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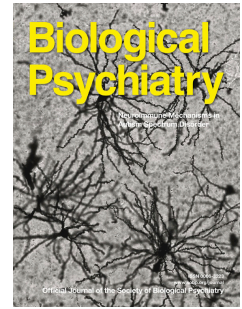
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Childhood Maltreatment and Deviations from Normative Brain Structure: A Mega-Analysis of 3,711 Individuals from the ENIGMA MDD and ENIGMA PTSD Working Groups

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Childhood Maltreatment and Deviations from Normative Brain Structure:

A Mega-Analysis of 3,711 Individuals from the ENIGMA MDD and ENIGMA PTSD

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Abstract

Background: Childhood maltreatment (CM), encompassing abuse and neglect, is highly prevalent and associated with elevated risk for Major Depressive Disorder (MDD), Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD), and other related conditions. The extent to which neuroanatomical alterations in MDD and PTSD are attributable to CM, however, is uncertain.

Methods: Here, we analyzed CM and whole-brain MRI data from 3,711 participants in the ENIGMA MDD and PTSD Working Groups (25 sites; 33.3 ± 13.0 years; 59.9% female). Normative modeling estimated deviation z-scores for 14 subcortical volumes (SV), 68 cortical thickness (CT), and 68 surface area (SA) measures. To identify transdiagnostic effects, associations between CM and brain deviation scores were evaluated across all participants (patients and healthy controls) stratified by sex and three age bins (pediatric, young adult, older adult).

Results: In young adults (ages 18-35), abuse was associated with larger volumes in thalamus and pallidum, thinner isthmus cingulate and middle frontal regions, and thicker medial orbitofrontal cortex; there were no significant effects in pediatric (≤ 18 years) participants. The strongest effects were observed in young female adults ($|\beta| = .07-.22$, $q < .05$): greater abuse and neglect were correlated with smaller hippocampus and putamen volumes, thinner entorhinal cortex, and smaller SA in fusiform/inferior parietal regions, and with larger SA in orbitofrontal and occipital cortices. In males, abuse had widespread effects on CT and SA ($|\beta| = .1-.18$, $q < .05$); effects for neglect were minimal.

Conclusions: Our findings of age- and sex-specific instantiations of CM on brain morphometry highlight the importance of developmental context in understanding how adverse experiences shape neurobiological vulnerability to MDD and PTSD.

Introduction

Early life adversity (ELA), particularly childhood maltreatment (CM) such as abuse and neglect, is common, affecting more than two-thirds of the general population (1, 2). Although not all individuals who experience CM develop mental disorders, experiences of CM remain one of the most potent risk factors for stress-related psychopathologies, including major depressive disorder (MDD) and posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (3-5). Importantly, individuals who are diagnosed with such disorders and have a history of CM tend to experience an earlier age of onset, poorer clinical outcomes, and greater treatment resistance than those with these disorders but no history of CM (6). Despite the clear link between CM experience and subsequent risk for psychiatric disorders, the neuroanatomical consequences of CM that occur transdiagnostically, and independently of psychiatric disease, is not well documented. This knowledge gap is notable as the neurobiological consequences of a psychiatric disorder may in fact be driven by CM. For instance, in prior studies from ENIGMA MDD and ENIGMA PTSD, the associations between subcortical gray matter volumes and psychiatric diagnosis were attenuated or non-significant once CM was included as a statistical covariate (7, 8). Understanding the extent to which CM impacts brain morphometry transdiagnostically (and independently of psychiatric disease) may have the potential to influence conceptualization of symptom presentation and guide treatment selection and clinical decision making.

Specifically, many studies examining the effects of CM on brain morphometry have not adequately accounted for the inter-individual variation across regions (9), despite evidence of regional differences in deviations from normative neurodevelopment (10). Brain regions exhibit diverse developmental courses, with some following inverted U-shaped trajectories that reach their peak in childhood or adolescence, with notable sex differences (11-14). Consequently, interpreting adversity-related effects necessitates consideration of age- and sex-specific variation (15, 16). Two example regions are thalamus and amygdala, which are consistently implicated in stress and trauma-related processes and show robust associations with CM in previous research (17, 18). Larger thalamic volumes during childhood may suggest accelerated maturation, but the same pattern observed in adulthood may reflect delayed or

atypical development (11, 19). Additionally, while both male and female brains show inverted U-shaped age-related changes in amygdala volume, males demonstrate a more rapid increase in amygdala size during childhood compared to females, leading to sexual dimorphism and inter-individual variation. To address this, investigators have recently charted normative brain growth, akin to pediatric growth charts, to quantify individual variation with respect to age-stratified norms (12, 20). Unlike traditional group-average comparisons that treat inter-individual differences as noise (21), this approach models the full range of normal variation and converts raw brain measures into “deviation” scores showing how much individuals differ from expected age- and sex-specific patterns. This is crucial for parsing biological heterogeneity in psychiatric research and detecting subtle, individual-specific abnormalities often missed by case-control designs (20, 22, 23).

In addition, the effect of CM exposure on brain phenotypes may depend on developmental stage (24). Germane to this idea is the concept of *sensitive periods*, which are periods of heightened plasticity during which environmental influences have outsized effects on developing systems (10). Rather than standing in strict opposition to an accumulation model—which posits that effects scale with the number of exposures that typically increase with age (25)—these perspectives may be complementary, as adversity experienced during a sensitive window could confer a large initial impact that is compounded later in life with further exposures. Indeed, childhood maltreatment has been associated with an increased risk of psychiatric disorders that persist well into adulthood. To date, however, few studies have addressed this issue using samples from across the lifespan. Within a sensitive period, the neurobiological sequelae of adverse experiences may be most prominent immediately after exposure (as described in *recency* models (26)), or they may not be manifested or measurable at the phenotypic level until later in development (27) (as described in *incubation* models (28, 29)). For example, several empirical studies have documented this delayed manifestation pattern, finding minimal structural brain differences in children exposed to ELA, but more pronounced effects emerging in adolescence and early adulthood (24, 30). To distinguish among these possibilities, a lifespan approach is critically needed (25).

Prior research on the structural brain correlates of CM have also not fully captured the nuanced effects of different experience types (31, 32) or potential sex differences in these associations (33). Recent data-driven approaches have identified distinct co-occurring dimensions of ELA that may have differential neural correlates (34), though these dimensional patterns have not yet been examined in relation to normative brain development. Prominent theoretical frameworks distinguish between adversity characterized by threat versus deprivation and also highlight the impact of fragmented care—defined as inconsistent, unpredictable, or disrupted caregiving—on neurodevelopment (35). Various forms of childhood maltreatment—such as emotional abuse, emotional neglect, physical abuse, physical neglect, and sexual abuse—may lead to distinct cognitive and behavioral adaptations or maladaptive coping strategies (36, 37). For example, sexual abuse, which typically involves high levels of threat, has been associated with structural deficits in reward circuits and altered amygdala reactivity (18, 38, 39), whereas emotional maltreatment, often linked to deprivation, has been connected with abnormalities in fronto-limbic socioemotional networks (40). Finally, the impact of childhood maltreatment likely interacts with hormonal factors and gender-specific social environments, potentially resulting in differing outcomes for males and females. For example, women are more than twice as likely as men to develop MDD or PTSD following exposures to all types of abuse and neglect (41, 42). Despite this, many studies have relied on mixed-sex samples, often due to limited sample sizes, missing opportunities to detect sex differences in the neurobiological sequelae of ELA.

Taken together, there is a clear need to examine the enduring effects of CM on brain morphometry across the lifespan. In this study, we employed a *normative modeling approach* that quantifies individual deviations from expected neuroanatomical variation by generating continuous z-scores, which indicate the direction of normative deviation (with lower scores reflecting values below the normative range, and higher scores reflecting values above the normative range) (43, 44). Normative modeling uniquely addresses methodological challenges of accounting for developmental heterogeneity by providing age- and sex-adjusted reference standards analogous to pediatric growth charts, thus offering advantages over traditional approaches that rely on group-average comparisons. Our aim was to explore the extent to

which the pattern of brain deviations is correlated with continuous measures of childhood trauma severity in a way that aligns with dimensional models of ELA. In our framework, different types of maltreatment—such as abuse and neglect—are expected to differentially impact distinct neural circuits in parallel. For instance, whereas threat-related abuse may predominantly affect regions involved in stress regulation and fear learning (e.g., the hippocampus and amygdala), deprivation-related neglect may influence circuits underpinning reward processing and socioemotional function (e.g., the striatum, medial orbitofrontal cortex, and association cortices). Recognizing that brain development and the neurobiological sequelae of CM vary by age and sex, we analyzed cortical thickness, surface area, and subcortical volumes separately for different age cohorts and for males and females. Our large, trauma-enriched sample (N=3,711), spanning ages 8 to 69 from 25 international sites via the ENIGMA MDD and PTSD Working Groups (45-47), allowed us to correlate continuous measures of trauma severity with these continuous deviation scores. This approach aims to determine the extent to which our findings support a dimensional model of CM that captures differential neural alterations associated with different forms of adversity, and how these associations vary as a function of age and sex.

Methods

ENIGMA Data

Data from 25 independent sites (Fig. S1) across eight countries were obtained through the ENIGMA Consortium Major Depressive Disorder (MDD) and Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) Working Groups. The overall sample consisted of 1,389 patients (872 MDD, 517 PTSD), and 2,322 healthy controls. Cortical thickness and cortical surface area measures were extracted based on the Desikan-Killiany (aparc) atlas (48), while subcortical volumes were segmented using the Aseg atlas in FreeSurfer (49). All neuroimaging data were processed with FreeSurfer according to the standardized processing pipelines and quality assurance procedures stipulated by the ENIGMA Consortium (<https://enigma.ini.usc.edu/protocols/imaging-protocols/>). Detailed information on participant recruitment, data collection procedures, and MRI acquisition and preprocessing for each site is provided in Supplemental Methods S1-S2.

Childhood Maltreatment Assessment

Childhood Maltreatment (CM) was assessed in all samples via self-report using the Childhood Trauma Questionnaire-Short Form (CTQ-SF) (50), a widely validated retrospective measure of childhood maltreatment. The CTQ-SF comprises five subscales: physical abuse, emotional abuse, sexual abuse, physical neglect, and emotional neglect. Two composite scores were derived: (1) total severity of childhood abuse, calculated as the sum of the three abuse subscales, and (2) total severity of childhood neglect, calculated as the sum of the two neglect subscales. We separated abuse from neglect to facilitate the detection of distinct neurobiological correlates associated with each type of maltreatment.

Normative Modeling of Brain Morphometry

Sex-specific normative models for each FreeSurfer-derived regional subcortical volume, cortical thickness, and surface area measure were generated using the CentileBrain normative modeling tools

(Methods S3) developed by the ENIGMA Lifespan Group (51) and are freely available (<https://centilebrain.org/>). These models were developed using data from an independent multi-site sample of 37,407 healthy individuals (53.3% female; ages 3-90 years) and provide separate standards for females and males. CentileBrain generated z-scores for each morphometric measure in each participant, reflecting deviations from age- and sex-specific population means. Z-scores were calculated by subtracting the brain measure estimated by CentileBrain from the raw value, then dividing by the model's root mean square error. While the CentileBrain algorithms include site harmonization based on Combat-GAM (52), we did not use this feature for reasons discussed under *Harmonization Effects* in the Sensitivity Analyses section, below.

Statistical Analyses

Main Analyses. We pooled extracted subcortical volumes, cortical thickness, and cortical surface area measures from individual subjects across all sites from the ENIGMA MDD and PTSD Working Groups into a single database. General linear models examined associations between CTQ scores (total abuse and neglect) and z-scores for each regional morphometric measure (14 subcortical volumes, 68 cortical thickness, 68 surface area measures; separately for left and right hemispheres). Separate analyses were conducted for males and females to allow detection of potentially different associations between CM and brain deviations. As z-scores already account for age and intracranial volume in the normative model, we did not further adjust for these variables. CTQ scores were not associated with age, age-squared, or sex.

Age-Dependent Effects. While normative modeling inherently accounts for age by generating deviation scores relative to a population-derived reference for each specific age (akin to pediatric growth charts), we stratified our sample into pediatric (≤ 18 years, $n=349$), young adult (>18 and <35 years, $n=1,908$), and older adult (≥ 35 years, $n=1,454$) cohorts to examine developmental stages that correspond to distinct phases of neurodevelopment and plasticity. Categorizing participants into these broadly defined age cohorts allows us to investigate potential differences in the magnitude and specificity of ELA-

associated brain deviations during critical developmental windows, such as adolescence versus early and later adulthood. Moreover, this stratification approach is consistent with methods used in prior ENIGMA Consortium studies (53-56), allowing for comparability across large-scale neuroimaging investigations.

Multiple Comparisons Correction. To adjust for multiple comparisons, we applied false discovery rate (FDR) correction using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure, with p -values adjusted separately for each age cohort and sex and for each metric (subcortical volumes, cortical thickness, cortical surface area). Results were considered significant if FDR-corrected p -value (q) ≤ 0.05 . The number of comparisons was 68 for cortical thickness analyses, 68 for surface area analyses, and 14 for subcortical volume analyses. To obtain comparable standardized regression coefficients, z-scores for each region served as outcome measures.

Sex and Age Differences in Brain-CM Associations. To statistically compare the strength of associations between sexes and age cohorts, we employed Fisher's exact transformation tests (Methods S4). This method allowed us to determine whether standardized regression coefficients (β) from our general linear models differed significantly between males and females (within the same age cohort) and between each pair of age cohorts with significant CM associations (within the same sex).

Sensitivity Analysis

We conducted several sensitivity analyses to evaluate the robustness of our findings. 1) We adjusted for diagnostic status (“patients” versus “controls”) as a covariate in our models (Methods S5). 2) We tested whether effects persisted within specific diagnostic groups by re-running analyses separately for MDD and PTSD cohorts (Methods S5B). 3) Leave-one-out cross-validation assessed site-specific influences by sequentially excluding each site and re-running our models (Methods S6). 4) We tested the effect of harmonization on our dataset using ComBat-GAM (Methods S7). 5) Bootstrap sampling analysis determined whether null findings in the pediatric cohort ($n=349$) stemmed from limited statistical power rather than developmental differences (Methods S8). 6) Given the high correlation between abuse and neglect in our sample ($r=.73$, $p<.001$; Figure S5), we conducted a two-covariate analysis including both

Total Abuse and Total Neglect as simultaneous predictors to disentangle their overlapping effects (Methods S9). 7) We examined the specific effects of sexual abuse by re-running our GLMs using the CTQ Sexual Abuse subscale score (Methods S10). 8) Finally, we conducted a sensitivity analysis adjusting for years of education as a proxy for socioeconomic status in the subset of participants with available data (n=1,235; Methods S11).

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Results

Participant Characteristics and Childhood Trauma

The final sample demographics and clinical characteristics, stratified by age cohorts, are presented in Table S1. Sample measures are further broken down by diagnostic group, age, and sex respectively (Tables S2-S3, Fig. S1-3).

Associations Between CM and Subcortical Volume Deviation Scores

Our analyses revealed significant associations between CM and deviations from normative subcortical volume (SV) in adults, with distinct patterns observed across age cohorts, sexes, and CM types (Fig. 1; Table 1). Notably, there were no significant associations between CM and deviations in normative SV in the pediatric cohort.

Childhood Abuse. In young adult males, more severe childhood abuse was associated with *larger* volumes in the bilateral thalamus and pallidum, which partially persisted in older adult males. Older adult males with more severe experiences of abuse exhibited *smaller* amygdala volumes. In young adult females, more severe childhood abuse was associated with *larger* volumes in the bilateral thalamus and pallidum; as well as *smaller* volumes of the bilateral hippocampus and putamen. This pattern persisted primarily in the right-hemisphere structures in the older adult females (Fig. 1A; Table 1).

Childhood Neglect. No significant associations were observed between childhood neglect and SV deviations in males across all age cohorts. In contrast, young adult females showed positive associations between more severe childhood neglect and *larger* bilateral pallidum volumes. Consistent with our analyses with childhood abuse, greater severity of neglect in young adult females was also associated with *smaller* volumes in the right hippocampus and left putamen. In older adult females, greater severity of neglect was associated with *smaller* volumes in the left putamen, *smaller* bilateral caudate volumes, and *larger* right thalamic volumes (Fig. 1B; Table 1).

Associations Between Cortical Thickness Deviation Scores and ELA

Our analyses revealed significant associations between CM and deviations from normative cortical thickness (CT) in adults, with distinct patterns observed across age cohorts, sexes, and CM types (Fig. 2; Table 2). No significant associations were observed between CM and deviations from normative CT in the pediatric cohort.

Childhood Abuse. In young adult males, greater childhood abuse severity was significantly associated with *thinner* cortical regions in the bilateral isthmus cingulate, right banks of the superior temporal sulcus, right middle temporal, left lateral occipital, and right supramarginal areas and, conversely, *thicker* bilateral medial and lateral orbitofrontal cortices. No associations between CM and CT deviations were found in older adult males (Fig. 2A; Table 2). In young adult females, greater childhood abuse severity was associated with *thinner* bilateral caudal anterior cingulate, left inferior parietal, left isthmus cingulate, left posterior cingulate, left insula, right entorhinal, and right middle temporal regions, but *thicker* right medial orbitofrontal cortex. Older adult females showed partially similar results, with greater childhood abuse severity associated with *thinner* bilateral isthmus, posterior, and caudal anterior cingulate regions, left lateral occipital, lingual, and supramarginal areas, but *thicker* bilateral medial orbitofrontal cortices and left inferior temporal cortex (Fig. 2A; Table 2).

Childhood Neglect. The effects of childhood neglect on CT deviation scores were not as pronounced or as widespread compared to those observed with abuse. In young adult males, more severe childhood neglect was associated with *thinner* right middle temporal cortex. No significant associations were found in older adult males. In young adult females, more severe childhood neglect was associated with *thinner* right entorhinal cortex. In older adult females, more severe childhood neglect was associated with *thinner* left posterior cingulate and lingual gyrus (Fig. 2B; Table 2).

Associations Between Surface Area Deviation Scores and ELA

Our analyses revealed significant associations between CM and deviations from normative surface area (SA) in adults, with patterns varying by age, sex, and CM type (Fig. 3; Table 3). Consistent with our previous analyses, no significant associations were found between CM and SA deviation scores in the pediatric cohort.

Childhood Abuse. In young adult males, more severe childhood abuse was associated with *smaller* SA in the right banks of the superior temporal sulcus and right superior parietal region but *larger* SA in the bilateral frontal pole. In older adult males, more severe childhood abuse was associated with *smaller* SA of the temporal pole (Fig. 3A; Table 3). In young adult females, more severe childhood abuse was associated with *larger* SA in several regions, including the banks of the left superior temporal sulcus, left isthmus of the cingulate, and bilateral fusiform, inferior parietal, and parahippocampal areas, but *larger* SA in bilateral occipital regions, medial orbitofrontal cortex, pars orbitalis, and the frontal and temporal poles. This pattern persisted in older adult females, although to a lesser extent (Fig. 3A; Table 3).

Childhood Neglect. The SA deviations associated with childhood neglect were not as pronounced or as widespread as the effects that we observed with abuse. In males, no significant associations between childhood neglect and SA deviation were detected. In females, associations were only found in young adults: greater severity of childhood neglect was associated with *smaller* SA in bilateral cingulate cortex, parietal lobes, and fusiform regions, as well as *larger* SA in lateral occipital regions, orbitofrontal cortices, and the temporal pole (Fig. 3B; Table 3).

Sex and Age Differences in Brain-CM Associations

Fisher's exact tests revealed young adults demonstrated stronger associations than older adults across all three morphometric phenotypes and both types of CM exposure. Additionally, females generally showed stronger associations with CM than males, particularly for SA measures (Table S5).

Sensitivity Analyses

Sensitivity analyses confirmed the robustness of our primary findings. Results remained consistent after adjusting for diagnostic status, across leave-one-out cross-validation, with ComBat-GAM harmonization, and when analyzing MDD and PTSD cohorts separately (Tables S6–S7; Fig. S4). Additional sensitivity analyses examining the specificity of abuse versus neglect, effects of sexual abuse specifically, and adjustment for years of education are reported (Tables S8–S10; Fig. S5). Bootstrap analysis indicated limited statistical power in the pediatric cohort (Results S1).

Discussion

In this large-scale transdiagnostic investigation, we leveraged normative modeling to characterize the neuroanatomical alterations of childhood maltreatment (CM) across the lifespan. Our findings demonstrate that the structural associations with early-life adversity (ELA) are not uniform; rather, they appear deeply intertwined with developmental timing and biological sex. Widespread deviations in cortical thickness, surface area, and subcortical volume were most pronounced during young adulthood, with females exhibiting significantly more extensive structural alterations than males. These cross-sectional results challenge the notion of one static trauma signature, suggesting instead that the observable neuroanatomical impact of CM is shaped by the types and severity of ELA as well as sex-specific neurodevelopmental trajectories.

Childhood abuse showed the most extensive effects across subcortical and cortical regions, particularly among young adult females, with many patterns persisting at reduced magnitude in older adult females. Neglect effects were more circumscribed: in young adult females, they were limited to surface area deviations primarily in cingulate regions, while in young adult males, effects were restricted to smaller right middle temporal cortex. Notably, both abuse and neglect in young adult females were associated with overlapping alterations, including smaller right entorhinal cortex, reduced surface area in fusiform and inferior parietal regions, and larger surface area in lateral occipital, medial orbitofrontal cortices, and temporal poles. Across sexes, young adults exposed to abuse exhibited larger bilateral thalamus and pallidum volumes, smaller isthmus cingulate cortex, and larger medial orbitofrontal cortex.

Broadly, these distinct patterns support longstanding theories and emerging evidence that different forms of CM differentially shape neurocircuits implicated in affective, cognitive, and socioemotional processing (18, 39) and that many of these effects are sex-specific (33, 57) and transdiagnostic (58-60). Our findings revealed nuanced associations between CM and brain morphometry, with some regions showing larger structural deviations and others showing smaller (i.e., more negative) deviations within the same age cohort. These opposing patterns likely reflect complex reorganizational changes across neural circuits rather than uniform effects, potentially resulting from compensatory

adaptation and learning during development (61-63). Although we did not detect significant associations in the pediatric cohort (n=349), this null finding is likely attributable to limited statistical power, based on our power analysis.

The more pronounced effects in females, particularly during young adulthood and potentially as a consequence of sexual trauma, suggest that there are important sex-specific neural vulnerabilities to CM to consider within a *sensitive period* framework (25). This may reflect interactions between CM and sex-specific neurodevelopmental trajectories, potentially mediated by gonadal hormones and their organizational effects on brain development. Sociocultural factors and potential "normalizing" effects of treatment in older individuals may also contribute to these. The effects of CM on brain morphometry were observed primarily in association cortices, which undergo protracted development and may be particularly vulnerable to ELA during adolescence and young adulthood. Additionally, although we found no significant associations among the pediatric cohort, our power analysis suggests this likely reflects limited statistical power rather than a true absence of effects. The implications of these findings for sensitive period and incubation models are discussed in the Supplemental Discussion.

Our study is not without limitations. First, cross-sectional data preclude causal inferences about CM effects on neurodevelopmental trajectories. Second, as a measure of CM, the CTQ does not capture all forms of ELA (e.g., housing instability, toxicant exposure). Third, although the sample size in our pediatric cohort is among the largest in the literature, we likely had limited statistical power to detect subtle effects. Fourth, we could not fully account for confounders including socioeconomic status, symptom severity, and medication use, which could not be harmonized across sites. Additionally, sample heterogeneity in CM timing, chronicity, and co-occurrence of abuse/neglect may obscure nuanced associations. Our sensitivity analyses suggest stronger unique effects of abuse, with neglect effects largely attenuated after adjusting for abuse severity. Future longitudinal research with comprehensive ELA assessments and consideration of genetic, epigenetic, and resilience factors is needed. Full limitations are discussed in the Supplemental Discussion.

Despite these limitations, our investigation reveals that ELA in the form of childhood maltreatment has widespread effects on brain structure, with particularly pronounced effects on association cortices in young adult females. The distinct patterns observed for abuse versus neglect, along with sex-specific effects, underscore the complexity of how ELA shapes brain development during periods of heightened susceptibility. While future longitudinal research in at-risk samples is needed to determine whether these neurobiological pathways mediate the associations between CM and emergence of stress-based psychopathologies, our results are broadly consistent with this hypothesis. Specifically, individuals with MDD or PTSD who experienced childhood maltreatment also exhibit distinct brain morphometry patterns compared to those without such exposures, suggesting potentially different neurobiological pathways to these disorders. This heterogeneity may partially explain mixed treatment responses often observed clinically. While our results do not directly address treatment resistance, they suggest value in assessing ELA history when developing treatment plans, as recognizing these distinct patterns may inform more comprehensive care for trauma-exposed individuals. Future research should determine whether these distinct brain morphometric patterns predict differential responses to pharmacological and psychological interventions. Finally, our results highlight the importance of early intervention and that adolescence and young adulthood may represent vital intervention points, particularly for females with a history of childhood maltreatment.

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CA served as a consultant and on advisory boards for Douglas Pharmaceutical, Freedom Biosciences, Aptinyx, Genentech, Janssen, Psilocybin Labs, Lundbeck, Guidepoint, and FSV7. He also received royalties from a patent for using mTORC1 inhibitors to augment the effects of antidepressants. IHR reports research funding from BI Pharma on precision psychiatry.

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KR has performed scientific consultation for Bioexcel, Bionomics, Acer, and Jazz Pharma; serves on Scientific Advisory Boards for Sage, Boehringer Ingelheim, Senseye, and the Brain Research Foundation, and he has received sponsored research support from Alto Neuroscience.

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Data Sharing Statement

The datasets analyzed during the current study are not publicly available due to site restrictions, but data may be available from the corresponding sites on reasonable requests.

Supplement Description:

Supplement Methods, Results, Discussion, Figures S1-S5, Tables S1-S10

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Figures

Figure 1. Deviations from Normative Subcortical Volume Associated with Childhood Trauma. (A).

Normative deviations in subcortical volumes associated with abuse in males and females; **(B)**. Normative deviations in subcortical volumes associated with neglect in males and females. β represents the standardized effect size from the general linear model (GLM, FDR corrected $q < .05$). Results from the pediatric cohort are not displayed as there were no significant associations between CTQ and subcortical volumes in this age cohort.

Figure 2. Deviations from Normative Cortical Thickness Associated with Childhood Trauma. (A).

Normative deviations in cortical thickness associated with abuse in males and females; **(B)**. Normative deviations in cortical thickness associated with neglect in males and females. β represents the standardized effect size from the GLM (FDR corrected $q < .05$). Results from the pediatric cohort are not displayed as there were no significant associations between CTQ and subcortical volumes in this age cohort.

Figure 3. Deviations from Normative Surface Area Associated with Childhood Trauma. (A).

Normative deviations in surface area associated with abuse in males and females; **(B)**. Normative deviations in surface area associated with neglect in males and females. β represents the standardized effect size from the GLM (FDR corrected $q < .05$). Results from the pediatric cohort are not displayed as there were no significant associations between CTQ and subcortical volumes in this age cohort.

Tables

Childhood Trauma	Sex	Region	Young Adult (n=1908)		Older Adult (n=1454)	
			β (SE)	<i>p</i> value	β (SE)	<i>p</i> value
Abuse	Male	Left Thalamus	0.126 (0.036)	5.56e-04	-0.026 (0.041)	5.37e-01
		Right Thalamus	0.1 (0.037)	6.32e-03	-0.034 (0.041)	4.16e-01
		Left Pallidum	0.143 (0.036)	9.40e-05	0.117 (0.041)	4.51e-03
		Right Pallidum	0.171 (0.036)	2.76e-06	0.114 (0.041)	5.74e-03
		Left Amygdala	-0.043 (0.037)	2.46e-01	-0.104 (0.041)	1.21e-02
		Right Amygdala	0.007 (0.037)	8.56e-01	-0.12 (0.041)	3.54e-03
	Female	Right Thalamus	0.11 (0.029)	1.62e-04	0.141 (0.034)	3.01e-05
		Left Caudate	-0.065 (0.029)	2.69e-02	-0.07 (0.034)	3.93e-02
		Left Putamen	-0.139 (0.029)	2.05e-06	-0.155 (0.034)	4.27e-06
		Right Putamen	-0.106 (0.029)	2.74e-04	-0.05 (0.034)	1.45e-01
		Left Pallidum	0.164 (0.029)	1.79e-08	0.146 (0.034)	1.55e-05
		Right Pallidum	0.169 (0.029)	6.17e-09	0.115 (0.034)	7.29e-04
		Left Hippocampus	-0.08 (0.029)	6.53e-03	-0.019 (0.034)	5.68e-01
		Right Hippocampus	-0.129 (0.029)	1.09e-05	-0.038 (0.034)	2.69e-01
Neglect	Male	-	-	-	-	
	Female	Right Thalamus	0.064 (0.029)	2.96e-02	0.096 (0.034)	4.64e-03
		Left Caudate	-0.032 (0.029)	2.71e-01	-0.087 (0.034)	1.06e-02
		Right Caudate	-0.039 (0.029)	1.78e-01	-0.086 (0.034)	1.08e-02
		Left Putamen	-0.073 (0.029)	1.28e-02	-0.102 (0.034)	2.55e-03
		Left Pallidum	0.114 (0.029)	9.09e-05	0.057 (0.034)	9.41e-02
		Right Pallidum	0.124 (0.029)	2.22e-05	0.032 (0.034)	3.43e-01
		Right Hippocampus	-0.092 (0.029)	1.68e-03	0.013 (0.034)	6.98e-01

Table 1. Deviations from Normative Subcortical Volume Associated with Childhood Trauma. P-values are thresholded to show regions with normative values significantly associated with childhood trauma in at least one age cohort. See the full results table of all regions and cohorts in Table S4. Significant regions

($q < .05$) are indicated by bolded effect sizes and p values. β represents the standardized effect size from the GLM. Results from the pediatric cohort are not displayed as there were no significant associations between CTQ and subcortical volumes in this age cohort.

Childhood Trauma	Sex	Region	Young Adult (n=1905)		Older Adult (n=1449)	
			β (SE)	p value	β (SE)	p value
Abuse	Male	Left Isthmus cingulate	-0.13 (0.036)	3.68e-04	-0.017 (0.041)	6.83e-01
		Left Lateral occipital	-0.114 (0.037)	1.94e-03	-0.066 (0.041)	1.10e-01
		Left Lateral orbitofrontal	0.152 (0.036)	3.40e-05	-0.016 (0.041)	7.07e-01
		Left Medial orbitofrontal	0.132 (0.036)	3.15e-04	0.107 (0.041)	9.40e-03
		Right Bankssts	-0.153 (0.036)	2.83e-05	-0.117 (0.041)	4.65e-03
		Right Isthmus cingulate	-0.118 (0.037)	1.25e-03	-0.029 (0.041)	4.84e-01
		Right Lateral orbitofrontal	0.142 (0.036)	1.01e-04	0.013 (0.041)	7.47e-01
		Right Medial orbitofrontal	0.184 (0.036)	4.78e-07	0.102 (0.041)	1.36e-02
		Right Middle temporal	-0.164 (0.036)	6.85e-06	-0.016 (0.041)	6.99e-01
		Right Supramarginal	-0.123 (0.036)	7.56e-04	-0.061 (0.041)	1.44e-01
	Female	Left Caudal anterior cingulate	-0.116 (0.029)	7.59e-05	-0.132 (0.034)	9.95e-05
		Left Inferior parietal	-0.095 (0.029)	1.15e-03	-0.075 (0.034)	2.83e-02
		Left Inferior temporal	0.005 (0.029)	8.69e-01	0.098 (0.034)	3.99e-03
		Left Isthmus cingulate	-0.103 (0.029)	4.26e-04	-0.127 (0.034)	1.81e-04
		Left Lateral occipital	-0.076 (0.029)	9.51e-03	-0.108 (0.034)	1.53e-03
		Left Lingual	-0.004 (0.029)	8.96e-01	-0.099 (0.034)	3.61e-03
		Left Medial orbitofrontal	0.057 (0.029)	5.39e-02	0.107 (0.034)	1.68e-03
		Left Posterior cingulate	-0.124 (0.029)	2.28e-05	-0.166 (0.034)	9.57e-07
		Left Supramarginal	-0.01 (0.029)	7.27e-01	-0.097 (0.034)	4.50e-03
		Left Insula	-0.083 (0.029)	4.67e-03	0.015 (0.034)	6.62e-01
		Right Caudal anterior cingulate	-0.09 (0.029)	2.02e-03	-0.035 (0.034)	3.09e-01
		Right Caudal middle frontal	-0.044 (0.029)	1.37e-01	-0.107 (0.034)	1.71e-03
		Right Entorhinal	-0.114 (0.029)	9.69e-05	-0.054 (0.034)	1.14e-01
		Right Isthmus cingulate	-0.058 (0.029)	4.88e-02	-0.091 (0.034)	7.40e-03
		Right Medial orbitofrontal	0.087 (0.029)	2.95e-03	0.104 (0.034)	2.19e-03
		Right Middle temporal	-0.1 (0.029)	6.34e-04	-0.023 (0.034)	4.92e-01
		Right Posterior cingulate	-0.049 (0.029)	9.75e-02	-0.103 (0.034)	2.39e-03
Neglect	Male	Right Middle temporal	-0.146 (0.036)	6.82e-05	0.018 (0.041)	6.65e-01
	Female	Left Lingual	-0.027 (0.029)	3.64e-01	-0.124 (0.034)	2.49e-04
		Left Posterior cingulate	-0.057 (0.029)	5.07e-02	-0.111 (0.034)	1.04e-03
		Right Entorhinal	-0.1 (0.029)	6.55e-04	-0.002 (0.034)	9.54e-01

Table 2. Deviations from Normative Cortical Thickness Associated with Childhood Trauma. P-values are thresholded to show regions with normative values significantly associated with childhood trauma in at least one age cohort. See the full results table of all regions and cohorts in Table S4. Significant regions ($q < .05$) are indicated by bolded effect sizes and p values. β represents the standardized effect size from the GLM. Results from the pediatric cohort are not displayed as there were no significant associations between CTQ and subcortical volumes in this age cohort.

Childhood Trauma	Sex	Region	Young Adult (n=1905)		Older Adult (n=1449)	
			β (SE)	p value	β (SE)	p value
Abuse	Male	Left Pars orbitalis	0.156 (0.036) *	1.92e-05	0.066 (0.041)	1.10e-01
		Left Frontal pole	0.133 (0.036) *	2.89e-04	0.06 (0.041)	1.45e-01
		Right Bankssts	-0.12 (0.036) *	1.07e-03	-0.077 (0.041)	6.30e-02
		Right Superior parietal	-0.117 (0.037) *	1.44e-03	0.006 (0.041)	8.82e-01
		Right Frontal pole	0.144 (0.036) *	8.52e-05	0.083 (0.041)	4.52e-02
		Right Temporal pole	0.103 (0.037)	4.86e-03	0.18 (0.041) *	1.22e-05
	Female	Left Bankssts	-0.085 (0.029) *	3.68e-03	-0.022 (0.034)	5.11e-01
		Left Entorhinal	0.026 (0.029)	3.80e-01	0.104 (0.034) *	2.13e-03
		Left Fusiform	-0.101 (0.029) *	5.92e-04	-0.026 (0.034)	4.51e-01
		Left Inferior parietal	-0.079 (0.029) *	7.37e-03	-0.048 (0.034)	1.56e-01
		Left Inferior temporal	0.075 (0.029) *	1.00e-02	0.071 (0.034)	3.70e-02
		Left Isthmus cingulate	-0.07 (0.029) *	1.73e-02	-0.021 (0.034)	5.32e-01
		Left Lateral occipital	0.089 (0.029) *	2.30e-03	0.072 (0.034)	3.52e-02
		Left Medial orbitofrontal	0.096 (0.029) *	1.07e-03	0.066 (0.034)	5.14e-02
		Left Middle temporal	0.082 (0.029) *	4.92e-03	0.121 (0.034) *	3.53e-04
		Left Parahippocampal	-0.109 (0.029) *	1.85e-04	-0.036 (0.034)	2.97e-01
		Left Pars opercularis	-0.093 (0.029) *	1.56e-03	-0.086 (0.034) *	1.16e-02
		Left Pars orbitalis	0.114 (0.029) *	9.75e-05	0.113 (0.034) *	8.48e-04
		Left Precuneus	-0.042 (0.029)	1.57e-01	-0.086 (0.034) *	1.13e-02
		Left Superior temporal	0.071 (0.029) *	1.60e-02	0.078 (0.034)	2.18e-02
		Left Frontal pole	0.219 (0.029) *	4.50e-14	0.199 (0.033) *	3.32e-09
		Left Temporal pole	0.101 (0.029) *	5.92e-04	0.16 (0.034) *	2.44e-06
		Right Bankssts	-0.085 (0.029) *	3.65e-03	-0.013 (0.034)	7.09e-01
		Right Caudal anterior cingulate	-0.096 (0.029) *	1.09e-03	0.017 (0.034)	6.15e-01
		Right Entorhinal	0.138 (0.029) *	2.19e-06	0.097 (0.034) *	4.16e-03
		Right Fusiform	-0.116 (0.029) *	7.60e-05	-0.025 (0.034)	4.65e-01
		Right Inferior parietal	-0.073 (0.029) *	1.22e-02	-0.024 (0.034)	4.76e-01
		Right Inferior temporal	0.1 (0.029) *	6.00e-04	0.082 (0.034)	1.65e-02
		Right Lateral occipital	0.15 (0.029) *	2.98e-07	0.094 (0.034) *	5.47e-03
		Right Lingual	0.084 (0.029) *	4.26e-03	0.04 (0.034)	2.41e-01
Right Medial orbitofrontal	0.171 (0.029) *	4.12e-09	0.213 (0.033) *	2.74e-10		
Right Middle temporal	0.073 (0.029) *	1.33e-02	0.101 (0.034) *	2.92e-03		

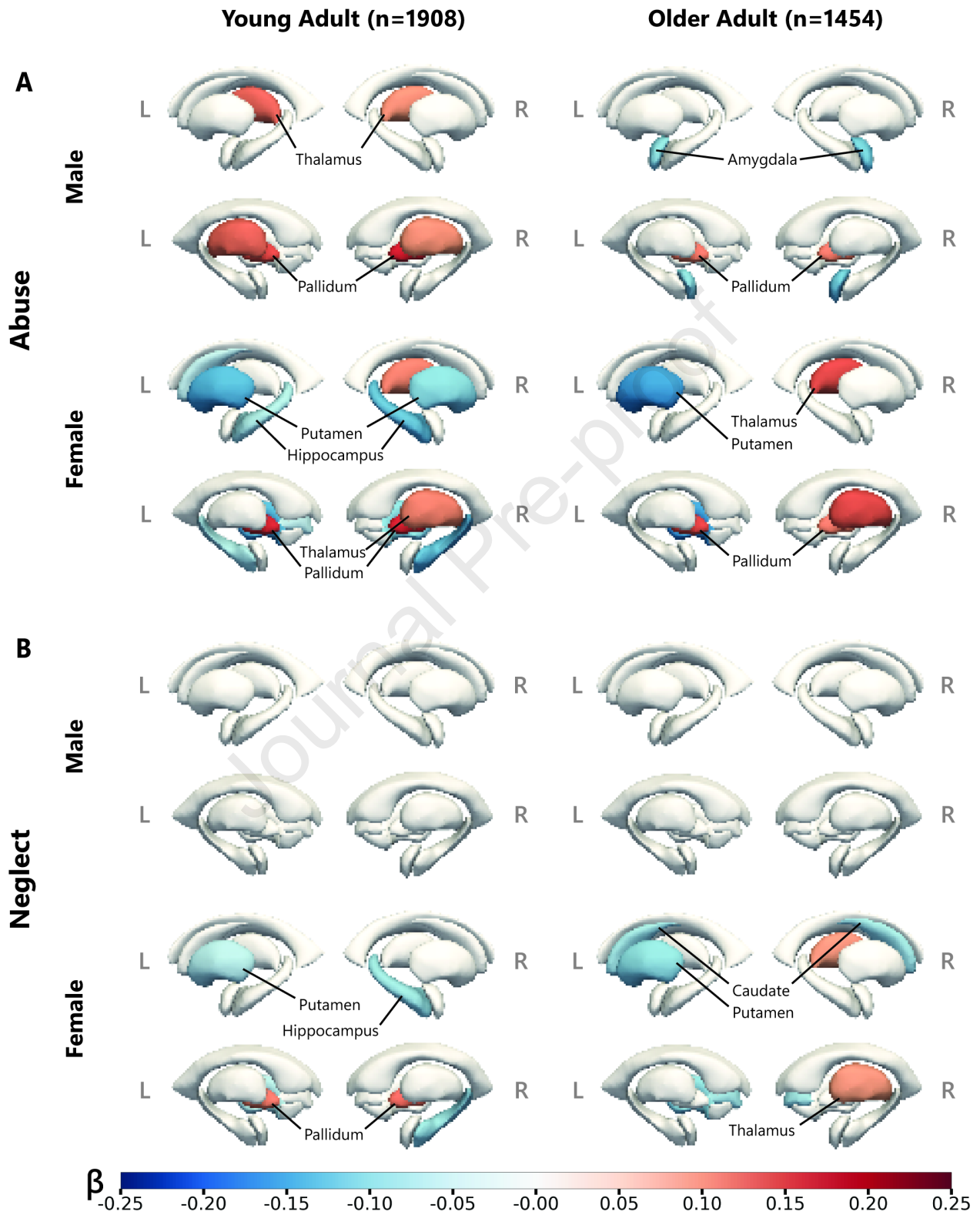
		Right Parahippocampal	-0.07 (0.029) *	1.68e-02	-0.062 (0.034)	6.83e-02
		Right Pars opercularis	-0.067 (0.029) *	2.14e-02	-0.049 (0.034)	1.48e-01
		Right Pars orbitalis	0.099 (0.029) *	7.19e-04	0.066 (0.034)	5.39e-02
		Right Postcentral	-0.079 (0.029) *	7.20e-03	-0.029 (0.034)	4.01e-01
		Right Precentral gyrus	-0.094 (0.029) *	1.38e-03	-0.026 (0.034)	4.52e-01
		Right Precuneus	-0.049 (0.029)	9.80e-02	-0.115 (0.034) *	7.22e-04
		Right Rostral anterior cingulate	-0.154 (0.029) *	1.30e-07	-0.095 (0.034) *	5.11e-03
		Right Rostral middle frontal	-0.003 (0.029)	9.29e-01	-0.092 (0.034) *	7.08e-03
		Right Superior parietal	-0.038 (0.029)	2.00e-01	-0.123 (0.034) *	2.91e-04
		Right Supramarginal	-0.085 (0.029) *	3.72e-03	-0.096 (0.034) *	4.63e-03
		Right Frontal pole	0.187 (0.029) *	1.25e-10	0.153 (0.034) *	6.31e-06
		Right Temporal pole	0.199 (0.029) *	7.66e-12	0.138 (0.034) *	4.88e-05
		Right Transverse temporal	-0.074 (0.029) *	1.17e-02	-0.012 (0.034)	7.30e-01
	Male	-	-	-	-	-
Neglect	Female	Left Caudal anterior cingulate	-0.07 (0.029) *	1.72e-02	-0.012 (0.034)	7.18e-01
		Left Fusiform	-0.077 (0.029) *	8.91e-03	-0.017 (0.034)	6.25e-01
		Left Inferior parietal	-0.078 (0.029) *	8.13e-03	-0.073 (0.034)	3.22e-02
		Left Lateral occipital	0.095 (0.029) *	1.20e-03	0.018 (0.034)	5.91e-01
		Left Parahippocampal	-0.101 (0.029) *	5.42e-04	-0.049 (0.034)	1.47e-01
		Left Pars orbitalis	0.09 (0.029) *	2.08e-03	0.053 (0.034)	1.19e-01
		Left Frontal pole	0.138 (0.029) *	2.22e-06	0.103 (0.034)	2.50e-03
		Right Bankssts	-0.094 (0.029) *	1.37e-03	-0.011 (0.034)	7.48e-01
		Right Cuneus	0.072 (0.029) *	1.44e-02	-0.04 (0.034)	2.39e-01
		Right Entorhinal	0.107 (0.029) *	2.49e-04	0.01 (0.034)	7.74e-01
		Right Fusiform	-0.075 (0.029) *	1.06e-02	-0.038 (0.034)	2.66e-01
		Right Inferior parietal	-0.088 (0.029) *	2.72e-03	-0.02 (0.034)	5.55e-01
		Right Inferior temporal	0.091 (0.029) *	1.93e-03	0.051 (0.034)	1.30e-01
		Right Lateral occipital	0.156 (0.029) *	8.42e-08	0.025 (0.034)	4.70e-01
		Right Lingual	0.082 (0.029) *	5.07e-03	0.006 (0.034)	8.56e-01
		Right Medial orbitofrontal	0.133 (0.029) *	5.16e-06	0.11 (0.034)	1.23e-03
		Right Parahippocampal	-0.077 (0.029) *	8.31e-03	-0.047 (0.034)	1.65e-01
		Right Pars orbitalis	0.071 (0.029) *	1.61e-02	0.012 (0.034)	7.22e-01
		Right Pars triangularis	0.079 (0.029) *	7.00e-03	-0.042 (0.034)	2.20e-01
		Right Postcentral	-0.097 (0.029) *	9.14e-04	0.035 (0.034)	3.01e-01
Right Precentral gyrus	-0.11 (0.029) *	1.68e-04	-0.003 (0.034)	9.36e-01		
Right Rostral anterior cingulate	-0.106 (0.029) *	2.84e-04	-0.029 (0.034)	3.87e-01		
Right Supramarginal	-0.092 (0.029) *	1.72e-03	-0.046 (0.034)	1.79e-01		
Right Frontal pole	0.145 (0.029) *	6.81e-07	0.09 (0.034)	8.36e-03		
Right Temporal pole	0.14 (0.029) *	1.69e-06	0.047 (0.034)	1.64e-01		

Table 3. Deviations from Normative Surface Area Associated with Childhood Trauma. P-values are thresholded to show regions with normative values significantly associated with childhood trauma in at least one age cohort. See the full results table of all regions and cohorts in Table S4. Significant regions ($q < .05$) are indicated by bolded effect sizes and p values. β represents the standardized effect size from

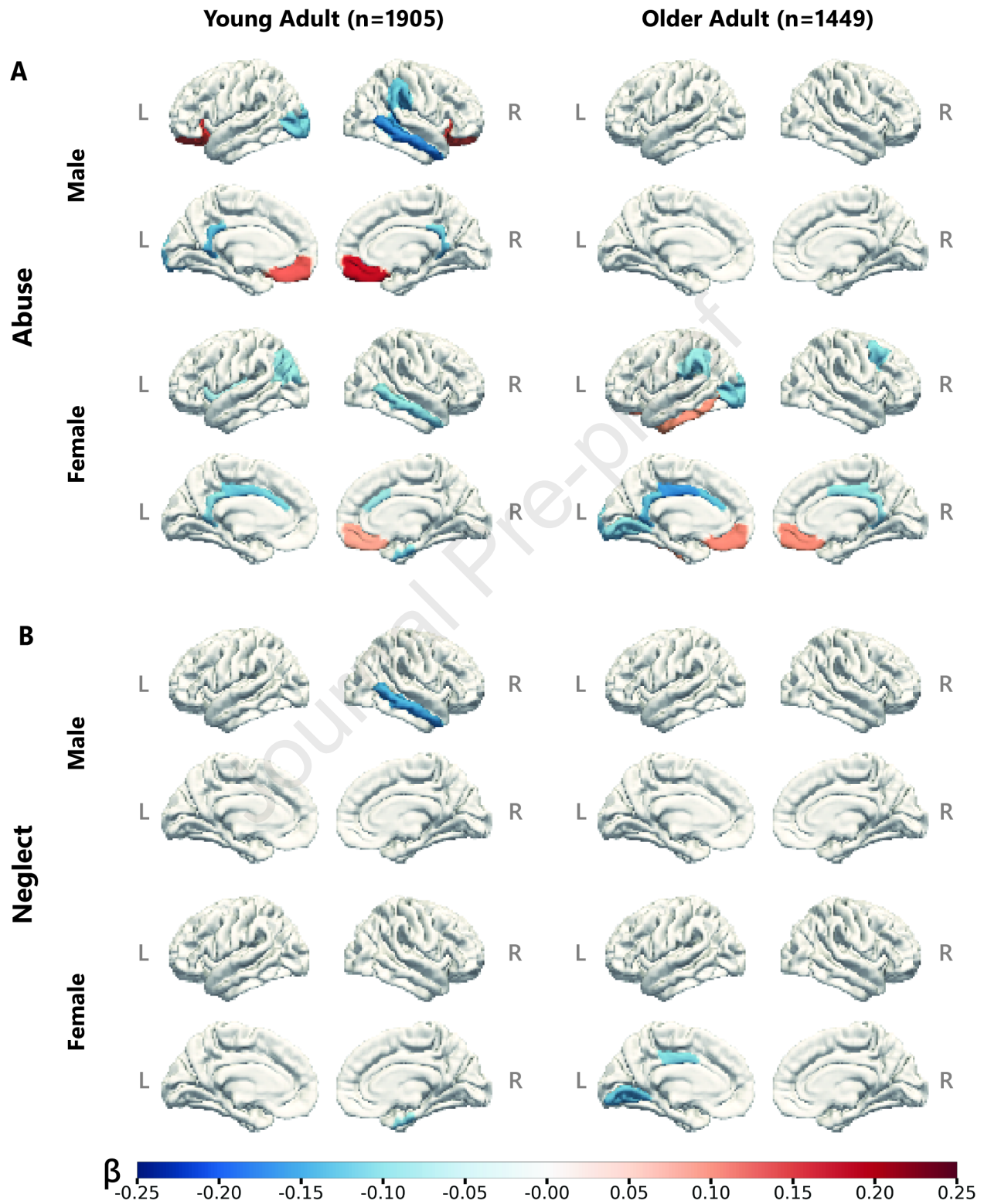
the GLM. Results from the pediatric cohort are not displayed as there were no significant associations between CTQ and subcortical volumes in this age cohort.

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Subcortical Volume Normative Deviations



Cortical Thickness Normative Deviations



Surface Area Normative Deviations

