covariates, and the results of the multilevel model that includes all ACEs and covariates identified by EFA.

### Appendix D1 EFA Introduction

The literature discussed in Chapter 1 suggested many overlapping aspects of the same set of ACEs, and covariates at personal and community level. For example, ‘death of parents’ and ‘death of siblings’ are associated with ‘interpersonal loss’ aspect, and ‘smoking’ and ‘drinking’ may have some common attributes pertaining to the ‘lifestyle’ aspect. A factor analysis is a dimension reduction technique to analyze potential relationships between variables and explain how related variables may group into a smaller number of latent factors <sup>(149)</sup>. It is based on the assumption that unobserved or unmeasured latent variables, called factors, exist to account for the correlations among a large set of collected variables. EFA was conducted via an iterative,



back-and-forth procedure: extraction, determine the number of factors, rotation, and examination of factor loadings.

Consider a  $p$ -dimensional observable random vector  $X = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)^T$  with mean vector  $\mu$  and variance-covariance matrix  $\Sigma$ . The EFA model can be written as

$$X = \mu + \Lambda F + \varepsilon \quad (\text{D1}),$$

where  $\Lambda = (\lambda_{ij})$  is a  $p \times m$  matrix of the corresponding factor loadings,  $F = (F_1, \dots, F_m)^T$  are the common factors or latent variables,  $\varepsilon = (\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_p)^T$  is the residual of  $x_i$  on the factors or unique factors.

Given the assumption that  $\varepsilon$  is uncorrelated across the observed variables, the correlation among the variables are therefore accounted for by the common factors. It is assumed that  $F$  and  $\varepsilon$  are multivariate-normally distributed with  $E(F) = 0, E(\varepsilon) = 0, E(FF^T) = I_m, E(\varepsilon\varepsilon^T) = \Psi$ , and are independent with  $E(F\varepsilon^T) = 0$ , the variance-covariance matrix  $I_m$  is positive definite, and  $\Psi$  is a diagonal matrix meaning that the residuals are uncorrelated. Under these assumptions, random vector  $X$  is multivariate-normally distributed with variance-covariance matrix  $\Sigma = \Lambda\Lambda^T + \Psi$ .

The first step involved applying extraction methods that identified combinations of observed variables (also called factors). Extraction produced one eigenvalue for each potential factor, which could be seen as the amount of variance in the original indicators explained by each latent factor. Principal axis factor analysis and maximum likelihood were employed in this study. A good model explains the most amount of variance with the least number of factors.

In the second step, the optimal number of factors was determined based on the Kaiser's criteria that each factor should have an eigenvalue greater than 1<sup>(182)</sup>, and all of the common variance that was defined by the sum of communality variance estimates could be explained by

extracted factors. A principle component analysis was conducted in the meantime, which could help to identify the maximum and the optimal number of the factors. This would ensure that the common variance represented by the original individual- and community-level covariates could be completely accounted for by the extracted factors without losing any explanatory power.

The third step involved an orthogonal rotation that generated uncorrelated meaningful interpreted factors. Usually, rotation is intended to produce a simple structure, a pattern of associations in which each observed variable associates strongly with (or loads on) one factor. In this study, the identified factors were then rotated using the varimax orthogonal rotation method to determine the most favourable uncorrelated combination of the variables to represent different aspects of individual- and community-level characteristics.

Lastly, the strength and direction of each factor on an observed variable were determined, which were also factor loadings. Factor loadings are numeric values representing associations between each observed variable and each factor. They are located on a correlational metric of -1 to +1, with values closer to -1 or +1 representing strong associations, and values close to 0 indicating no associations between an observed variable and a factor. Factor loadings equal to or greater than 0.50 suggest the variable is a good representative of the factor; 0.3 and 0.5 suggest the variable may be a fair representative of the factor; and below 0.3 suggest the variable is not a good representative of the factor<sup>(150)</sup>. Factor score, a composite measure created for each observation on identified factors, was exported for the follow-up multilevel regression analysis.

## **Appendix D2 EFA Results**

### **Appendix D2.1 EFA Results for Covariates**

The prime goal of exploratory factor analysis is to identify simple interpretable structures or patterns (item loading  $\geq 0.3$  on one factor). As shown in Table D.3, the KMO estimates were

both above 0.6 on individual-level and community-level covariates, indicating that there were latent factors underlying the data.

A set of principal component analyses were first conducted on individual- and community-level covariates, respectively, to help determine the maximum and the optimal number of factors. The factor patterns for individual-level and community-level covariates were listed in Tables D1 and D2, respectively, where only large factor loadings ( $\geq 0.3$ ) were displayed so that the major contribution of variables to each factor could be presented clearly. Although factor loadings less than 0.3 were not displayed in the tables, they were still used to estimate the factor scores even if their impacts on corresponding factors were small. The estimated factor scores were fitted in the multilevel models.

The analysis of individual-level variables yielded four factors (loadings displayed in brackets), which were exhibited in Table D1 factor 1 corresponded to ‘demographic and socioeconomic status’ background and included the following variables: age (0.3), sex (0.33), education level (0.35), occupation status (0.67). Factor 2 was mainly composed of the chronic disease index (0.42), cognitive function (i.e., TICS score) (0.31), ADL (0.66), and IADL (0.43). The common characteristic among these variables was that they all represented health function. Hence, this factor was called ‘health and functioning’. Factor 3 was labeled as ‘living arrangements’ and included currently living in rural areas (0.6), living alone (0.99), and marital status (0.85). Factor 4 was composed of two high loading items – smoking (0.4) and drinking (0.74), which were labelled ‘lifestyle’. Three variables, including physical activity, social participation, and annual household consumption, did not associate with any factors, suggesting that these variables were unimportant in constructing a four-factor model.

Table D1 Factor loadings ( $\geq 0.3$ ) for individual-level covariates (n=1,218)

| Variables                    | Factor 1            | Factor 2               | Factor 3            | Factor 4  |
|------------------------------|---------------------|------------------------|---------------------|-----------|
|                              | Demographic and SES | Health and functioning | Living arrangements | Lifestyle |
| AGE                          | 0.30                |                        |                     |           |
| Sex                          | 0.33                |                        |                     |           |
| Education level              | 0.35                |                        |                     |           |
| Occupation                   | 0.67                |                        |                     |           |
| Chronic disease              |                     | 0.42                   |                     |           |
| Cognitive function           |                     | 0.31                   |                     |           |
| Physical activity            |                     |                        |                     |           |
| ADL                          |                     | 0.66                   |                     |           |
| IADL                         |                     | 0.43                   |                     |           |
| Rural residence              |                     |                        | 0.60                |           |
| Living alone                 |                     |                        | 0.99                |           |
| Marital status               |                     |                        | 0.85                |           |
| Smoking                      |                     |                        |                     | 0.40      |
| Drinking                     |                     |                        |                     | 0.74      |
| Social participation         |                     |                        |                     |           |
| Annual household consumption |                     |                        |                     |           |

Table D2 Factor loadings ( $\geq 0.3$ ) for community-level covariates (n<sub>1</sub>=360, n<sub>2</sub>=1,218)

| Variables                         | Factor 1           | Factor 2                |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|
|                                   | Population density | Socioeconomic influence |
| Total population in the community | 0.52               |                         |
| The proportion of older adults    | 0.98               |                         |
| Amenities                         |                    | 0.86                    |
| Total income of the community     |                    | 0.48                    |
| Overall community quality         |                    | 0.51                    |

Note. n<sub>1</sub>= number of communities  
n<sub>2</sub>= number of individuals

As shown in Table D2, two factors were extracted from community-level variables. Factor 1 was mainly composed of total population in the community (0.52) and the proportion of older adults living in the community (0.98). These two variables had the common characteristic of representing community populations. Thus, factor 1 was called ‘population density’. Factor 2

corresponded to amenities (0.86), total income of the community (0.48), and overall community quality (0.51). The common characteristic among these variables was that they all represented community/village SES. Factor 2 was therefore called ‘socioeconomic influence’.

Table D3 shows the KMO estimates and model fit parameters, which indicated whether the model was a good description of the data. Three parameters, including RMSR, RMSEA, and CFI were used to evaluate the model fit. RMSR estimates were close to 0, RMSEA values were below or equal to 0.06, and CFI estimates were equal or over 0.9. Therefore, these parameters indicated a good fit of both models on individual-level and community-level covariates.

Table D3 EFA models fit parameters for covariates

| Estimates | Individual level model | Community level model |
|-----------|------------------------|-----------------------|
| KMO       | 0.85                   | 0.73                  |
| RMSR      | 0.03                   | <0.01                 |
| RMSEA     | 0.06                   | 0.05                  |
| CFI       | 0.94                   | 0.93                  |

Note. KMO = Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin  
 RMSR = the root mean square values  
 RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation  
 CFI= comparative fit index

### Appendix D2.2 EFA Results for ACEs

As shown in Table D5, the KMO estimate was above 0.6 on ACEs, indicating that there were latent factors underlying the data. Table D4 displays factor analysis on ACEs, and there were four extracted factors in this model. Labels were provided to the factors based on the variables in each group. Two variables loaded highly onto Factor 1, which included death of parents (0.31) and death of siblings (0.41). Thus, factor 1 was labeled as ‘interpersonal loss’. Factor 2 was labeled as ‘maltreatment’ due to the high loadings by the following variables: physical abuse (0.42), bullied (0.5), relationship with mother (0.86) and father (0.87). Factor 3

was mainly composed of self-reported health (0.37) and health limitation (0.8), all of which represented health function. Factor 3 could therefore be called a ‘health status’ factor. Factor 4 was constituted of living in a community that had no helping neighbours (0.8), no close-knit ties with neighbours (0.69), insufficient food (i.e., hunger) (0.4), and was not safe (0.42), and rural regions (0.3). Factor 4 was labeled as ‘circumstance’. Feeling alone and had a poor relationship with friends did not relate to any of the four factors.

Table D5 shows the model fit parameters, which indicated whether the model was a good description of the data. Three parameters including RMSR, RMSEA, and CFI were used to evaluate the model fit. RMSR estimates were close to 0, RMSEA values were below or equal to 0.06, and CFI estimates were equal or over 0.9. Therefore, these parameters indicated a good fit of EFA model on ACEs.

Table D4 Factor loadings ( $\geq 0.3$ ) for ACEs

| Variables                          | Factor 1           | Factor 2     | Factor 3      | Factor 4     |
|------------------------------------|--------------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|
|                                    | Interpersonal loss | Maltreatment | Health status | Circumstance |
| Death of parents                   | 0.31               |              |               |              |
| Death of siblings                  | 0.41               |              |               |              |
| Physical Abuse                     |                    | 0.42         |               |              |
| Bullied                            |                    | 0.50         |               |              |
| Feel alone                         |                    |              |               |              |
| Bad relationship with mother       |                    | 0.86         |               |              |
| Bad relationship with father       |                    | 0.87         |               |              |
| No helping neighbours              |                    |              |               | 0.80         |
| No close-knit ties with neighbours |                    |              |               | 0.69         |
| Bad relationship with friends      |                    |              |               |              |
| Self-reported health               |                    |              | 0.37          |              |
| Health limitation                  |                    |              | 0.80          |              |
| Unsafe neighbourhood               |                    |              |               | 0.42         |
| Hunger                             |                    |              |               | 0.40         |
| Urban/rural residence              |                    |              |               | 0.30         |

Table D5 EFA models fit parameters for ACEs

| Estimates | ACE model |
|-----------|-----------|
| KMO       | 0.88      |
| RMSR      | 0.02      |
| RMSEA     | 0.02      |
| CFI       | 0.97      |

Note. KMO = Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin  
 RMSR = the root mean square values  
 RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation  
 CFI= comparative fit index

### Appendix D3 Multilevel Model Adjusted for Identified Covariates by EFA

Four individual-level factors and two community-level factors were identified by EFA. As mentioned in Section 4.6.2.2, regression models were built that include all ACEs and covariates that were identified by EFA. This model can be written as

$$\text{Level 1 (personal): } \text{Logit}(p_{ij}) = \beta_{0j} + \beta_1 \text{Death of parents}_{ij} + \beta_2 \text{Death of sibling}_{ij} + \dots + \beta_n \text{Living in rural}_{ij} + \beta_{n+1} \text{Factor1}_{ij} + \beta_{n+2} \text{Factor2}_{ij} + \beta_{n+3} \text{Factor3}_{ij} + \beta_{n+4} \text{Factor4}_{ij}$$

$$\text{Level 2 (community): } \beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_1 \text{Com\_Factor1}_j + \gamma_2 \text{Com\_Factor2}_j + v_{0j} \quad (\text{Model 5}).$$

Table D6 presents the results of Model 5, which included all ACE variables controlling for individual- and community-level factors that were extracted by EFA. As shown in Table D6, statistically significant effects were observed for bullied, feeling alone, relatively poor relationship with parents, and three individual-level factors (i.e., health function, living arrangement, and lifestyle). Thereby, respondents who were exposed to bullying, feeling alone, having at least one limitation in health, having relatively poor relationship with mother, and having relatively good relationship with father have greater odds of experiencing depression

symptoms compared to individuals who were not exposed to these adversities. Furthermore, three individual-level factors, including health function, living arrangement, and life style were statistically significant. None of the community-level factors was statistically significant in these models.

Table D6 Fixed and random parameter estimates from Model 5 (n=1,218)

|  | Model 5           |              |
|--|-------------------|--------------|
|  | OR                | 95% CI       |
| Intercept                                    | 0.26 <sup>+</sup> | (0.09, 0.75) |
| <b>Main effects: ACEs</b>                    |                   |              |
| Death of parents <sup>1</sup>                | 0.75              | (0.38, 1.51) |
| Death of siblings <sup>1</sup>               | 1.28              | (0.87, 1.89) |
| Physical abuse <sup>1</sup>                  | 1.23              | (0.89, 1.71) |
| Bullied <sup>1</sup>                         | 1.45 <sup>*</sup> | (1.01, 2.08) |
| Feel alone <sup>1</sup>                      | 1.52 <sup>*</sup> | (1.05, 2.20) |
| Relationship with mother                     |                   |              |
| Excellent                                    | REF               |              |
| Very good                                    | 1.21              | (0.70, 2.10) |
| Poor/fair/good                               | 1.96 <sup>*</sup> | (1.09, 3.54) |
| Relationship with father                     |                   |              |
| Excellent                                    | REF               |              |
| Very good                                    | 0.90              | (0.52, 1.58) |
| Poor/fair/good                               | 0.51 <sup>+</sup> | (0.28, 0.94) |
| Helping neighbours <sup>1</sup>              | 1.13              | (0.78, 1.64) |
| Close-knit ties with neighbours <sup>1</sup> | 1.27              | (0.87, 1.86) |
| Good relationship with friends <sup>1</sup>  | 1.21              | (0.88, 1.67) |
| Self-reported health                         |                   |              |
| Below average                                | REF               |              |
| About average                                | 0.83              | (0.51, 1.33) |
| Above average                                | 0.68              | (0.41, 1.12) |
| Health limitation <sup>1</sup>               | 1.43 <sup>+</sup> | (1.02, 2.41) |
| Unsafe neighbourhood <sup>1</sup>            | 1.02              | (0.74, 1.42) |
| Hunger <sup>1</sup>                          | 1.28              | (0.87, 1.90) |
| Live in rural <sup>1</sup>                   | 1.11              | (0.61, 2.01) |



Table D6 (continued)

|                                 | Model 5 |              |
|---------------------------------|---------|--------------|
|                                 | OR      | 95% CI       |
| <b>Individual-level factors</b> |         |              |
| Socio-demographic               | 0.94    | (0.78, 1.11) |
| Health function                 | 0.68**  | (0.58, 0.81) |
| Living arrangement              | 0.65**  | (0.52, 0.81) |
| Lifestyle                       | 2.03**  | (1.64, 2.52) |
| <b>Community-level factors</b>  |         |              |
| Population density              | 1.10    | (0.95, 1.28) |
| Socioeconomic influence         | 0.94    | (0.79, 1.12) |
| <b>Random parameters</b>        |         |              |
| Across communities              | 0.19*** | 0.43***      |
| Intra-class correlation (ICC)   | 0.05    |              |

Note. <sup>+</sup>p<0.10, \* p<0.05, \*\* p<0.01, \*\*\* p<0.001

OR= odds ratio

<sup>1</sup>= Yes vs. no

REF= reference level

## Appendix E Ancillary Analyses 4

Appendix E includes a short introduction of PLFA, PLFA results, and the results of the multilevel model that includes all ACEs and covariates that were identified by PLFA.

### Appendix E1 PLFA Introduction

The EFA aims to explore the covariance structure among a number of observable variables by constructing a smaller number of latent variables by extraction algorithms such as maximum likelihood approach and rotation techniques such as varimax or promax methods. In practical situations, EFA models often yield unstable estimates<sup>(152)</sup> and over-parameterization, which means the model may include redundant information<sup>(148)</sup>. Furthermore, rotation techniques do not often produce a sufficiently sparse solution. In this case, Techniques just like

LASSO techniques that implement a penalized likelihood procedure can handle these issues.

Researchers found that LASSO is biased and may estimate an overly dense model <sup>(152, 153)</sup>.

LASSO regression sometimes leads to biased solutions because the selection of variables is statistically driven and if predictors are correlated, LASSO arbitrarily select one <sup>(147)</sup>. LASSO may estimate an overly dense model since LASSO does not help in grouped selection <sup>(147)</sup>.

Recently, penalization method via convex and nonconvex penalties were proposed to produce sparse models than the LASSO and the traditional EFA model. This thesis used a penalization method via nonconvex penalties in EFA to produce sparser solutions than changing the regulation parameters. In this study, a penalized likelihood procedure, including a pathwise algorithm and the expectation–maximization (EM) algorithm, along with coordinate descent for nonconvex penalties, was implemented to obtain sparse factor loadings.

In this thesis,  $Q(\Lambda)$  is assumed as an orthogonal rotation criteria at  $\Lambda$ , which was described in Appendix D1. The component loss criteria  $Q(\Lambda)$  can be written as  $Q(\Lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^p \sum_{j=1}^p P|\lambda_{ij}|$  <sup>(152)</sup>. If  $P|\lambda_{ij}| = 0$ , the loss function becomes LASSO. Assume that the maximum likelihood estimates of  $\Lambda$  and  $\Psi$  are  $\widehat{\Lambda}_{ML}$  and  $\widehat{\Psi}_{ML}$ . The criteria is minimize over all orthogonal rotations, i.e.,

$$\min_{\Lambda} \sum_{i=1}^p \sum_{j=1}^p P|\lambda_{ij}|, s. t. l(\Lambda, \Psi) = \hat{l}, \quad (E1)$$

$$\text{where } \hat{l} = l(\widehat{\Lambda}_{ML}, \widehat{\Psi}_{ML}).$$

The model sparsity can be enhanced by adjusting the problem in E1.

$$\min_{\Lambda} \sum_{i=1}^p \sum_{j=1}^p P|\lambda_{ij}|, s. t. l(\Lambda, \Psi) \geq l^*, \quad (E2)$$

where  $l^*$  is a constant value that controls the balance of fitness and the sparseness of the model. Equation E2 can be solved as penalized log-likelihood function.  $l_p(\Lambda, \Psi)$ :

$$l_p(\Lambda, \Psi) = l(\Lambda, \Psi) - N \sum_{i=1}^p \sum_{j=1}^p \rho P|\lambda_{ij}|, \quad (E3)$$

where  $N$  is the number of observations,  $P(\cdot)$  is the penalty function, and  $\rho > 0$  is the regularization parameter that controls the amount of shrinkage, the greater value of  $\rho$ , the larger amount of shrinkage, and the sparser the factor loadings. Nonconvex penalties such as the SCAD and MC+ were applied in this thesis to produce sparser models than EFA and LASSO techniques.

Similar to LASSO regression (see Appendix G) the selection of tuning parameter is important. The appropriate regularization parameter  $\rho$  is selected by model selection criteria AIC, BIC, CAIC, and EBIC in this analysis.

## **Appendix E2 PLFA Results**

Similar to LASSO regression (see Appendix G), a tuning parameter  $\rho$  was introduced to estimate the sparse factor loadings in the PLFA. The tuning parameter  $\rho$  was selected using the BIC criteria. Table E1 describes the factor pattern of individual-level covariates ( $\rho=0.015$ ) and Table E2 shows the factor structure of community-level covariates ( $\rho=0.019$ ). Table E3 displays the model fit parameters, i.e., CFI estimates for both models were greater than 0.94, SRMR below 0.08, and RMSEA close to 0, suggesting good fit for both models. Similar to factor analysis, four factors were extracted from individual-level covariates and two factors from community-level covariates. The labels of the factors remained the same as in the EFA described in Appendix D2.1.

As shown in Table E1, some factor loadings (in brackets) dropped below 0.3, especially under factor 1 for age (0.23), sex (0.14), and education (0.21), compared to the EFA results described in Appendix D2.1. Factor loading for occupation in factor 1 decreased from 0.67 to 0.36. Four items constituted the health function factor, including chronic disease index (0.38), cognitive function (0.33), ADL (0.46), IADL (0.5). Factor loadings in factor 3 did not change

much compared to the EFA results, i.e., rural (0.53), living alone (0.97), and marital status (0.83). Factor 4 included smoking (0.4) and drinking (0.74). Income, physical activity, and social participation were not related to any of the factors.

Compared to the EFA results for community-level covariates, described in Appendix D2.1, factor loadings for total population in the community (0.92) and the proportion of older adults living in the community (0.59) did not appreciably change. However, the loadings for amenities (0.48) and overall community quality (0.51) both weakened. Total income of the community became unimportant in building the two-factor model.

Table E1 Factor pattern of individual-level covariates (n=1,218)

| Variables                    | Factor 1          | Factor 2        | Factor 3           | Factor 4  |
|------------------------------|-------------------|-----------------|--------------------|-----------|
|                              | Socio-demographic | Health function | Living arrangement | Lifestyle |
| Age                          | 0.23              |                 |                    |           |
| Sex                          | 0.14              |                 |                    |           |
| Education level              | 0.21              |                 |                    |           |
| Occupation                   | 0.36              |                 |                    |           |
| Chronic disease              |                   | 0.38            |                    |           |
| Cognitive function           |                   | 0.33            |                    |           |
| Physical activity            |                   |                 |                    |           |
| ADL                          |                   | 0.46            |                    |           |
| IADL                         |                   | 0.50            |                    |           |
| Rural                        |                   |                 | 0.53               |           |
| Living alone                 |                   |                 | 0.97               |           |
| Marital status               |                   |                 | 0.83               |           |
| Smoking                      |                   |                 |                    | 0.36      |
| Drinking                     |                   |                 |                    | 0.72      |
| Social participation         |                   |                 |                    |           |
| Annual household consumption |                   |                 |                    |           |

Table E2 Factor pattern of community-level covariates (n=360)

| Variables                      | Factor 1           | Factor 2                |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|
|                                | Population density | Socioeconomic influence |
| Total population               | 0.59               |                         |
| The proportion of older adults | 0.92               |                         |
| Amenities                      |                    | 0.48                    |
| Total income of the community  |                    |                         |
| Overall community quality      |                    | 0.47                    |

Note. n<sub>1</sub>= number of communities  
n<sub>2</sub>= number of individuals

Table E3 PLFA model fit parameters

| Estimates | Individual level model | Community level model |
|-----------|------------------------|-----------------------|
| SRMR      | 0.04                   | 0.03                  |
| RMSEA     | 0.05                   | <0.001                |
| CFI       | 0.94                   | 0.94                  |

Note. SRMR= standardized root mean square residual  
RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation  
CFI= comparative fit index

### Appendix E3 Multilevel model adjusted for covariates identified by PLFA

Model 6 included ACEs controlling for factors that were extracted from the penalized likelihood factor analysis. This model can be written as

$$\text{Level 1 (personal): } \text{Logit}(p_{ij}) = \beta_{0j} + \beta_1 \text{Death of parents}_{ij} + \beta_2 \text{Death of sibling}_{ij} + \dots + \beta_n \text{Living in rural}_{ij} + \beta_{n+1} \text{Factor1}_{ij} + \beta_{n+2} \text{Factor2}_{ij} + \beta_{n+3} \text{Factor3}_{ij} + \beta_{n+4} \text{Factor4}_{ij}$$

$$\text{Level 2 (community): } \beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_1 \text{Com\_Factor1}_j + \gamma_2 \text{Com\_Factor2}_j + v_{0j} \quad (\text{Model 6}).$$

Model 6 shown in Table E4 included all ACE variables and individual- and community-level factors that were extracted by PLFA. Statistically significant effects were observed for

bullied, feeling alone, had a relatively poor relationship with mother, self-reported ‘above average’ health, and had some health limitations. None of the individual- and community-level factors was statistically significant.

Table E4 Fixed and random parameter estimates from Model 6 (n=1,218)

|  | Model 6           |              |
|--|-------------------|--------------|
|  | OR                | 95% CI       |
| Intercept                                    | 0.08              | (0.00, 3.56) |
| <b>Fixed parameters</b>                      |                   |              |
| <b>Main effects: ACEs</b>                    |                   |              |
| Death of parents <sup>1</sup>                | 0.92              | (0.48, 1.75) |
| Death of siblings <sup>1</sup>               | 1.16              | (0.81, 1.68) |
| Physical abuse <sup>1</sup>                  | 1.07              | (0.80, 1.45) |
| Bullied <sup>1</sup>                         | 1.33 <sup>+</sup> | (1.07, 1.89) |
| Feel alone <sup>1</sup>                      | 1.55 <sup>*</sup> | (1.09, 2.19) |
| Relationship with mother                     |                   |              |
| Excellent                                    | REF               |              |
| Very good                                    | 1.02              | (0.61, 1.73) |
| Poor/fair/good                               | 1.77 <sup>+</sup> | (1.02, 3.09) |
| Relationship with father                     |                   |              |
| Excellent                                    | REF               |              |
| Very good                                    | 1.02              | (0.59, 1.74) |
| Poor/fair/good                               | 0.58              | (0.33, 1.04) |
| Helping neighbours <sup>1</sup>              | 1.04              | (0.73, 1.48) |
| Close-knit ties with neighbours <sup>1</sup> | 1.23              | (0.86, 1.76) |
| Good relationship with friends <sup>1</sup>  | 1.22              | (0.90, 1.64) |
| Self-reported health                         |                   |              |
| Below average                                | REF               |              |
| About average                                | 0.82              | (0.53, 1.29) |
| Above average                                | 0.59 <sup>+</sup> | (0.37, 0.96) |
| Health limitation <sup>1</sup>               | 1.53 <sup>+</sup> | (1.03, 2.52) |
| Unsafe neighbourhood <sup>1</sup>            | 0.95              | (0.70, 1.30) |
| Hunger <sup>1</sup>                          | 1.28              | (0.88, 1.85) |
| Live in rural <sup>1</sup>                   | 1.49              | (0.89, 2.49) |

Table E4 (continued)

|                                 | Model 6             |                     |
|---------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
|                                 | OR                  | 95% CI              |
| <b>Individual-level factors</b> |                     |                     |
| Socio-demographic               | 0.45                | (0.06, 5.53)        |
| Health function                 | 2.53                | (0.04, 1.60)        |
| Living arrangement              | 0.7                 | (0.22, 2.23)        |
| Lifestyle                       | 1.05                | (0.06, 2.18)        |
| <b>Community-level factors</b>  |                     |                     |
| Population density              | 1.1                 | (0.69, 3.16)        |
| Socioeconomic influence         | 0.02                | (0.70, 3.00)        |
| <b>Random parameters</b>        |                     |                     |
| Across communities              | 0.11 <sup>***</sup> | 0.33 <sup>***</sup> |
| Intra-class correlation (ICC)   | 0.03                |                     |

Note. +p<0.10, \*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01, \*\*\*p<0.001

OR= odds ratio

<sup>1</sup>= Yes vs. no

REF= reference level

## Appendix F Model Fit Comparison

The -2 log likelihood, AIC, BIC, and Hosmer-Lemeshow estimates were used to evaluate the models, which were displayed in Table F1 Comparing the values of AIC, BIC, and HL estimates in the different models indicate that Model 4 that included all ACE exposures and control covariates that were identified by LASSO regression was significantly from the Model 5 that included ACEs and control variables that were identified by EFA or the model that included ACEs and factors that were extracted by penalized likelihood factor analysis. Consequently, Model 4 that controlled identified covariates using LASSO techniques was the most efficient and best model among the three models.

The results indicated that LASSO regression performed best among the three techniques in the covariates selection procedure using CHARLS dataset. Therefore, covariates at individual-

and community-level that were selected by LASSO regression were controlled in the final multi-level models.

Table F1 Model fit parameters of Model 4-6

| Model fit statistics | Model 4  | Model 5  | Model 6  |
|----------------------|----------|----------|----------|
| -2 log likelihood    | 1,068.73 | 1,099.82 | 1,189.07 |
| AIC                  | 1,128.70 | 1,151.80 | 1,241.10 |
| BIC                  | 1,275.80 | 1,279.30 | 1,368.50 |
| HL estimate          | 4,862.00 | 5,465.00 | 6,603.00 |

Note. HL= Hosmer-Lemeshow

## Appendix G LASSO Regression Introduction

Factor analysis does not always perform well in some situations. First, the final factor scores tend to be difficult to interpret, e.g., cross-loading items, which means an item loads on more than one dimension, are difficult to eliminate. Second, there is no single solution in EFA; this depends on the subjective choice of extraction and rotation methods.

The LASSO method was used in this study to select individual- and community-level covariates. By selecting a subset of the covariates and eliminating the rest of the covariates, the outcome model became interpretable and had a higher predictive power than the complete model that includes all the covariates.

Consider a simple least squares regression model.

$$y_i = x_i^T \beta + e_i, i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n, \quad (\text{G.1})$$

where  $x_i$  are predictor variables and  $y_i$  are response for the  $i_{th}$  observation,  $\beta$  is  $p \times 1$  vector of model coefficient, and  $e_i$  is the residual error term. The Ordinary least squares (OLS) estimates are obtained by minimizing the residual squared error,

$$\hat{\beta}_{LS} = (\sum_{i=1}^n x x_i^T)^{-1} [\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i]. \quad (\text{G.2})$$



The LASSO is an extension of OLS, which adds a penalty to residual squared error. The LASSO algorithm uses the  $L1$ -norm as tuning parameters to obtain a sparse solution. The LASSO estimators are defined as:

$$\hat{\beta}(\text{lasso}) = \operatorname{argmin}_{\beta} \|y - X\beta\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_1, \quad (\text{G.3})$$

where  $\|y - X\beta\|_2^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - x_i^T \beta)^2$  is the  $L1$ -norm quadratic loss function (i.e., residual sum of squares),  $\|\beta\|_1 = \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j|$  is the  $L1$ -norm penalty on  $\beta$ , which induces sparsity in the solution, and  $\lambda \geq 0$  is the tuning (regularization, penalty, or complexity) parameter which regulates the strength of penalty (i.e., linear shrinkage).

The outcome variable in this study followed a binomial probability distribution.

$Y_i \sim \text{Binomial}(n_i, p_i)$ , where  $n_i$  is the binomial denominator and  $p_i$  is the probability. Equation D.1 can be modified as a logistic regression model.

$$\operatorname{Logit}(p_i) = \log\left(\frac{p_i}{1-p_i}\right) = \beta_0 + x_i^T \beta, \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n, \quad (\text{G.4})$$

where  $\beta_0$  denotes the intercept,  $\beta = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_n)$  denotes the linear coefficients.

The parameter estimates are obtained by maximizing the log-likelihood function:

$$\begin{aligned} l(\beta) &= \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i \log(p_i) + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - p_i)] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ y_i \log\left(\frac{p_i}{1 - p_i}\right) + \log(1 - p_i) \right] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ y_i (\beta_0 + x_i^T \beta) - \log(1 + e^{x_i^T \beta}) \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{G.5})$$

The LASSO method put a fixed upper bound on the sum of the absolute values of the model parameters, which can be expressed by minimizing the negative log-likelihood with  $L1$ -norm<sup>(181)</sup>.

$$\hat{\beta}(\text{lasso}) = \underset{\beta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \log \left( 1 + e^{x_i^T \beta} \right) - y_i (\beta_0 + x_i^T \beta) \right] + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j| \right) \quad (\text{G.6})$$

where  $\sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j|$  is the *L1*-norm penalty on  $\beta$ , and  $\lambda$  is the tuning parameter. Due to the constraint, making  $\lambda$  sufficiently large can shrink some coefficients to zero.

Tibshirani proposed three methods for the  $\lambda$  estimation: cross-validation, generalized cross-validation and an analytical unbiased estimate of risk <sup>(151)</sup>. The larger the value of  $\lambda$ , the greater is the amount of shrinkage. For example, Tibshirani conducted a LASSO regression, which shrank several coefficients to zero from their full linear model estimates (e.g., age -0.15, lbph 0.16, and icp -0.15, etc.) using a prostate cancer data <sup>(151)</sup>. In general, moderate values of  $\lambda$  cause shrinkage of the solutions towards 0, and some coefficients may end up being exactly 0 <sup>(181)</sup>. Consequently, coefficients that are not strongly associated with the outcome are zero, which is equivalent to removing those variables from the original model <sup>(181)</sup>.

## Appendix H Multilevel Regression Introduction

Multilevel logistic modeling was applied to study the associations between depression symptoms and ACEs among the Chinese aging population. The CHARLS data included samples living in rural villages and urban communities. Observations from the same communities or villages may not be independent. Thus, the statistical inference in general linear models or generalized linear models may not be appropriate because of this dependency. Using a general linear model for the clustered or hierarchical data would cause overestimation of significance due to standard errors biased downward <sup>(183)</sup>.

The multilevel model allows for a random effect at the community level to estimate the variability between individual and between communities simultaneously <sup>(184)</sup>. As shown in

Figure H.1, a two-level spatial structure of level-1 units (i.e., persons) nested with 2 level-2 units (i.e., communities) structure was constructed.

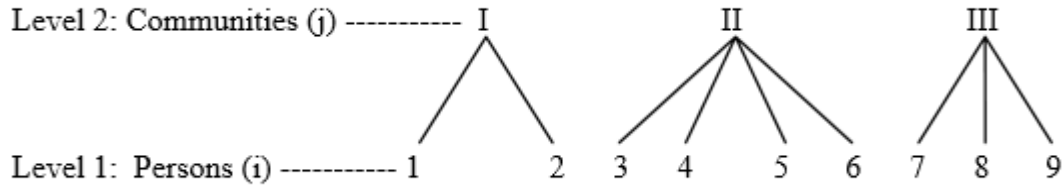


Figure H1 A two-level structure of persons nested in neighbourhoods

A basic two-level linear regression model can be written as:

$$\text{Level 1 (personal): } Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}X_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

$$\text{Level 2 (community): } \beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}W_j + v_{0j}$$

$$\beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11}W_j + v_{1j} \tag{H.1}$$

The level-1 part is similar to the typical OLS model. The multilevel model allows the intercept and slopes to vary across the communities. In the level-2 part, level-1 intercepts and slopes are the outcomes of level-1 predictors, and the  $j$  subscripts imply that for each level-2 unit ( $j$ ), a different level-1 model is being estimated.

In the first equation,  $\beta_{0j}$  is the level-1 intercept in level-2 unit  $j$ ;  $\gamma_{00}$  is the mean of the level-1 dependent variable, controlling for level-2 effects;  $\gamma_{01}$  is the effect of the level-2 predictor  $W_j$  on level-1 intercept;  $v_{0j}$  is the error.

Similarly, in the second equation,  $\beta_{1j}$  is the level-1 slope in level-2 unit  $j$ ; and  $\gamma_{10}$  is the mean of the level-1 slope; controlling for level-2 effects;  $\gamma_{11}$  is the effect of the level-2 predictor  $W_j$  on the level-1 slope; and  $v_{1j}$  is the random error.

Depression symptoms in this study were treated as dichotomous. The binary outcomes cannot be modeled using conventional multilevel models because they violate the normality and continuity assumptions for the dependent variable. Therefore, a set of multi-level logistic models

was built to explore the associations between ACEs and depression symptoms in the older population in China, controlling for the identified individual-/community-level covariates. These models were estimated using the logit (logarithm of odds) link function, namely  $\text{logit}(p_{ij}) = \log(p_{ij}/(1-p_{ij}))$ , in which the binary outcomes followed a Bernoulli distribution with estimated mean,  $p$ , which is the probability of the event occurring. The logit transformation function connects the linear predictors to the mean of the outcome variable, but not directly to the outcome variable itself.

A basic two-level logistic regression model can be written as:

$$\text{Level 1 (personal): } \text{Logit}(p_{ij}) = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}X_{ij}$$

$$\text{Level 2 (community): } \beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}W_j + v_{0j}$$

$$\beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11}W_j + v_{1j} \quad (\text{H.2})$$

The level-1 part is similar to the typical logistic model. The multilevel model allows the intercept and slopes to vary across the communities. In the level-2 part, level-1 intercepts and slopes are the outcomes of level-1 predictors. Substituting the level-2 equations into the level-1 equation, a single equation is obtained as:

$$\text{Logit}(P_{ij}) = [\gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}W_j + \gamma_{10}X_{ij} + \gamma_{11}W_jX_{ij}] + [v_{0j} + v_{1j}X_{ij}] \quad (\text{H.3})$$

(Response) (Fixed parameters)

(Random/variance parameters)

The subscript  $i$  refers to the level-1 respondents;  $j$  refers to the level-2 community where the respondents were living, the  $j$  subscripts imply that for each community  $j$ , a different level-1 model is being estimated;  $p_{ij}$  measures the probability of older adults who had depression symptoms;  $\beta_{0j}$  is the level-1 intercept in level-2 community  $j$ ;  $X_{ij}$  refers to individual-level predictors;  $\beta_{1j}$  is the coefficient of the predictors that reflects the slope for the relationship between the dependent variable (depression symptoms) and the level-1 predictors in community

$j$ ; there is no random term for the level-1 errors;  $\gamma_{00}$  reflects the sum of an intercept that varies over the communities;  $W_j$  reflects the community-level predictors;  $\gamma_{01}$  is the effect of the level-2 predictor  $W_j$  on level-1 intercept;  $\gamma_{10}$  is the mean of the level-1 slope, controlling for level-2 effects;  $\gamma_{11}$  is the effect of the level-2 predictor  $W_j$  on the level-1 slope;  $v_{0j}$  and  $v_{1j}$  are the two random components,  $v_{0j}$  measures the community-specific random effects and  $v_{1j}$  refers to the random effect for the observations of individuals residing in the community in question.

The size of the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC), which signifies the proportion of the overall variation in response that is accounted for by the clustering, also affects the accuracy of the model estimates. ICC ranges from 0 to 1, and smaller ICC indicates that the observations within clusters are less similar than observations from different clusters <sup>(149)</sup>. For example, in the CHARLS data, a higher ICC indicates the percentage of the variability in individuals with depression symptoms is associated with differences between communities/villages in which they were living <sup>(185)</sup>.

ICC provides an assessment of how much variability in responses lies at the highest level and is used to help justify use of a mixed effects (multilevel) model. ICC estimators measure the proportion of neighbourhood variation to the total variations, and thus is interpreted as capturing the within-areal unit similarity of the covariate-adjusted outcomes (i.e., depression symptoms in this thesis). When a multilevel logistic regression model is built, the level-one residuals are assumed to follow the standard logistic distribution which has a mean of 0 and a variance of  $\pi^2/D = 3.29$  <sup>(149)</sup>. The ICC was calculated as follows:

$$ICC = \frac{\tau_{00}}{\tau_{00} + 3.29}, \tau_{00} = \text{value of intercept} \text{ } ^{(149)}.$$

A null model that did not include variables was firstly built. Then, three types of models were developed to answer the research questions.

**Null model:** Firstly, an ‘empty’ model that only included a random intercept was estimated, which allowed us to detect the possible existence of any variations of depression symptoms across communities. If ICC was greater than zero, and/or the estimated variance of intercept  $\gamma_{00}$  was significantly greater than 0, and/or the log-likelihood test was statistically significant, then sufficient reason would exist to use a mixed-effects model.

The null (empty) model can be written as

$$\text{Level 1 (personal): } \text{Logit}(p_{ij}) = \beta_{0j}$$

$$\text{Level 2 (community): } \beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + v_{0j} \quad (\text{Model 1}).$$

**Model with all ACEs and no covariates:** The main effects, namely all ACEs, were added to the null model to investigate how different types of ACEs explain the variation in depression symptoms among older adults in the analysis sample.

This second model can be written as

$$\text{Level 1 (personal): } \text{Logit}(p_{ij}) = \beta_{0j} + \beta_1 \text{Death of parents}_{ij} + \beta_2 \text{Death of sibling}_{ij} + \dots + \beta_n \text{Living in rural}_{ij}$$

$$\text{Level 2 (community): } \beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + v_{0j} \quad (\text{Model 2}).$$

**Model with all ACEs and individual-level covariates:** The third model included all ACEs and the individual-level covariates selected by LASSO regression (i.e., sex, occupation status, chronic disease index, TICS, ADL, and residence status).

Model 3 can be written as

$$\text{Level 1 (personal): } \text{Logit}(p_{ij}) = \beta_{0j} + \beta_1 \text{Death of parents}_{ij} + \beta_2 \text{Death of sibling}_{ij} + \dots + \beta_n \text{Living in rural}_{ij} + \beta_{n+1} \text{Sex}_{ij} + \beta_{n+2} \text{Occupation1}_{ij} + \beta_{n+3} \text{Occupation2}_{ij} + \dots + \beta_{n+6} \text{Rural}_{ij}$$

$$\text{Level 2 (community): } \beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + v_{0j} \quad (\text{Model 3}).$$

### **Model with all ACEs and covariates at both the individual and community levels:**

Three community-level covariates, selected by LASSO regression, were added to Model 3, namely the proportion of older adults living in the community, amenities, and overall community quality. This expanded model became model 4, written as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Level 1 (personal): } \text{Logit}(p_{ij}) = & \beta_{0j} + \beta_1 \text{Death of parents}_{ij} + \\ & \beta_2 \text{Death of sibling}_{ij} + \dots + \beta_n \text{Living in rural}_{ij} + \beta_{n+1} \text{Sex}_{ij} + \beta_{n+2} \text{Occupation1}_{ij} + \\ & \beta_{n+3} \text{Occupation2}_{ij} + \dots + \beta_{n+6} \text{Rural}_{ij} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Level 2 (community): } \beta_{0j} = & \gamma_{00} + \gamma_1 \text{Older people composition}_j + \gamma_2 \text{Amenities}_j + \\ & \gamma_3 \text{Environment}_j + v_{0j} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{Model 4}).$$

## **Appendix I Ethics and Copyright Clearance**

# Ethics Clearance (b) (ORE # 22856)

ORE Ethics Application System <OHRAC@uwaterloo.ca>

Fri 2018-02-09 2:37 PM

To: Mark Oremus <moremus@uwaterloo.ca>; Mark Ferro <mark.ferro@uwaterloo.ca>; Joel Dubin <jdubin@uwaterloo.ca>;

Cc: Mingying Fang <ming.fang@uwaterloo.ca>;

Dear Researcher:

A University of Waterloo Research Ethics Committee is pleased to inform you the study named below has been reviewed and given ethics clearance.

Title: Factors influencing depression symptoms among older adults in China

ORE #: 22856

Faculty Supervisor: Mark Oremus (moremus@uwaterloo.ca)

Faculty Supervisor: Mark Ferro (mark.ferro@uwaterloo.ca)

Faculty Supervisor: Joel Dubin (jdubin@uwaterloo.ca)

Student Investigator: Mingying Fang (m23fang@uwaterloo.ca)

A signed copy of the notification of ethics clearance will be sent to the Principal Investigator (or Faculty Supervisor in the case of student research). Ethics approval to start this research is effective as of the date of this email. The above named study is to be conducted in accordance with the submitted application (Form 101/101A) and the most recent approved versions of all supporting materials.

University of Waterloo Research Ethics Committees operate in compliance with the institution's guidelines for research with human participants, the Tri-Council Policy Statement for the Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans (TCPS, 2nd edition), Internationalization Conference on Harmonization: Good Clinical Practice (ICH-GCP), the Ontario Personal Health Information Protection Act (PHIPA), and the applicable laws and regulations of the province of Ontario. Both Committees are registered with the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services under the Federal Wide Assurance, FWA00021410, and IRB registration number IRB00002419 (Human Research Ethics Committee) and IRB00007409 (Clinical Research Ethics Committee).

\*\*\*\*\*

Renewal: Multi-year research must be renewed at least once every 12 months unless a more frequent review has otherwise been specified by the Research Ethics Committee on the signed notification of ethics clearance. Studies will only be renewed if the renewal report is received and approved before the expiry date (Form 105 - <https://uwaterloo.ca/research/office-research-ethics/research-human-participants/renewals>). Failure to submit renewal reports by the expiry date will result in the investigators being notified ethics clearance has been suspended and Research Finance being notified the ethics clearance is no longer valid.

Modification: Amendments to this study are to be submitted through a modification request (Form 104 - <https://uwaterloo.ca/research/office-research-ethics/research-human-participants/modifications>) and may only be implemented once the proposed changes have received ethics clearance.

Adverse event: Events that adversely affect a study participant must be reported as soon as possible, but no later than 24 hours following the event, by contacting the Chief Ethics Officer. Submission of an adverse event form (Form 106 - <https://uwaterloo.ca/research/office-research-ethics/research-human-participants/report-problems>) is to follow the next business day.

Deviation: Unanticipated deviations from the approved study protocol or approved documentation or procedures are to be reported within 7 days of the occurrence using a protocol deviation form (Form 107 - <https://uwaterloo.ca/research/office->



[research-ethics/research-human-participants/report-problems](https://uwaterloo.ca/research-ethics/research-human-participants/report-problems)).

Incidental finding: Anticipated or unanticipated incidental findings are to be reported as soon as possible by contacting the Chief Ethics Officer. Submission of the incidental findings form (Form 108 - <https://uwaterloo.ca/research/office-research-ethics/research-human-participants/report-problems>) is to follow within 3 days of learning of the finding. Participants may not be contacted regarding incidental findings until after approval has been received from a Research Ethics Committee to contact participants to disclose these findings.

Study closure: Report the end of this study using a study closure report (Form 105 - <https://uwaterloo.ca/research/office-research-ethics/research-human-participants/renewals>).

You are responsible for obtaining any additional institutional approvals that might be required to complete this study.

\*\*\*\*\*

Best wishes for success with this study.

-----  
Laura Strathdee, B.A,  
Research Ethics Advisor  
Office of Research Ethics  
519.888.4567 x 30321  
lstrathd@uwaterloo.ca

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