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Article type : Original Article

Childhood trauma and treatment outcomes during mood-stabilising treatment with lithium or quetiapine among outpatients with bipolar disorder

Running title: CHILDHOOD TRAUMA AND TREATMENT OUTCOMES IN BIPOLAR DISORDER

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This is the author manuscript accepted for publication and has undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the [Version of Record](#). Please cite this article as [doi: 10.1111/ACPS.13420](https://doi.org/10.1111/ACPS.13420)

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58

59 **Acknowledgements:** None.

60

61 **Author contributions:** **ALW** developed the research question and drafted/edited/approved
62 the final version of the manuscript. **OKF** developed the research question, completed all
63 quantitative analyses, and edited/approved the final version of the manuscript. **OMD, SMC,**
64 **MB, AT,** and **AAN** developed the research question and edited/approved the final version of
65 the manuscript. All other authors edited/approved the final version of the manuscript.

66

67 **Funding sources:** **ALW** is supported by a Deakin University Centre of Research Excellence
68 in Psychiatric Treatment Postgraduate Research Scholarship. **SER** is supported by an
69 Australian Government Research Training Program Scholarship. **OMD** is supported by a
70 NHMRC R.D. Wright Biomedical Career Development Fellowship (APP1145634). **SMC** is
71 supported by a NHMRC Senior Research Fellowship (APP1136344). **MT** is supported by the
72 Atlas Foundation. **MM** is supported by the Heinz C Prechter Bipolar Research Program and
73 the Richard Tam Foundation. **MB** is supported by a NHMRC Senior Principal Research
74 Fellowship (APP1156072). The Bipolar CHOICE trial was funded by the Agency for Healthcare
75 Research and Quality (AHRQ): 1R01HS019371-01.

76
77 **Conflict of interest statement:** **ALW** has received grant/research support from Deakin
78 University. **OKF** has received speaker fees from Lundbeck. **LS** has received personal fees
79 from United Biosource Corporation, Clintara, Bracket, and Clinical Trials Network and Institute;
80 royalty fees from New Harbinger; grants from National Institute of Mental Health, Patient
81 Centered Outcomes Research Institute, American Foundation for Suicide Prevention, and
82 Takeda. **SER** has received grant/research support from Deakin University. **OMD** has received
83 grant/research support from the Brain and Behavior Foundation, Simons Autism Foundation,
84 Stanley Medical Research Institute, Deakin University, Lilly, NHMRC and Australasian Society
85 for Bipolar and Depressive Disorders (ASBDD)/Servier. **OMD** has also received in kind
86 support from BioMedica Nutraceuticals, NutritionCare and Bioceuticals. **MT** is a former full time
87 employee at Lilly (1997-2008); he has been a consultant for AstraZeneca, Abbott, BMS, Lilly,
88 GSK, J&J, Otsuka, Roche, Lundbeck, Elan, Alkermes, Allergan, AbbVie, Intracellular
89 Therapies, Merck, Minerva, Neurocrine, PamLab, Alexza, Forest, Teva, Sunovion, and
90 Gedeon Richter; his spouse is a former employee at Lilly (1998-2013). **MM** has consulted for
91 Janssen and Otsuka Pharmaceuticals and has received research funding from Janssen
92 Pharmaceuticals. **TAK** has received grant/research support from AstraZeneca
93 Pharmaceuticals LP, Cephalon Inc., Eli Lilly and Company, Pfizer Inc., Dainippon Sumitomo
94 Pharmaceuticals/Sepracor, Inc. Sepracor, Inc; he has also consulted for Bristol-Myers Squibb
95 Company, Cephalon Inc., Dainippon Sumitomo Pharmaceuticals/Sepracor, Inc., Merck & Co.,
96 Inc. and has received honoraria or royalties from AstraZeneca Pharmaceuticals LP,
97 GlaxoSmithKline, American Psychiatric Publishing, Inc; his spouse is an employee at Johnson
98 & Johnson. **RCS** has received grant/research support from Acadia Pharmaceuticals,
99 Alkermes, Inc., Allergan, Plc, Assurex, Inc., Avanir Pharmaceuticals, Inc., Cerecor, Inc.,
100 Intracellular Therapies, Janssen Pharmaceutica, LivaNova PLC, Navitor Pharmaceuticals,
101 Neurorx, Novartis Pharmaceuticals, Otsuka America, Takeda Pharmaceuticals. **RCS** has also
102 consulted for Acadia Pharmaceuticals, Allergan plc, Alfasigma USA Inc., Myriad
103 Neuroscience, Novartis International AG, Evecxia Therapeutics, Sunovion Pharmaceuticals

104 Inc., Neurorx, Inc., Seelos Therapeutics. **MJO** is a full-time employee of the United States
105 Department of Veterans Affairs and has received research support from Otsuka. **MJO** has
106 also consulted for Janssen, Sage Therapeutics, and Alkermes. In the last five years, **DVI** has
107 received consulting honoraria from Alkermes, Allergan, Axsome, Biogen, Centers for
108 Psychiatric Excellence, Jazz, Lundbeck, Otsuka, Precision Neuroscience, Sage, Sunovion; he
109 has received research support (through his academic institutions) from Alkermes, Astra
110 Zeneca, Brainsway, Litecure, Neosync, Otsuka, Roche, Shire. **MB** has received
111 grant/research support from the NIH, Cooperative Research Centre, Simons Autism
112 Foundation, Cancer Council of Victoria, Stanley Medical Research Foundation, Medical
113 Benefits Fund, National Health and Medical Research Council, Medical Research Futures
114 Fund, Beyond Blue, Rotary Health, A2 milk company, Meat and Livestock Board, Woolworths,
115 Avant and the Harry Windsor Foundation, has been a speaker for Astra Zeneca, Lundbeck,
116 Merck, Pfizer, and served as a consultant to Allergan, Astra Zeneca, Bioadvantex, Bionomics,
117 Collaborative Medicinal Development, Lundbeck Merck, Pfizer and Servier. **AT** has received
118 travel/grant support from NHMRC, AMP Foundation, Stroke Foundation, Hunter Medical
119 Research Institute, Helen Macpherson Smith Trust, Schizophrenia Fellowship NSW, SMHR,
120 ISAD, the University of Newcastle and Deakin University. **AAN** is a consultant for the Abbott
121 Laboratories, Alkermes, American Psychiatric Association, Appliance Computing Inc.
122 (Mindsite), Basilea, Brain Cells, Inc., Brandeis University, Bristol Myers Squibb, Clintara,
123 Corcept, Dey Pharmaceuticals, Daiippon Sumitomo (now Sunovion), Eli Lilly and Company,
124 EpiQ, L.P./Mylan Inc., Forest, Genaisance, Genentech, GlaxoSmithKline, Hoffman LaRoche,
125 Infomedic, Intra-Cellular Therapies, Lundbeck, Janssen Pharmaceutica, Jazz
126 Pharmaceuticals, Medavante, Merck, Methylation Sciences, Naurex, NeuroRx, Novartis,
127 Otsuka, PamLabs, Parexel, Pfizer, PGx Health, Ridge Diagnostics Shire, Schering-Plough,
128 Somerset, Sunovion, Takeda Pharmaceuticals, Targacept, and Teva; consulted through the
129 MGH Clinical Trials Network and Institute (CTNI) for Astra Zeneca, Brain Cells, Inc, Dianippon
130 Sumitomo/Sepracor, Johnson and Johnson, Labopharm, Merck, Methylation Science,
131 Novartis, PGx Health, Shire, ScheringPlough, Targacept and Takeda/Lundbeck
132 Pharmaceuticals. He receives grant/research support from American Foundation for Suicide
133 Prevention, AHRQ, Brain and Behavior Research Foundation, Bristol-Myers Squibb,
134 Cederroth, Cephalon, Cyberonics, Elan, Eli Lilly, Forest, GlaxoSmithKline, Janssen
135 Pharmaceutica, Intra-Cellular Therapies, Lichtwer Pharma, Marriott Foundation, Mylan, NIMH,
136 PamLabs, PCORI, Pfizer Pharmaceuticals, Shire, Stanley Foundation, Takeda, and Wyeth-
137 Ayerst. Honoraria include Belvoir Publishing, University of Texas Southwestern Dallas,
138 Brandeis University, Bristol-Myers Squibb, Hillside Hospital, American Drug Utilization
139 Review, American Society for Clinical Psychopharmacology, Baystate Medical Center,
140 Columbia University, CRICO, Dartmouth Medical School, Health New England, Harold

141 Grinspoon Charitable Foundation, IMEDEX, Israel Society for Biological Psychiatry, Johns
142 Hopkins University, MJ Consulting, New York State, Medscape, MBL Publishing, MGH
143 Psychiatry Academy, National Association of Continuing Education, Physicians Postgraduate
144 Press, SUNY Buffalo, University of Wisconsin, University of Pisa, University of Michigan,
145 University of Miami, University of Wisconsin at Madison, World Congress of Brain Behavior
146 and Emotion, APSARD, ISBD, SciMed, Slack Publishing and Wolters Klower Publishing
147 ASCP, NCDEU, Rush Medical College, Yale University School of Medicine, NNDC, Nova
148 Southeastern University, NAMI, Institute of Medicine, CME Institute, ISCTM. He was currently
149 or formerly on the advisory boards of Appliance Computing, Inc., Brain Cells, Inc., Eli Lilly and
150 Company, Genentech, Johnson and Johnson, Takeda/Lundbeck, Targacept, and InfoMedic.
151 He owns stock options in Appliance Computing, Inc., Brain Cells, Inc, and Medavante; has
152 copyrights to the Clinical Positive Affect Scale and the MGH Structured Clinical Interview for
153 the Montgomery Asberg Depression Scale exclusively licensed to the MGH Clinical Trials
154 Network and Institute (CTNI).

155 **ABSTRACT**

156 **Background:** Childhood trauma affects the course of mood disorders. Researchers are now
157 considering childhood trauma as an influential factor in the treatment of mood disorders.
158 However, the role of childhood trauma in the treatment of bipolar disorder remains
159 understudied.

160 **Methods:** The effect of childhood trauma on treatment outcomes was evaluated among
161 participants randomised to treatment with lithium or quetiapine in the Clinical and Health
162 Outcomes Initiatives in Comparative Effectiveness for Bipolar Disorder (Bipolar CHOICE)
163 study by clinician assessment. Mixed effects linear regression models were used to analyse
164 rates of improvement in symptom severity (assessed with the Bipolar Inventory of Symptoms
165 Scale and the Clinical Global Impression Scale for Bipolar Disorder) and functional impairment
166 (assessed with the Longitudinal Interval Follow-up Evaluation-Range of Impaired Functioning
167 Tool).

168 **Results:** A history of any childhood trauma was reported by 52.7% of the sample ($N = 476$).
169 Although participants with a history of any childhood trauma presented with greater symptom
170 severity and functional impairment at most study visits, participants with and without a history
171 of any childhood trauma showed similar rates of improvement in symptom severity and
172 functional impairment over the 24 weeks of treatment.

173 **Conclusion:** This is the first study to explore the association between childhood trauma and
174 treatment outcomes during treatment with lithium or quetiapine in the context of a randomised
175 trial. In Bipolar CHOICE, a history of childhood trauma did not inhibit improvement in symptom
176 severity or functional impairment. Nevertheless, these findings need replication across
177 different settings.

178

179 **Keywords:** bipolar disorder, childhood abuse, lithium, quetiapine, treatment outcomes180 **SIGNIFICANT OUTCOMES AND LIMITATIONS**

Significant outcomes A history of any childhood trauma was reported by more than 50% of the current sample.

Although participants with a history of childhood trauma experienced more severe symptoms and greater functional impairment at most study visits, participants with and without a history of childhood trauma did not differ in rates of improvement during mood-stabilising treatment with lithium or quetiapine as assessed in the Bipolar CHOICE study.

The data were collected as part of a randomised trial; hence, our findings require replication across different settings. Nevertheless, the present study adds to the scarce body of literature on the role of childhood trauma in the treatment of bipolar disorder.

Limitations Bipolar CHOICE had no placebo group; therefore, regression to the mean cannot be excluded as a plausible reason for the present findings.

Only outpatients participated in Bipolar CHOICE; hence, the current results are not applicable to an inpatient population.

Childhood trauma was not assessed with a validated questionnaire, potentially underestimating the number of participants with a history of childhood trauma.

181

182 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

183 The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the corresponding
184 author. The data are not publicly available due to privacy or ethical restrictions.

185 **INTRODUCTION**

186 Treatment outcomes – including symptomatic remission and social and occupational
187 functioning – among individuals with bipolar disorder are often suboptimal ^{1, 2}. Therefore,
188 identifying factors that contribute to poor treatment outcomes is of considerable clinical
189 relevance ^{3, 4}. It is well-established that childhood trauma plays a role in the course of bipolar
190 disorder ^{5, 6}. The large meta-analysis by Agnew-Blais and Danese ⁷, for example, suggested
191 that childhood trauma is related to an earlier onset and a greater number of mood episodes

192 as well as to higher rates of rapid cycling, psychotic symptoms, and psychiatric comorbidities
193 in bipolar disorder.

194

195 More recently, researchers have considered childhood trauma as a potentially important factor
196 in the treatment of mood disorders ^{7, 8}. Several studies have demonstrated an association
197 between childhood trauma and poorer response to pharmacotherapy in both adolescent and
198 adult samples diagnosed with major depressive disorder ⁹⁻¹². Although there are only few
199 small-scale studies that examined a similar association in bipolar disorder ¹³⁻¹⁷, initial findings
200 highlight that childhood trauma might also moderate treatment outcomes in this population.

201

202 For instance, Cakir et al. ¹⁴ evaluated data from a sample of 135 euthymic outpatients with
203 bipolar disorder who either received anticonvulsants (i.e., valproate or carbamazepine) or
204 lithium as maintenance treatment (i.e., for at least 3 years). The researchers showed that
205 participants who responded poorly to long-term treatment with anticonvulsants – in
206 comparison to participants who responded adequately – had experienced more severe
207 physical and/or emotional abuse in childhood. In contrast to these findings, no association was
208 found between childhood trauma and participants' response to long-term lithium treatment.

209

210 The study by Etain et al. ¹³ contrasts with that of Cakir et al. ¹⁴. These researchers reported
211 that childhood physical abuse – but not sexual or emotional abuse – was inversely related to
212 response to treatment with lithium among 148 euthymic participants with bipolar disorder.
213 Additionally, Etain et al. ¹³ indicated that participants who experienced multiple types of
214 childhood trauma (i.e., physical, sexual, or emotional abuse) were more likely to have an
215 inadequate response to lithium than those participants who were not exposed to any trauma
216 during childhood.

217

218 To note, whether these associations with childhood trauma are direct or indirect remains an
219 unexplored issue. However, several plausible mediators have been proposed. For instance,
220 survivors of childhood trauma are less likely to adhere to pharmacological treatments ¹⁸⁻²⁰ and
221 non-adherence significantly reduces treatment effectiveness ^{8, 21}. Moreover, experiences of
222 childhood trauma may impede individuals' likelihood of establishing an adaptive therapeutic
223 alliance ^{8, 22, 23}; a strong and positive therapeutic alliance greatly facilitates adherence to
224 pharmacological treatments ²⁴⁻²⁶.

225

226 **Aim of the study**

227 As the existing evidence on the differential response to lithium treatment among individuals
228 with bipolar disorder who have a history of childhood trauma is underscored by conflicting

229 results, additional examination is warranted. Furthermore, there is a lack of clinical studies
230 that investigate whether childhood trauma affects treatment with antipsychotics. This is
231 despite both conventional and atypical antipsychotics being guideline recommended therapies
232 for bipolar disorder ²⁷. Hence, we explored the association between childhood trauma and
233 treatment outcomes (including improvements in symptom severity and functional impairment)
234 among outpatients with bipolar disorder who were randomised to mood-stabilising treatment
235 with lithium (a classic mood stabiliser) or quetiapine (a second-generation atypical
236 antipsychotic).

237

238 **METHODS AND MATERIALS**

239 **Study design**

240 We completed secondary analyses using data from the Clinical Health Outcomes Initiative in
241 Comparative Effectiveness for Bipolar Disorder (Bipolar CHOICE) study ²⁸. Bipolar CHOICE,
242 a randomised comparative effectiveness trial, was conducted over 6 months at multiple sites
243 to compare the efficacy of lithium and quetiapine for the treatment of bipolar disorder. Lithium
244 and quetiapine were combined with evidence-based and guideline-informed treatments
245 (referred to as Adjunctive Personalised Treatment [APT]). The APTs were personalised
246 according to the participants' current symptomatology, course of the condition, and treatment
247 history.

248

249 The Institutional Review Boards at all sites provided ethical approval for Bipolar CHOICE.
250 Participants gave written informed consent in the presence of a study clinician before
251 completing any research assessments. Further details pertaining to the study protocol
252 developed for Bipolar CHOICE, including its rationale and design, have been previously
253 reported ²⁸. Bipolar CHOICE was registered (see ClinicalTrials.gov identifier NCT01331304).

254

255 **Participants**

256 A total of 692 adult outpatients (between 18 and 62 years of age) were screened for
257 participation in Bipolar CHOICE; 482 of these were randomised. Participants were required to
258 meet the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, fourth edition, text revision
259 (DSM-IV-TR) ²⁹ criteria for bipolar I or bipolar II disorder and present with at least mild
260 depressive or (hypo)manic symptoms – as indicated by a Clinical Global Impression Scale for
261 Bipolar Disorder (CGI-BP) score of ≥ 3 ³⁰ – at entry to the study ²⁸. Limited exclusion criteria
262 were applied to facilitate 'real-world' scenarios and increase the generalisability of the findings.
263 The participants completed clinical assessments at baseline and eight follow-up visits (i.e., at
264 weeks 2, 4, 6, 8, 12, 16, 20, and 24).

265

266 **Assessments**267 ***Diagnostic assessment***

268 At baseline, diagnostic assessments were performed with an electronic version of the
269 extended Mini-International Neuropsychiatric Interview (MINI)³¹ – a validated but brief
270 structured interview for psychiatric and substance use disorders (including current and lifetime
271 diagnoses). During a clinical interview, study clinicians also collected demographic information
272 and details on participants' psychiatric history.

274 ***Assessment of childhood trauma***

275 Based on a question included in the clinical interview (i.e., "Did the patient experience abuse
276 during childhood?"), study clinicians recorded: (1) whether participants had experienced any
277 abuse during childhood (i.e., rated as present or absent); and (2) what type of childhood abuse
278 (i.e., physical, sexual, emotional, other), if applicable. The study clinicians did not inquire about
279 the participants' subjective perception of the abuse; therefore, participants were coded as
280 having a history of any childhood trauma if they were exposed to at least one of the following:
281 physical abuse, sexual abuse, or emotional abuse. This conceptualisation of childhood trauma
282 is in line with previous research^{13, 32} and the assumption that those experiences are likely to
283 be perceived as traumatic by most people³².

284
285 ***Assessment of symptom severity***

286 At baseline and all follow-up visits, symptom severity was assessed with the Bipolar Inventory
287 of Symptoms Scale (BISS)^{33, 34} and the CGI-BP³⁰. The BISS is a structured interview for the
288 assessment of mood symptoms that consists of 44 items, each rated on a scale from 0 to 4.
289 Higher scores indicate greater symptom severity. The BISS yields an overall illness severity
290 score as well as five domain scores (depression, mania, anxiety, irritability, and psychosis).
291 For their ratings, study clinicians used information provided by participants via self-report but
292 also considered observations made during the interview and outside the assessment.

293
294 The CGI-BP³⁰ is a clinician-rated scale for the assessment of illness severity which is scored
295 on a scale from 1 ('normal, not at all ill') to 7 ('among the most extremely ill patients'). Similar
296 to the BISS, the CGI-BP yields a score for the overall illness severity as well as domain scores
297 for depression and mania severity. Assessments with the CGI-BP are based on the study
298 clinicians' overall impression of the participants' presentation (including reported and observed
299 symptoms). Both the BISS and the CGI-BP have demonstrated adequate psychometric
300 properties (for detailed discussions, see^{30, 33, 34}).

301
302 ***Assessment of functional impairment***

303 At baseline and weeks 12 and 24, functional impairment was measured with the Longitudinal
304 Interval Follow-up Evaluation-Range of Impaired Functioning Tool (LIFE-RIFT)^{35,36}. The LIFE-
305 RIFT is a semi-structured interview for the assessment of impairment in functioning,
306 specifically due to psychopathology, in four domains (work, interpersonal relationships,
307 recreation, and life satisfaction). Impairment in these domains is rated on a scale from 1 ('no
308 impairment') to 5 ('severe impairment'). Scores of 0 ('not applicable') and 6 ('no information')
309 are coded as missing. The LIFE-RIFT has also shown adequate psychometric properties (for
310 detailed discussions, see^{35,36}).

311

312 ***Assessment of Necessary Clinical Adjustments***

313 At all follow-up visits, the number of Necessary Clinical Adjustments (NCAs; i.e., required
314 medication changes) were recorded indicating treatment complexity.

315

316 **Statistical analysis**

317 ***Primary analysis***

318 All statistical analyses were conducted with STATA 14.0³⁷. For our primary analysis, we
319 distinguished between (1) participants with a history of any childhood trauma and (2)
320 participants without a history of any childhood trauma. To study differences between these
321 two groups at entry to Bipolar CHOICE (i.e., baseline), we conducted several logistic
322 regressions and obtained odds ratios (OR) including 95% confidence intervals (CI) of the ORs
323 from these models. We conducted additional logistic regressions to explore differences
324 between the two groups in maximum dose of lithium/quetiapine received at week 2.

325

326 To explore differences in treatment outcomes between participants with and without a history
327 of any childhood trauma, we completed a series of mixed effects linear regression models
328 using a repeated measures approach; β -coefficients including 95% CI were estimated. These
329 models allow the inclusion of all available data collected across multiple time points and can
330 adequately handle missing data³⁸.

331

332 We examined the association of childhood trauma with clinical outcomes (i.e., symptom
333 severity *and* functional impairment) during the 24-week follow-up. We then examined rates of
334 improvement in participants with and without a history of any childhood trauma over the course
335 of the entire study period; treatment outcomes were indicated by participants' change in total
336 scores on the following measures: BISS (overall severity), CGI-BP (overall severity), and LIFE-
337 RIFT (overall impairment). We adjusted all models for age, sex, and participants' baseline
338 score on the relevant outcome measure. To test the robustness of the models, we reran the
339 analyses excluding participants with a diagnosis of posttraumatic stress disorder.

340

341 **Secondary analyses**

342 A range of secondary analyses using additional mixed effects linear regression models was
343 conducted. First, we completed similar models among individuals randomised to lithium or
344 quetiapine, respectively. Second, we wanted to distinguish between the different types of
345 childhood trauma and compared individuals who were exposed to physical abuse, sexual
346 abuse, or emotional abuse to participants without a history of any childhood trauma. Finally,
347 we conducted a secondary analysis considering the number of childhood trauma types (i.e., 0
348 vs. 1, 2, or 3) experienced. In all secondary analyses, participants without a history of any
349 childhood trauma were used as the reference group.

350

351 As exploratory analyses, we completed similar models among men and women. Finally, we
352 also calculated mixed effects linear regression models (adjusted for age and sex) to
353 investigate differences in number of NCAs required over the course of 24 weeks of treatment
354 between participants with and without a history of any childhood trauma.

355

356 **RESULTS**

357 Of the 482 patients who were randomised for Bipolar CHOICE, six participants were excluded
358 from the current analyses because they had not experienced physical, sexual, and/or
359 emotional abuse in childhood but were exposed to “other” abuse. Details about the
360 participants’ “other” abuse experiences were not available. Among the remaining 476
361 participants, 52.7% ($n = 251$) were exposed to any childhood trauma. Of these, 47.0% ($n =$
362 118) were exposed to one type of childhood trauma, 24.7% ($n = 62$) were exposed to two
363 types of childhood trauma, and 28.3% ($n = 71$) were exposed to all three types of childhood
364 trauma. Specifically, 49.4% ($n = 124$) participants were exposed to physical abuse, 56.2% (n
365 = 141) participants were exposed to sexual abuse, and 75.7% ($n = 190$) participants were
366 exposed to emotional abuse.

367

368 The baseline characteristics for participants with and without a history of any childhood trauma
369 are presented in Table 1. There was no significant difference between groups in age but
370 participants with a history of any childhood trauma were more likely to be female. Childhood
371 trauma was also associated with an earlier age at symptom onset (depression and mania),
372 higher number of depressive episodes, higher rates and number of suicide attempts, higher
373 rates of prior psychiatric hospitalisation, and higher rates of comorbidity with posttraumatic
374 stress disorder and lifetime substance abuse. At baseline, participants with a history of any
375 childhood trauma presented with greater symptom severity (depression, mania, anxiety,
376 irritability, and psychosis) as well as greater functional impairment. At week 2, there was no

377 significant difference between groups in maximum dose of lithium (no childhood trauma: $M =$
378 995mg, $SD = 387$ mg; any childhood trauma: $M = 1040$ mg; $SD = 351$ mg) or quetiapine (no
379 childhood trauma: $M = 340$ mg, $SD = 171$ mg; any childhood trauma: $M = 349$ mg; $SD = 167$ mg)
380 received (all $p > 0.1$).

381

382 **The effect of any childhood trauma on symptom severity and functional impairment**

383 The adjusted mixed effects linear regression models showed significant reductions in
384 symptom severity among participants with and without a history of any childhood trauma. After
385 24 weeks of treatment with lithium or quetiapine, participants with a history of any childhood
386 trauma had a mean BISS score of 31.3 ($SD = 22.8$) and a mean CGI-BP score of 2.92 ($SD =$
387 1.31). Participants without a history of any childhood trauma had a mean BISS score of 27.1
388 ($SD = 21.0$) and a mean CGI-BP score of 2.76 ($SD = 1.37$).

389

390 Participants with a history of any childhood trauma had significantly higher mean BISS and
391 CGI-BP scores at each study visit (all $p < 0.05$) except the 24-week follow-up visit (BISS: $p =$
392 0.12; CGI-BP: $p = 0.10$), than participants without a history of any childhood trauma. Regarding
393 rates of improvement or symptom reduction during the 24 weeks of treatment, there was no
394 significant difference between participants with and without a history of any childhood trauma
395 as indicated by both the BISS ($\beta = -0.33$, 95% CI = -0.18 – 0.12, $p = 0.68$) and the CGI-BP (β
396 = 0.003, 95% CI = -0.005 – 0.01, $p = 0.45$; see Figure 1).

397

398 The adjusted mixed effects linear regression models also showed significant reductions in
399 functional impairment among participants with and without a history of any childhood trauma.
400 At the 24-week follow-up visit, participants with a history of any childhood trauma had a mean
401 LIFE-RFT score of 10.8 ($SD = 3.7$) whereas participants without a history of any childhood
402 trauma had a mean LIFE-RIFT score of 9.9 ($SD = 3.8$).

403

404 In comparison to participants without a history of any childhood trauma, participants with a
405 history of any childhood trauma had significantly higher mean LIFE-RIFT scores at week 12
406 and 24 (all $p < 0.05$). Similar to symptom severity, there was no significant difference between
407 participants with and without a history of any childhood trauma in rates of improvement or
408 reduction in functional impairment as indicated by the LIFE-RIFT ($\beta = 0.01$, 95% CI = -0.22 –
409 0.04, $p = 0.56$; see Figure 1). This pattern of findings was unaffected by the exclusion of
410 participants with a diagnosis of posttraumatic stress disorder.

411

412 **The effect of treatment arm, type of childhood trauma, and number of childhood trauma** 413 **types experienced**

414 In the initial secondary analysis, we distinguished between participants randomised to lithium
415 or quetiapine. In both treatment arms, participants with a history of any childhood trauma had
416 significantly higher BISS and CGI-BP scores at each study visit (all $p < 0.05$) except the 24-
417 week follow-up (lithium: BISS: $p = 0.21$; CGI-BP: $p = 0.18$; quetiapine: BISS: $p = 0.33$; CGI-
418 BP: $p = 0.73$) as well as higher LIFE-RIFT scores at each study visit (all $p < 0.05$), than
419 participants without a history of any childhood trauma. For either treatment arm, there was no
420 significant difference in rates of improvement between participants with and without a history
421 of any childhood trauma on the BISS, the CGI-BP, and the LIFE-RIFT (all $p > 0.1$).

422
423 Next, we distinguished by the type of childhood trauma experienced. In comparison to
424 participants without a history of any childhood trauma, participants with a history of physical
425 abuse, sexual abuse, and emotional abuse had significantly higher BISS, CGI-BP, and LIFE-
426 RIFT scores at each study visit (all $p < 0.05$). Participants with a history of physical abuse,
427 sexual abuse, or emotional abuse and participants without a history of any childhood trauma
428 did not differ in rates of improvement on the BISS, the CGI-BP, and the LIFE-RIFT (all $p > 0.1$;
429 see Figure 2).

430
431 Finally, we distinguished by the number of childhood trauma types experienced. Participants
432 with a history of childhood trauma consisting of exposure to both a single or multiple childhood
433 trauma types (2 or 3) had significantly higher BISS, CGI-BP, and LIFE-RIFT scores at each
434 study visit (all $p < 0.05$), than participants without a history of any childhood trauma. There
435 was no significant difference in rates of improvement in functional impairment between
436 participants who were exposed to a single or multiple childhood trauma types and participants
437 without a history of any childhood trauma as indicated by the LIFE-RIFT ($p > 0.1$; see Figure
438 3).

439
440 However, participants who were exposed to all three childhood trauma types – but not
441 participants who were exposed to one or two types (all $p > 0.3$) – showed significantly higher
442 rates of improvement in symptom severity on the BISS ($\beta = 4.99$, 95% CI = 0.21 – 9.77, $p =$
443 0.04) but not on the CGI-BP ($\beta = 0.03$, 95% CI = -0.26 – 0.32, $p = 0.83$), than participants
444 without a history of any childhood trauma (see Figure 3).

445 446 ***The exploration of the effect of sex***

447 For both men and women, there was no significant difference in rates of improvement between
448 participants with and without a history of any childhood trauma on the BISS, the CGI-BP, and
449 the LIFE-RIFT (all $p > 0.1$).

450

451 ***The exploration of treatment complexity***

452 Over the course of 24 weeks of treatment with lithium or quetiapine, participants with a history
453 of any childhood trauma had a mean of 8.90 ($SD = 6.12$) NCAs while participants without a
454 history of any childhood trauma had a mean of 9.44 ($SD = 6.30$) NCAs; there was no significant
455 difference ($p = 0.34$).

456

457 **DISCUSSION**

458 To our knowledge, this is the first study to explore the effect of childhood trauma on treatment
459 outcomes during mood-stabilising treatment with lithium or quetiapine provided in the context
460 of a randomised trial. More than 50% of our sample reported a history of any childhood trauma;
461 those participants were more likely to be female. Childhood trauma was related to several
462 indicators of a worse course and prognosis of bipolar disorder including an earlier age at
463 symptom onset, greater number of episodes, and higher rates of comorbidities. These
464 observations are in line with the existing body of research^{7, 39-41}.

465

466 Participants with a history of any childhood trauma presented with greater symptom severity
467 and functional impairment at most study visits. However, participants with and without a history
468 of any childhood trauma showed *similar* rates of improvement in symptom severity and
469 functional impairment over the 24 weeks of treatment. Neither treatment allocation (i.e., lithium
470 or quetiapine) nor type of childhood trauma (i.e., physical, sexual, or emotional abuse) affected
471 the aforementioned pattern of findings. In contrast, we found an effect of the number of
472 childhood trauma types experienced with participants who were exposed to all three types of
473 childhood abuse showing *greater* improvement in symptom severity – but not functional
474 impairment – than participants without a history of any childhood trauma.

475

476 **Childhood trauma and change in symptom severity during treatment with lithium or
477 quetiapine**

478 Our findings are consistent with two observational studies that were unable to demonstrate an
479 association between participants' history of any childhood trauma and response to lithium
480 treatment^{13, 14}. Our findings are discordant with a recent study by Cascino et al.¹⁵. In a sample
481 of 37 outpatients with bipolar disorder, participants with a history of childhood trauma ($n = 24$)
482 responded more poorly to lithium (i.e., showed less symptom improvement). However, studies
483 with small sample sizes need to be interpreted cautiously.

484

485 The present study is the first to investigate differences in treatment outcomes between
486 participants with and without a history of any childhood trauma during treatment with
487 quetiapine, specifically. Nevertheless, a previous study evaluated symptomatic remission

488 among patients with bipolar disorder treated with various antipsychotics and/or mood
489 stabilisers (including quetiapine) ¹⁷. In line with our results, Perugi et al. ¹⁷ reported that
490 childhood trauma was not associated with participants' remission rates after 12 weeks of
491 pharmacotherapy.

492

493 **Childhood trauma and change in functional impairment during treatment with lithium** 494 **or quetiapine**

495 This is also the first study to examine the effect of childhood trauma on improvement in
496 functional impairment during treatment with lithium or quetiapine, specifically. Benarous et al.
497 ¹⁶ and Conus et al. ⁴², however, evaluated the association between childhood trauma and
498 global functioning in the context of service models (inpatient treatment and early intervention
499 program, respectively). Our findings support the study by Conus et al. ⁴² in which no
500 association between childhood trauma and functional remission at discharge from the service
501 was found.

502

503 Interestingly, our results contrast with Benarous et al. ¹⁶ who demonstrated *greater*
504 improvement in global functioning among participants with a history of childhood trauma.
505 Differences in sample characteristics may be responsible for the conflicting findings. Contrary
506 to our study, Benarous et al. ¹⁶ recruited children and adolescents with bipolar I disorder who
507 were admitted for treatment to a psychiatric hospital. Thus, patients with a history of childhood
508 trauma may especially benefit from receiving treatment early and in an inpatient setting (rather
509 than an outpatient setting).

510

511 **Childhood trauma – type and number of abuse experiences**

512 Our null result pertaining to the type of childhood trauma (physical, sexual, or emotional abuse)
513 is surprising in the context of previously published research ^{13, 15}. Both Etain et al. ¹³ and
514 Cascino et al. ¹⁵ suggested that physical abuse – not sexual or emotional abuse – was
515 negatively associated with treatment outcome after treatment with lithium. Unlike these
516 studies, we were unable to provide evidence of the specific implication of one childhood
517 trauma type.

518

519 Similarly, our finding that participants who were exposed to multiple types of childhood trauma
520 (physical, sexual, *and* emotional abuse) showed *greater* improvement in symptom severity
521 than participants without a history of childhood trauma is discordant with previous research ¹³.
522 Specifically, Etain et al. ¹³ reported that participants who experienced two or three types of
523 childhood trauma had a *poorer* response to lithium treatment than participants without a history
524 of childhood trauma.

525

526 Methodological differences may partly explain the inconsistent results. Etain et al.¹³ and
527 Cascino et al.¹⁵ conducted observational studies in which they retrospectively assessed
528 response to lithium treatment among currently euthymic patients. In contrast, in Bipolar
529 CHOICE, the treatment outcomes of symptomatic patients were prospectively monitored over
530 the course of 24 weeks in the context of a randomised trial of lithium and quetiapine. Therefore,
531 the direct comparison of the three studies is limited.

532

533 **Strengths and limitations**

534 This is the first study to comprehensively examine the association between childhood trauma
535 and treatment outcomes (including improvements in symptom severity *and* functional
536 impairment) during treatment with lithium or quetiapine in the context of a randomised trial
537 (i.e., Bipolar CHOICE). As a pragmatic trial, Bipolar CHOICE was designed to collect data
538 from a representative and generalisable sample of adult outpatients with bipolar disorder
539 receiving treatment in a 'real-world' context, which greatly increases the translational value of
540 the present findings. Additionally, with 476 participants, this is the largest study to date
541 investigating the role of childhood trauma in the treatment of bipolar disorder.

542

543 However, some limitations must also be considered. The data on childhood trauma were not
544 collected with a validated questionnaire (e.g., Childhood Trauma Questionnaire), potentially
545 leading to systematic measurement error. Consequently, the number of participants with a
546 history of childhood trauma may have been underestimated or overestimated. However, the
547 prevalence of childhood trauma in our sample (52.7%) is comparable to that reported in
548 previous studies⁴³⁻⁴⁵. Additionally, the retrospective assessment of childhood trauma may be
549 influenced by recall bias. Nevertheless, previous research suggests that individuals with a
550 serious mental illness (including bipolar disorder) are able to provide reliable information on
551 experiences of childhood trauma in adulthood^{46, 47}.

552

553 Then, details pertaining to participants' exposure to childhood trauma (e.g., age at exposure,
554 frequency/duration of exposure) were not collected. Exposure characteristics have been
555 implicated as moderators of the effect of childhood trauma in participants with other serious
556 mental illnesses^{32, 48}. Thus, their consideration may also be a useful addition to future clinical
557 research on bipolar disorder. Moreover, Bipolar CHOICE had no placebo group; therefore, we
558 cannot exclude regression to the mean as a plausible reason for the present findings.
559 Furthermore, only outpatients were considered for participation in the study; hence, the current
560 results are not applicable to an inpatient population. Finally, other second-generation

561 antipsychotics than quetiapine could not be prescribed in either treatment arm limiting the
562 ecological validity of Bipolar CHOICE.

563

564 **Implications and future directions**

565 The administration of Adjunctive Personalised Treatment (APT) during Bipolar CHOICE was
566 coordinated by highly trained clinicians with extensive experience in the treatment of bipolar
567 disorder. These clinicians were specifically instructed to use APT to facilitate sustained
568 remission²⁸. Treatment decisions were based on comprehensive diagnostic assessments and
569 made according to evidence-based guidelines²⁸. As such, the findings of the present study
570 suggest that a history of childhood trauma does not inhibit improvement in symptom severity
571 or functional impairment in the context of *evidence-based pharmacotherapy administered by*
572 *a skilled clinician*. This is important to emphasise as psychiatrists perceive “treatment [to be]
573 made more challenging by trauma”^{49; p. 3}.

574

575 What remains unclear, however, is whether a history of childhood trauma impacts treatment
576 outcomes in a more naturalistic (i.e., “less ideal”) treatment setting; previous studies in this
577 area are hampered by small sample sizes and methodological limitations. Furthermore,
578 considering its high prevalence among people diagnosed with bipolar disorder, childhood
579 trauma may affect other treatment-related factors (e.g., treatment engagement, treatment
580 adherence, treatment alliance), if it is not directly related to treatment outcomes. For instance,
581 while Conus et al.⁴² found no association between childhood trauma and symptomatic
582 remission, participants with a history of childhood trauma were more likely to prematurely
583 disengage from the service.

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734

735 **Figure 1.** Mean BISS (left) and LIFE-RIFT (right) scores for participants with and without a history of any childhood trauma during 24 weeks of treatment with
736 lithium or quetiapine.

737 Abbreviations: BISS = Bipolar Inventory of Symptoms Scale; LIFE-RIFT = Longitudinal Interval Follow-up Evaluation-Range of Impaired Functioning Tool

738 **Figure 2.** Mean BISS (left) and LIFE-RIFT (right) scores for participants with and without a history of childhood trauma during 24 weeks of treatment with lithium
739 or quetiapine, divided according to the type of childhood trauma experienced.

740 Abbreviations: BISS = Bipolar Inventory of Symptoms Scale; LIFE-RIFT = Longitudinal Interval Follow-up Evaluation-Range of Impaired Functioning Tool.

741 **Figure 3.** Mean BISS (left) and LIFE-RIFT (right) scores for participants with and without a history of childhood trauma during 24 weeks of treatment with lithium
742 or quetiapine, divided according to the number of childhood trauma types experienced.

743 Abbreviations: BISS = Bipolar Inventory of Symptoms Scale; LIFE-RIFT = Longitudinal Interval Follow-up Evaluation-Range of Impaired Functioning Tool.

744 Note: Participants in the 1_Type group were exposed to a single childhood trauma type, participants in the 2_Type group to two types, and participants in the
745 3_Type group to all three types.

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CHILDHOOD TRAUMA AND TREATMENT OUTCOMES IN BIPOLAR DISORDER

Table 1. Baseline characteristics among 476 outpatients with bipolar disorder with and without a history of any childhood trauma.

	No childhood trauma	Any childhood trauma	OR (95% CI)
Total N (%)	225 (47.3)	251 (52.7)	-
Mean age \pm SD	38.7 \pm 13.0	39.0 \pm 11.3	1.00 (0.98-1.02)
Female sex, n (%)	113 (50.2)	169 (67.3)	2.04 (1.40-2.96)
Age at onset of depressive symptoms, mean \pm SD	18.3 \pm 8.7	14.8 \pm 6.9	0.94 (0.91-0.96)
Age at onset of manic symptoms, mean \pm SD	21.3 \pm 10.0	18.4 \pm 8.7	0.96 (0.94-0.98)
Number of depressive episodes, mean \pm SD	35.5 \pm 37.5	43.2 \pm 44.4	1.01 (1.00-1.01)
Number of manic episodes, mean \pm SD	34.0 \pm 43.3	41.1 \pm 50.9	1.00 (1.00-1.01)
Any previous suicide attempt, n (%)	60 (26.7)	128 (51.0)	2.69 (1.84-3.94)
Number of suicide attempts, mean \pm SD	0.48 \pm 1.06	1.56 \pm 3.96	1.49 (1.25-1.78)
Any previous psychiatric hospitalisation, n (%)	93 (41.3)	131 (52.2)	1.48 (1.03-2.12)
Number of hospitalisations, mean \pm SD	2.64 \pm 3.04	3.85 \pm 6.33	1.07 (0.98-1.16)
Psychiatric comorbidities, n (%)			
Posttraumatic stress disorder	15 (6.7)	43 (17.2)	2.89 (1.55-5.37)
Generalised anxiety disorder	43 (19.1)	64 (24.7)	1.40 (0.90-2.17)
Social phobia/anxiety	49 (21.8)	69 (27.5)	1.34 (0.88-2.04)
Any substance dependence (past 12 months)	18 (8.0)	24 (9.6)	1.21 (0.64-2.30)
Any substance dependence (lifetime)	13 (5.8)	14 (5.6)	0.96 (0.44-2.09)
Any substance abuse (past 12 months)	39 (17.3)	38 (15.1)	0.85 (0.52-1.38)
Any substance abuse (lifetime)	70 (31.1)	103 (41.0)	1.54 (1.05-2.25)
Baseline BISS score overall, mean \pm SD	52.9 \pm 19.2	60.1 \pm 18.7	1.02 (1.01-1.03)
BISS Depression	29.3 \pm 12.7	31.6 \pm 13.1	1.01 (1.00-1.02)
BISS Mania	13.6 \pm 10.3	15.8 \pm 10.6	1.02 (1.00-1.03)
BISS Anxiety	7.48 \pm 4.19	8.44 \pm 4.28	1.05 (1.01-1.10)
BISS Irritability	5.84 \pm 3.48	7.47 \pm 3.16	1.15 (1.09-1.22)
BISS Psychosis	0.82 \pm 1.58	1.23 \pm 1.90	1.15 (1.03-1.28)
Baseline CGI-BP score overall, mean \pm SD	4.45 \pm 0.89	4.52 \pm 0.82	1.09 (0.88-1.34)

CHILDHOOD TRAUMA AND TREATMENT OUTCOMES IN BIPOLAR DISORDER

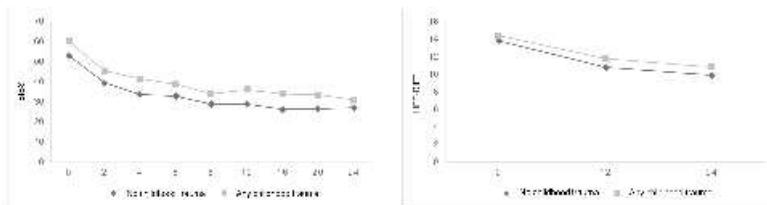
CGI-BP Depression	4.24 ±1.09	4.24 ±1.16	1.00 (0.84-1.16)
CGI-BP Mania	2.86 ±1.27	3.10 ±1.24	1.15 (1.00-1.33)
Baseline LIFE-RIFT score, mean ± SD	13.8 ± 3.2	14.4 ± 3.2	1.05 (1.00-1.11)

Abbreviations: BISS = Bipolar Inventory of Symptoms Scale; CGI-BP = Clinical Global Impression Scale for Bipolar Disorder; LIFE-RIFT = Longitudinal Interval Follow-up Evaluation-Range of Impaired Functioning Tool.

Note. Of the 251 participants with a history of any childhood trauma, 124 (49.4%) were randomised to receive lithium and 127 (50.6%) to receive quetiapine. **Bold** values indicate significant differences (i.e., $p < 0.05$).

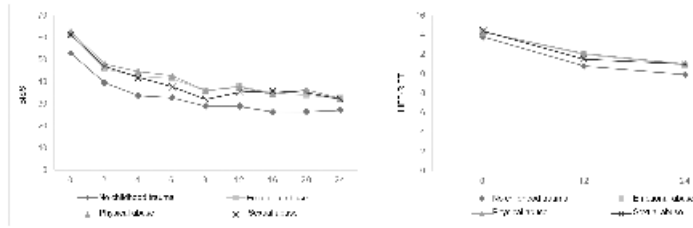
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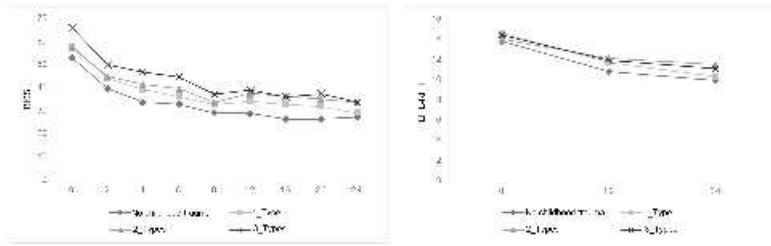


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