



Understanding the nature and significance of early childhood: New evidence and its implications

Dr. Tim Moore

Centre for Community Child Health

Presentation at Centre for Community Child Health seminar Investing in Early Childhood—the future of early childhood education and care in Australia

The Royal Children's Hospital, Melbourne, 25 July 2014





INTRODUCTION

This paper is based on a presentation at a Centre for Community Child Health seminar devoted to a consideration of the Productivity Commission's Draft Report on Child Care and Early Childhood Learning.¹ The aim of the paper was to present a succinct summary of relevant evidence to inform discussions. Rather than reviewing the evidence regarding existing forms of service, the presentation focused more broadly on what we know about child development – how children learn and what children need. The paper is not so much about challenging existing models of early childhood education and care in Australia as challenging our understanding of the nature and significance of the early years.

NEW RESEARCH EVIDENCE AND WHAT IT TELLS US

Over the past few decades, there has been a growing acceptance among scholars, professionals and policy makers of the importance of the early years. However, as we learn more about the way in which experiences in the early years shape health, development and wellbeing, and the extent of these influences over the life-course, the true importance of these years becomes more and more apparent.²

There are nine sources of evidence to be considered*.

- Evidence about the nature and significance of prenatal development and experiences, and their effects over the life course
- Evidence about the nature and significance of postnatal learning and development, and the impact of proximal environments
- Evidence regarding the impact of early childhood experiences on long term development, health and wellbeing
- Evidence regarding neurological development and plasticity
- Evidence regarding the neurobiology of interpersonal relationships
- Evidence regarding 'social climate change' and its effects
- Evidence from economic analyses of child development and the benefits of investments in the early years
- Evidence regarding social inequalities and their effects
- Evidence from repeated measurement of key indicators of child development and functioning.







Prenatal development and experiences

Until recently, there had been a scientific misconception that the placenta provides a barrier for the growing foetus that protects it from the mother's physical and emotional environment. It is now recognised that this is not the case – while the placenta provides some protection against infection, there is free exchange between the embryonic and maternal blood systems, and the placental wall (which is thinnest in the first trimester when the foetus is developing most rapidly) does not protect the foetus against drugs, alcohol, smoking, environmental toxins or maternal stress.

Moreover, instead of being a passive bystander in the womb during the pregnancy journey, the foetus actively responds to changes within the intrauterine environment. The foetus uses the nutritional and hormonal information that crosses the placenta to predict the kind of world it will be born into, and alters its phenotype³ accordingly. While these changes might be adaptive in the immediate environment, they can come with long-term costs, both psychologically and physically.

This process is an example of the broader biological mechanism of developmental *plasticity* by which organisms, in response to cues such as nutrition or hormones, adapt their phenotype to their particular environment. These adaptations involve epigenetic changes⁴ that alter the way that genes are expressed or function. Plasticity is very demanding of energy, and hence in general is limited to an early phase of development because re-engineering the body after the phenotype has been fully developed is costly. The period of maximum developmental plasticity extends from conception to the first 2–3 postnatal years.

Epigenetic changes may also be inherited, so that the experiences of mothers or even grandmothers can be transmitted across generations. While these changes may, in time, be rectified, in the short term they contribute to non-genomic transmission of risk.

This new evidence regarding the impact of neonatal experiences on health and development has led to a significant rethinking of adult health and functioning. Adult conditions such as coronary heart disease, stroke, diabetes, and cancer that were regarded solely as products of adult behaviour and lifestyles are now seen as being linked to processes and experiences occurring in pregnancy or infancy.





Postnatal development and experiences

Just as we have come to rethink the role of the foetus in pregnancy, there has been a rethinking of the capacities of infants. Previously, infants were thought of as needing loving care and protection but not as active learners or social partners. We now know that children come out of the womb primed to engage with their caregivers, and that the parents are primed to engage with them. We also know that learning starts from birth and that learning and development are cumulative, with later development building upon earlier development.

The proximal or immediate environments in which young children spend their time play a fundamental role in shaping their development and wellbeing. These include the home environment, as well as early childhood services, and other community environments. These environments have both physical and relational dimensions, and provide children with opportunities and experiences that shape development for better or worse. Children adapt to these environments – another example of developmental plasticity – in ways that optimise their functioning in the particular environment, but that may have long-term consequences for development, health and wellbeing, again for better or worse.

Children's early social experiences shape their developing neurological and biological systems for good or for ill. The kinds of stressful experiences that are endemic to families living in poverty can alter children's neurobiology in ways that undermine their health, their social competence, and their ability to succeed in school and in life. For children born into a world where resources are scarce and violence is a constant possibility, neurobiological changes may make them wary and vigilant, useful characteristics in such an environment. However, these same changes mean that they are likely to have difficulty controlling their emotions, focusing on tasks, and forming healthy relationships. Unfortunately, these adaptive responses to chronic stress serve them poorly in situations, such as school and work, where they must concentrate and cooperate to do well.

An added complication is the discovery that children are differentially susceptible to environmental experiences: while most children are 'dandelion' children who do well in most environments, a minority are 'orchid' children who flourish in positive environments but react particularly badly to negative environments.

Long term impact of early childhood experiences

Much has been learned about the long-term impact of early childhood experiences from longitudinal studies, such as the Christchurch Health and Development Study, British Cohort Study, Adverse Childhood Experiences Study, and the Longitudinal Study of Australian Children. These studies provide strong evidence of the way in which life-long effects of early experiences impact on the later achievements, social adjustments, mental health, physical health and longevity of individuals.





Three key ways in which early childhood experiences can have long-term effects have been identified: biological embedding, accumulation effects, and developmental escalations of risk over time. Although they are distinguishable from one another, these pathways are not mutually exclusive.

Biological embedding. Biological embedding refers to a developmental process whereby prenatal and early childhood experiences influence physiological and neurological development in ways that have long-term consequences. Through this process, early life social and environmental stressors, such as childhood abuse, neglect, poverty, and poor nutrition, become deeply embedded in the child's neurobiology. These changes have been associated with an increased risk of common metabolic and cardiovascular diseases later in life, the emergence of mental and physical illness (such as anxiety, mood disorders, poor impulse control, psychosis, and drug abuse) and increased risk for psychopathology (from depression and conduct disorders to autism and schizophrenia).

Inadequate diet in early life can permanently change the structure and function of specific organs or homoeostatic pathways, thereby 'programming' the individual's health status and longevity.

 Accumulation effects. Early experiences also influence later development through accumulation effects. The cumulative effect of adverse experiences during childhood and the toxic stress they cause influences every aspect of health and wellbeing in childhood and beyond. Adverse experiences include abuse (emotional, physical and sexual), neglect (physical and emotional) and household dysfunction (family violence, parental illness or drug abuse, parental separation and divorce).

These effects cascade across all areas of developmental functioning thereby altering the course of development. The greater the number of adverse experiences in childhood, the greater the risks of a range of adult health problems (including heart disease, liver disease and lung cancer) and psychological problems (depression, suicide attempts, alcoholism and drug abuse).

Over time, the cumulative wear and tear caused by exposure to chronic stress results in physiological changes to the body with long term adverse consequences for health and wellbeing. This cumulative wear and tear on the body is known as allostatic load, and is caused by repeated mobilisations of multiple physiological systems over time in response to environmental stressors. The longer the children have been exposed to stressors such as poverty, family violence or child abuse, the higher their allostatic load. These stressors may actually 'reset' the immune system in a manner that increases stress-related impairments in immune function, rates of infectious and chronic diseases, or blood pressure and cardiovascular disease incidence





• **Developmental escalations of risk.** Development is also shaped by developmental escalations in risk over time. An exposure or experience at one stage of the life course influences the probability of others later in the life course, as well as associated health and developmental outcomes. Thus, these experiences form 'chains' of risk whereby a sequence of linked exposures that raise disease risk because one bad experience or exposure tends to lead to another and then another.

Neurological development and plasticity

Brains are built over time through an ongoing process that begins before birth and continues into adulthood. Both brain architecture and developing abilities are built from the bottom up, with simple circuits and skills providing the scaffolding for more advanced circuits and skills over time. Neurological development is cumulative, with later development (and learning) building upon earlier development.

Early environments and experiences have an exceptionally strong influence on brain 'architecture'. However, the brain is capable of rewiring itself in response to significant changes in environments. This means that our preferred metaphor for describing the early development of the brain is to talk about the 'architecture' of the brain – this captures well the importance of building firm foundations, but does not do justice to neurological plasticity, for which there is no equivalent in architecture.

Moreover, framing brain development in terms of building neuronal connections and brain architecture fails to capture the fact that brain functioning is not purely cognitive, that 'learning' is not purely conscious, that the brain is not purely skull-based, and that the brain is closely linked with other key bodily systems.

First, the brain is not purely cognitive, but also profoundly emotional. Emotions directly influence the functions of the entire brain and body, from physiological regulation to abstract reasoning. In fact, emotion serves as a central organising process within the brain, and our ability to organise our emotions directly shapes the ability of the mind to integrate experience and to adapt to future stress. The experience of expressing one's emotional state and having others perceive and respond to those signals appears to be of vital importance to the development of the brain.

Second, learning is not a purely conscious process. Much of our most important emotional and interpersonal learning during our first few years occurs before we have the necessary cortical systems for conscious awareness and memory. Thus, many of the most important aspects of our lives are controlled by reflexes, behaviours, and emotions learned and organised outside our awareness.

Third, properly understood, the brain is not just skull-based but 'embodied', being shaped by messages from all over the body via the central and peripheral nervous systems. This embodied brain shapes and is shaped by both its external and internal environments.







Finally, the brain (or autonomic nervous system) is not a stand-alone bodily system, but is intricately connected to other major bodily systems, including the immune, endocrinal, cardiovascular and metabolic systems. These systems shape and are shaped by each other. What all this means is that what is 'learned' in the prenatal and first two to three years of life affects not only the neurological system but also the other bodily systems to which the brain is connected, with potentially profound consequences over the life course.

Neurobiology of interpersonal relationships

Healthy development depends on the quality and reliability of a young child's relationships with the important people in his or her life, both within and outside the family. Relationships are the medium through which young children learn the skills that enable them to become fully participating members of society – in effect, children use the brains of adults to develop their own.

Sensitive and responsive care giving is a requirement for the healthy neurophysiological, physical and psychological development of a child. The key qualities of effective relationships are attunement, responsiveness and respect.

Brains are changed by relationships –this is because our brains constantly communicate with each other through unconscious or subconscious neurobiological pathways of which we are unaware. These subconscious pathways enable our brains to read the body and facial signals of others, and detect their intentions and emotional states. In effect, our (right) brains are able to communicate directly with other people's (right) brains independently of conscious communication processes or awareness.

The right brain limbic areas that enable this to occur grow rapidly in the first two years of life and the nature of their development can have long-term implications. The growth of a baby's brain literally requires brain-brain interaction, and occurs in the context of a positive affective relationship. These interactions constitute a 'social synapse' that resembles the synaptic connections between the neurons in our brains.

'Social climate change'

Over the past few decades, we have experienced a series of linked social, economic, demographic and technological changes that are unprecedented in their rapidity and scale. These changes arise from the same fundamental factors that have contributed to physical climate change and constitute a form of social climate change. One of the consequences is that the nature of the social problems facing society and governments have altered; they are now more likely to be 'wicked' or complex problems that are not able to be resolved through traditional service-driven approaches. Addressing these problems is a challenge for existing service systems and has led to the development of new integrated and place-based approaches to service delivery.







These social changes have also had a significant impact on children, families and communities. For families, the world has become a more challenging and complex place, and the conditions under which parents are raising children have changed dramatically. Families who are relatively well-resourced are better able to meet the challenges posed by altered social conditions, and have benefited accordingly. However, poorly-resourced families can find the heightened demands of contemporary living and parenting overwhelming.

Gaps in family functioning are cumulative: the more advantaged families are initially, the better they are able to capitalise and build on the enhanced opportunities available, so that the gap between them and those unable to do so progressively widens. As a result of this and other factors, there is an increase in the numbers of families with complex needs, and more pockets of intergenerational disadvantage, underachievement and poor health and developmental outcomes.

Economic analyses of investments in the early years

In this changed world, the stakes have risen: in a competitive global market and, national productivity has become even more important, and improving productivity involves people to master more complex skills required by rapid advancing technologies. It is no longer acceptable to have children arriving at school poorly equipped to benefit from the learning and social opportunities schools provide, and therefore at risk of not developing the skills and qualities needed in a modern economy.

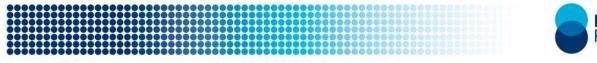
Moreover, economic analyses by James Heckman and others show that investments in the early years are more cost effective and beneficial than later investments. On the basis of such analyses, Heckman argues that 'to foster individual success, greater equality of opportunity, a more dynamic economy, and a healthier society, we need a major shift in social policy toward early intervention, with later interventions designed to reinforce those early efforts' (Heckman, 2013). Given the importance of the antenatal period for later development, there are also good grounds for extending the economic argument to include investments in antenatal services.

An additional economic consideration is that the cumulative costs of not intervening early are prohibitive. If nothing is done to address the types of adverse circumstances and events that impact negatively upon children during the early years, the costs of treating the emerging health and developmental issues grows exponentially, with long-term negative effects on the wellbeing of the individuals concerned and their capacity to contribute to national productivity.

Social inequalities and their effects

In every society, regardless of wealth, differences in socioeconomic status translate into inequalities in child development. These social gradient effects are evident across a wide range of developmental, health and wellbeing indicators: inequalities in outcomes are not concentrated exclusively at the bottom of the socioeconomic spectrum in a small group of poor or problematic families, but are distributed across







the entire spectrum in a graded fashion. Outcomes for children and families improve progressively the further up the socioeconomic spectrum they are, and worsen progressively the further down they move.

Discrepancies between children from advantaged and disadvantaged backgrounds emerge early, and progressively widen, with advantages and disadvantages accumulating throughout life. By the time they get to school, there are marked differences between children in regards to the cognitive, non-cognitive and social skills they need to succeed in the school environment. Children who lag behind their peers at school entry tend to be from low-income families. The differences between these children and their more affluent peers at school entry are predictive of later academic and occupational success.

Measurement of key indicators of child development and functioning

The results of the Australian Early Development Census (formerly Australian Early Development Index) show that significant numbers of children are arriving at school poorly equipped to benefit from the social and learning opportunities that schools offer, and schools struggle to make up the gap between those children and their peers.

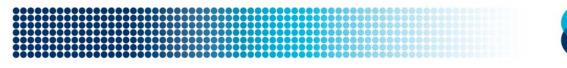
IMPLICATIONS

This accumulation of new knowledge about the impact of prenatal and early childhood experiences on health, wellbeing and development in later childhood and over the life-course must change how we view the early years. It is no longer appropriate nor useful to view the first two or three years of life as a period to simply keep children healthy and safe, while allowing development to take its course until they reach school age. Instead, we need to be taking steps to ensure that children are provided with early childhood environments and experiences that build attachments, competencies and skills from birth, and protect them from escalating chains of adverse experiences.

Children learn from every encounter within their physical and social environments – therefore, in every environment, a curriculum of sorts is operating, and we need to ensure that the lessons children learn and how they adapt benefits them over the life course. This does not mean that children need highly enriched or protected early childhood environments: what most children need is 'good enough' parenting and caregiving – that is, a threshold level of positive relational and learning experiences.

For families and communities who don't have the skills and resources to provide these experiences, we need to be able to provide high quality early childhood programs, tailored family support services and parenting programs, and positive community support. We also need a service system that is able to detect and respond to any developmental or health problems in children (which can emerge in children from any background at any time) or any family problems that can compromise parenting and care. In addition, we need to be aware of those children who are differentially susceptible, and therefore more at risk when exposed to inadequate and adverse experiences.







The skills required to perform these tasks are simultaneously simple and sophisticated. They are simple in that the core skills and qualities needed are those that draw upon caregivers' and professionals' own experiences of being parented positively. However, to meet the needs of all children, these need to be supplemented by a more sophisticated and purposeful set of skills that enable caregivers and professionals to know how to provide children with the kinds of environments that will promote their development and wellbeing. Acquiring that additional level of sophistication requires appropriate pre-service training, as well as ongoing training, supervision and support.

As a society, we have long-standing commitments to the public funding of hospitals and schools – but, as yet, no corresponding commitment to some form of early childhood provision, or even an agreement across society as to what that provision should be. The contested issues surrounding child care provision illustrate these dilemmas well: What exactly are its aims? How can we ensure it is of high quality? Should it be publically funded?

We are at a transitional point in our understanding of the nature and significance of the early years – we are becoming much more aware of their importance but are not yet committed to a course of action that will ensure that children's experience of this period is optimal. In moving forward, it is crucial that we base whatever we do on the developmental evidence summarised here.

KEY POINTS

Evidence regarding child development

Prenatal development and experiences

- What happens during the prenatal period can have both immediate and long-term consequences for health and development.
- While the foetus was previously thought to be protected from all external influences in the womb, we now know that it is not protected against drugs, alcohol, smoking, environmental toxins or maternal stress.
- Furthermore, the foetus actively responds to changes within the intrauterine environment to predict the kind of world it will be born into, and makes changes designed to maximise its adaptation to that environment, sometimes with adverse consequences for later health and development.

Postnatal development and experiences

- What happens during the early postnatal years can also have life-long effects on the later achievements, social adjustments, mental health, physical health and longevity of individuals.
- Adult conditions that were previously regarded solely as products of adult behavior and lifestyles are now seen as being linked to processes and experiences occurring in pregnancy or infancy.





- While infants were previously thought to be passive recipients of care, we now know that they are active partners and learners from birth
- The nature of the environments in which children spend their time their relational and physical properties, and the learning opportunities they provide shape children's development for better or worse.
- Infants and young children adapt physiologically and neurologically to these environments in ways that help them survive and even thrive in the short term, but may have long-term adverse consequences for later development, health and wellbeing.
- The period of maximum developmental plasticity during which these critical adaptations occur extends from conception to the first two or three years postnatally.
- Children are differentially susceptible to environmental experiences, with some children doing well in most environments while a minority flourish in positive environments but react particularly badly to negative environments.

Long term impact of early childhood experiences

- Experiences in the prenatal and immediate post-natal periods can life-long effects on later achievements, social adjustments, mental health, physical health and longevity of individuals.
- Three key ways in which early childhood experiences can have long-term effects have been identified: biological embedding, accumulation effects, and developmental escalations of risk over time.

Neurological development and plasticity

- These early learnings and adaptations are critical because learning and development are cumulative, with later development and learning building upon earlier development, with the result that the gaps between those doing well and those not doing well progressively widen.
- Much of our most important emotional and interpersonal learning during our first few years occurs before we have the necessary cortical systems for conscious awareness and memory, and therefore many aspects of our lives are controlled by reflexes, behaviours, and emotions learned and organised outside our awareness.
- The brain is not a stand-alone bodily system, but is intricately connected to other major bodily systems, including the immune, endocrinal, cardiovascular and metabolic systems these systems shape and are shaped by each other.
- Thus, what is 'learned' in the prenatal and first two to three years of life affects not only the neurological system but also the other bodily systems to which the brain is connected, with potentially profound consequences over the life course.





Neurobiology of interpersonal relationships

• Healthy development depends on the quality and reliability of a young child's relationships with the important people in his or her life, both within and outside the family – relationships are the medium through which young children learn the skills that enable them to become fully participating members of society.

'Social climate change'

- Rapid social, economic, demographic and technological changes over the last few decades have made the world a more challenging and complex place, and altered the conditions under which they are raising children.
- While most families have benefited from these changes, poorly-resourced families find the heightened demands of contemporary living and parenting overwhelming, and there is an increase in the numbers of families with complex needs, and poor health and developmental outcomes.
- In this changed world, the stakes have risen: a competitive global market and, national productivity has become even more important, and improving productivity involves people to master more complex skills required by rapid advancing technologies.
- It is no longer acceptable to have children arriving at school poorly equipped to benefit from the learning and social opportunities schools provide, and therefore at risk of not developing the skills and qualities needed in a modern economy.

Economic analyses of investments in the early years

• Economic analyses show that investments in the early years are more cost effective and beneficial than later investments, and that the cumulative costs of not intervening early are prohibitive.

Social inequalities and their effects

- In every society, regardless of wealth, differences in socioeconomic status translate into inequalities in child development across a wide range of developmental, health and well-being indicators.
- Discrepancies between children from advantaged and disadvantaged backgrounds emerge early, and progressively widen, with advantages and disadvantages accumulating throughout life.

Measurement of key indicators of child development and functioning

• Significant numbers of children are arriving at school poorly equipped to benefit from the social and learning opportunities that schools offer, and schools struggle to make up the gap between those children and their peers.







IMPLICATIONS

- This accumulation of new knowledge about the impact of prenatal and early childhood experiences on health, wellbeing and development in later childhood and over the life-course must change how we view the early years.
- It is no longer appropriate nor useful to view the first two or three years of life as a period to simply keep children healthy and safe, while allowing development to take its course until they reach school age.
- We need to be taking steps to ensure that children are provided with early childhood environments and experiences that build attachments, competencies and skills from birth, and protect them from escalating chains of adverse experiences.
- Caregivers and professionals need fundamental relational skills and qualities supplemented by more sophisticated and purposeful set of skills that enable them to provide children with the kinds of environments that will promote their development and wellbeing.
- Acquiring an additional level of sophistication requires appropriate pre-service training, as well as ongoing training, supervision and support.
- As a society, we have long-standing commitments to the public funding of hospitals and schools – but, as yet, no corresponding commitment to some form of early childhood provision, or even an agreement across society as to what that provision should be.
- We are at a transitional point in our understanding of the nature and significance of the early years – we are becoming much more aware of their importance but are not yet committed to a course of action that will ensure that children's experience of this period is optimal.
- In moving forward, it is crucial that we base whatever we do on the developmental evidence summarised here.

Dr Tim Moore is a Senior Research Fellow at the Centre for Community Child Health at Murdoch Childrens Research Institute and The Royal Children's Hospital.

Phone: +61 3 9345 5040 Email: tim.moore@mcri.edu.au Website: Visit <u>www.rch.org.au/ccch</u> for the full version of *Understanding the nature and significance of early childhood: New evidence and its implications.*







NOTES

- Productivity Commission (2014). Child Care and Early Childhood Learning: Productivity Commission Draft Report. Melbourne, Victoria: Productivity Commission. <u>http://pc.gov.au/projects/inquiry/childcare/draft</u>
- Some idea of the ways in which our ideas regarding child developed have evolved over the past decade or so can be gauged by comparing the present paper with an earlier summary by the same author: Moore, T.G. (2002). Review of the research evidence on early child development. Paper presented at National Meeting on Early Childhood Systems, Melbourne, 25th November. http://www.rch.org.au/emplibrary/ecconnections/Child_develop_evidence.pdf
- 3. The phenotype is the composite of an organism's observable characteristics or traits, and is the result of the interaction between an organism's genes and environmental factors or experiences. These determine whether particular genes will be expressed or not, and therefore whether they will shape development and behaviour.
- 4. Epigenetics refers to the processes whereby interactions with the environment alter the expression or function of genes without altering their DNA sequence.

REFERENCES

General

Centre on the Developing Child (2007). A Science-Based Framework for Early Childhood Policy: Using Evidence to Improve Outcomes in Learning, Behaviour, and Health for Vulnerable Children. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Centre on the Developing Child, Harvard University. http://www.developingchild.harvard.edu/content/downloads/Policy_Framework.pdf

Centre on the Developing Child at Harvard University. (2010). **The Foundations of Lifelong Health Are Built in Early Childhood.** Cambridge, Massachusetts: Centre on the Developing Child, Harvard University.

http://developingchild.harvard.edu/index.php/resources/reports_and_working_papers /foundations-of-lifelong-health/

Moore, T.G. and McDonald, M. (2013). Acting Early, Changing Lives: How prevention and early action saves money and improves wellbeing. Paddington, NSW: The Benevolent Society.

http://www.benevolent.org.au/~/media/Benevolent/Think/Actingearlychanginglives%2 0pdf.ashx

Social Research Unit at Dartington (2013). **The 'science within': What matters for child outcomes in the early years.** Dartington, Totnes, UK: The Social Research Unit at Dartington.





http://betterstart.dartington.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2013/08/The-Science-Within1.pdf

Shonkoff, J. P. (2010). Building a new biodevelopmental framework to guide the future of early childhood policy. **Child Development, 81** (1), 357-367.

Shonkoff, J. P. (2012). Leveraging the biology of adversity to address the roots of disparities in health and development. **Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA, 109** (Suppl. 2), 17302-7. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1121259109.

Prenatal development and experiences

Bateson, P. and Gluckman, P.D. (2012). Plasticity and robustness in development and evolution. **International Journal of Epidemiology, 41** (1): 219-223. doi: 10.1093/ije/dyr240

Bateson, P., Gluckman, P. & Hanson, M. (2014). The biology of developmental plasticity and the Predictive Adaptive Response hypothesis. **Journal of Physiology**, **592**, 2357-2368. doi: 10.1113/jphysiol.2014.271460

Carey, N. (2011). The Epigenetics Revolution: How Modern Biology is Rewriting Our Understanding of Genetics, Disease and Inheritance. London, UK: Icon Books.

Champagne, F.A. (2008). Epigenetic mechanisms and the transgenerational effects of maternal care. **Frontiers in Neuroendocrinology, 29** (3), 386–397. doi: 10.1016/j.yfrne.2008.03.003.

Coe, C.L. and Lubach, G.R. (2008). Fetal programming: Prenatal origins of health and illness. **Current Directions in Psychological Science, 17** (1), 36-41.

Davies, J.A. (2014). Life Unfolding: How the human body creates itself. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Davis, E.P. & Sandman, C.A. (2010). The timing of prenatal exposure to maternal cortisol and psychosocial stress is associated with human infant cognitive development. **Child Development**, **81** (1), 131-148.

Duncan, E.J., Gluckman, P.D., Dearden, P.K. (2014). Epigenetics, plasticity and evolution: How do we link epigenetic change to phenotype? **Journal of Experimental Biology, 322** (4), 208-220. DOI: 10.1002/jez.b.22571

Francis, R.C. (2011). **Epigenetics: The Ultimate Mystery of Inheritance.** New York: W.W. Norton.

Gluckman, P. & Hanson, M. (2005). **The Fetal Matrix: Evolution, Development and Disease.** Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Gluckman, P. D., Hanson, M. A. & Low, F. M. (2011). The role of developmental plasticity and epigenetics in human health. **Birth Defects Research Part C: Embryo Today: Reviews, 93** (1), 12–18. doi: 10.1002/bdrc.20198





Gluckman, P.D., Hanson, M.A. & Buklijas, T. (2010). A conceptual framework for the developmental origins of health and disease. **Journal of Developmental Origins of Health and Disease, 1** (1), 6-18. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S2040174409990171

Heindel, J.J. (2007). The developmental basis of health and disease. **Reproductive Toxicology, 23** (3), 257-259.

Low, F.M., Gluckman, P.D. & Hanson, M.A. (2012). Developmental plasticity, epigenetics and human health. **Evolutionary Biology, 39** (4), 650-665. DOI. 10.1007/s11692-011-9157-0

Martin, R.P. and Dombrowski, S.C. (2008). **Prenatal exposures: Psychological and educational consequences for children.** New York: Springer.

National Scientific Council on the Developing Child (2004). **Young Children Develop in an Environment of Relationships.** NSCDC Working Paper. Waltham, Massachusetts: National Scientific Council on the Developing Child, Brandeis University. <u>http://www.developingchild.net/papers/paper_1.pdf</u>

National Scientific Council on the Developing Child (2005). **Excessive Stress Disrupts the Architecture of the Developing Brain**. NSCDC Working Paper No. 3. Waltham, Massachusetts: National Scientific Council on the Developing Child, Brandeis University. <u>http://www.developingchild.net/papers/excessive_stress.pdf</u>

National Scientific Council on the Developing Child (2010). **Persistent Fear and Anxiety Can Affect Young Children's Learning and Development.** NSCDC Working Paper No. 9. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Centre on the Developing Child. <u>http://developingchild.harvard.edu/index.php/download_file/-/view/622/</u>

Paul, A.M. (2010). Origins: How the Nine Months Before Birth Shape the Rest of Our Lives. New York: Free Press.

Roseboom, T. J., & Watson, E. D. (2012). The next generation of disease risk: are the effects of prenatal nutrition transmitted across generations Evidence from animal and human studies. **Placenta, 33** (Supplement 2), e40–e44.

Shonkoff, J., & Phillips, D. (Eds.) (2000). From Neurons to Neighborhoods: The Science of Early Childhood Development. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

Yoshikawa, H., Aber, J.L. and Beardslee, W.R. (2012). The effects of poverty on the mental, emotional, and behavioral health of children and youth: Implications for prevention. **American Psychologist, 67** (4), 272-284.

Postnatal learning and development

Bakermans-Kranenburg, M.J. and van IJzendoorn, M.H. (2007). Research Review: Genetic vulnerability or differential susceptibility in child development: the case of attachment. **Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 48** (12), 1160–1173.





Bakermans-Kranenburg, M.J. and van Ijzendoorn, M.H. (2011). Differential susceptibility to rearing environment depending on dopamine-related genes: New evidence and a meta-analysis. **Development and Psychopathology, 23** (1), 39-52.

Belsky, J. (2005). Differential susceptibility to rearing influences: An evolutionary hypothesis and some evidence. In B. Ellis & D. Bjorklund (Eds.). **Origins of the social mind: Evolutionary psychology and child development.** New York: Guilford Press.

Belsky, J., Bakermans-Kranenburg, M. J., & van IJzendoorn, M. H. (2007). For better and for worse: Differential susceptibility to environmental influences. **Current Directions in Psychological Science, 16**, 300–304.

Del Giudice, M. (2014). Early stress and human behavioural development: emerging evolutionary perspectives. **Journal of Developmental Origins of Health and Disease**, 5 (4), 270-280. doi:10.1017/S2040174414000257.

Ellis, B.J., Boyce, W.T., Belsky, J., Bakermans-Kranenburg, M.J. and van Ijzendoorn, M.H. (2011). Differential susceptibility to the environment: an evolutionary --neurodevelopmental theory. **Development and Psychopathology**, **23** (1), 7-28.

Evans, G. W., & Kim, P. (2013). Childhood poverty, chronic stress, self-regulation, and coping. **Child Development Perspectives, 7** (1), 43–48. doi: 10.1111/cdep.12013.

Gopnik, A. (2009). **The Philosophical Baby: What Children's Minds Tell Us About Truth, Love, and the Meaning of Life.** New York: Farrar, Straus and Giroux.

Hertzman, C. & Boyce, T. (2010). How experience gets under the skin to create gradients in developmental health. **Annual Review of Public Health, 31**, 329.

Hertzman, C. (1999). The biological embedding of early experience and its effects on health in adulthood. **Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences, 896**: 85–95. doi: 10.1111/j.1749-6632.1999.tb08107.x

Masten, A.S., & Cicchetti, D. (2010). Developmental cascades. **Development and Psychopathology, 22** (3), 491-495.

McEwen, B.S. (2012). Brain on stress: how the social environment gets under the skin. **Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA, 109** Suppl 2, 17180-5. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1121254109.

Miller, G. E. and Chen, E. (2013). The biological residue of childhood poverty. **Child Development Perspectives, 7** (2), 67–73. doi: 10.1111/cdep.12021

National Scientific Council on the Developing Child (2004). **Young Children Develop in an Environment of Relationships.** NSCDC Working Paper No. 1. Waltham, Massachusetts: National Scientific Council on the Developing Child, Brandeis University. <u>http://www.developingchild.net/papers/paper_1.pdf</u>





National Scientific Council on the Developing Child (2005). **Excessive Stress Disrupts the Architecture of the Developing Brain**. NSCDC Working Paper No. 3. Waltham, Massachusetts: National Scientific Council on the Developing Child, Brandeis University. <u>http://www.developingchild.net/papers/excessive_stress.pdf</u>

National Scientific Council on the Developing Child (2006). **Early Exposure to Toxic Substances Damages Brain Architecture.** NSCDC Working Paper No. 4. Waltham, Massachusetts: National Scientific Council on the Developing Child, Brandeis University. <u>www.developingchild.net/pubs/wp/toxins.pdf</u>

National Scientific Council on the Developing Child (2007). **The Timing and Quality of Early Experiences Combine to Shape Brain Architecture.** NSCDC Working Paper #5. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Centre on the Developing Child, Harvard University.

http://www.developingchild.net/pubs/wp/Timing_Quality_Early_Experiences.pdf

National Scientific Council on the Developing Child (2010). **Persistent Fear and Anxiety Can Affect Young Children's Learning and Development.** NSCDC Working Paper No. 9. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Centre on the Developing Child. <u>http://developingchild.harvard.edu/index.php/download_file/-/view/622/</u>

National Scientific Council on the Developing Child (2010). **Early Experiences Can Alter Gene Expression and Affect Long-Term Development.** NSCDC Working Paper No. 10. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Centre on the Developing Child. <u>http://developingchild.harvard.edu/index.php/download_file/-/view/666/</u>

National Scientific Council on the Developing Child (2011). **Building the Brain's "Air Traffic Control" System: How Early Experiences Shape the Development of Executive Function.** NSCDC Working Paper No. 11. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Centre on the Developing Child at Harvard University. <u>http://developingchild.harvard.edu/index.php/download_file/-/view/836/</u>

National Scientific Council on the Developing Child. (2012). **The Science of Neglect: The Persistent Absence of Responsive Care Disrupts the Developing Brain.** NSCDC Working Paper 12. Cambridge, Massachusetts: National Scientific Council on the Developing Child, Centre on the Developing Child at Harvard University. <u>http://developingchild.harvard.edu/index.php/download_file/-/view/1249/</u>

Pianta, R. C. (2013). Consistent environmental stimulation from birth to elementary school. Ch. 13 in C.L. Cooper (Ed.), **Well-Being: A Complete Reference Guide. Volume I: Wellbeing in Children and Families.** Hoboken, New Jersey: Wiley

Pluess, M. and Belsky, J. (2010). Children's differential susceptibility to effects of parenting. **Family Science, 1** (1), 14-25. DOI: 10.1080/19424620903388554

Richter, L. (2004). **The Importance of Caregiver-Child Interactions for the Survival and Healthy Development of Young Children: A Review.** Geneva, Switzerland: Department of Child and Adolescent Health and Development, World Health Organisation.





Shonkoff, J., & Phillips, D. (Eds.) (2000). From Neurons to Neighborhoods: The Science of Early Childhood Development. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

Siegel, D.J. (2012). The Developing Mind: How Relationships and the Brain Interact to Shape Who We Are (2nd Ed.). New York: The Guilford Press.

Thompson, R.A. (2014). Stress and child development. **The Future of Children, 24** (1), 41-59.

Vaiserman, A.M. (2014). Early-life nutritional programming of longevity. **Journal of Developmental Origins of Health and Disease**, published online ahead of print 13th June. doi:10.1017/S2040174414000294.

Long term impact of early childhood experiences

Adverse Childhood Experiences Study http://acestudy.org/

Anda, R.F., Dong, M., Brown, D., Felitti V., Giles W., Perry, G. Valerie, E.J. & Dube S.R. (2009). The relationship of adverse childhood experiences to a history of premature death of family members. **BMC Public Health, 9**: 106. DOI: 10.1186/1471-2458-9-106

Anda, R.F., Felitti, V.J., Bremner, J.D., Walker, J.D., Whitfield, C., Perry, B.D., Dube, S.R. and Giles, W.H. (2006). The enduring effects of abuse and related adverse experiences in childhood. A convergence of evidence from neurobiology and epidemiology. **European Archives of Psychiatry and Clinical Neuroscience, 256** (3): 174-186. DOI 10.1007/s00406-005-0624-4

Barker, D.J.P. (2004). The developmental origins of adult disease. **Journal of the American College of Nutrition, 23** (6), 588S–595S.

Blair, C. and Raver, C. C. (2012). Child development in the context of adversity: Experiential canalization of brain and behaviour. **American Psychologist, 67** (4), 309-318. doi: 10.1037/a0027493.

Blair, C., Raver, C.C., Granger, D., Mills-Koonce, R. and Hibel, L. (2011). Allostasis and allostatic load in the context of poverty in early childhood. **Development and Psychopathology, 23** (3), 845-857. doi:10.1017/S0954579411000344.

British Cohort Study http://cls.ioe.ac.uk/page.aspx?&sitesectionid=795&sitesectiontitle=Welcome+to+the+ 1970+British+Cohort+Study+%28BCS70%29

Brown, D.W., Anda, R.F., Tiemeier, H., Felitti, V.J., Edwards, V.J., Croft, J.B. & Giles, W.H. (2009). Adverse childhood experiences and the risk of premature mortality. **American Journal of Preventive Medicine**, **37** (5), 389–396.

Cashmore, J. & Shackel, R. (2013). **The long-term effects of child sexual abuse.** CFCA Paper No. 11. Melbourne, Victoria: Child Family Community Australia



Information Exchange, Australian Institute of Family Studies. Retrieved from: <u>http://www.aifs.gov.au/cfca/pubs/papers/a143161/index.html</u>

Christchurch Health and Development Study http://www.otago.ac.nz/christchurch/research/healthdevelopment/

Duncan, G.J., Kalil, A. and Ziol-Guest, K.M. (2013). Early childhood poverty and adult achievement, employment and health. **Family Matters, No. 93**, 27-35.

Elliott, J. and Vaitilingam, R. (2008). **Now we are 50: Key findings from the National Child Development Study.** London, UK: Institute of Education, University of London. http://www.cls.ioe.ac.uk/page.aspx?&sitesectionid=986&sitesectiontitle=Publications

Felitti, V.J., Anda, R.F., Nordenberg, D., Williamson, D.F., Spitz, A.M., Edwards, V., Koss, M.P. and Marks, J.S. (1998). Relationship of childhood abuse and household dsysfunction to many of the leading causes of death in adults: The Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACE) Study. **American Journal of Preventive Medicine**, **14** (4), 245 – 258.

Ferri, E., Bynner, J. & Wadsworth, M. (Eds.)(2003). **Changing Britain, changing lives: Three generations at the turn of the century.** London, UK: Institute of Education, University of London.

Longitudinal Study of Australian Children http://www.growingupinaustralia.gov.au/

McEwen, B.S. (1998). Protective and damaging effects of stress mediators. **New England Journal of Medicine**, **338** (3), 171-179.

Norman, R.E., Byambaa, M., De R., Butchart , A., Scott, J. and Vos, T. (2012). The long-term health consequences of child physical abuse, emotional abuse, and neglect: A systematic review and meta-analysis. **PLoS Medicine**, **9** (11): e1001349. doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.1001349

Rigney, D. (2010). **The Matthew Effect: How Advantage Begets Further Advantage.** New York: Columbia University Press.

Shonkoff, J. P., Garner, A. S., the Committee on Psychosocial Aspects of Child and Family Health, Committee on Early Childhood, Adoption, and Dependent Care, and Section on Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics, Siegel, B.A., Dobbins, M.I., Earls, M.F., McGuinn, L., Pascoe, J. and Wood, D.L. (2012). The lifelong effects of early childhood adversity and toxic stress. **Pediatrics, 129** (1), e232-e246, doi:10.1542/peds.2011-2663.

Neurological development and plasticity

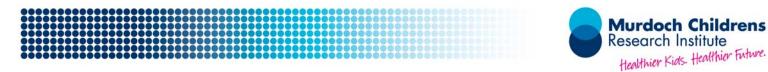
Begley, S. (2009). The Plastic Mind. London, UK: Constable and Robinson.

Calkins, S.D. & Bell, M.A. (Eds.)(2010). **Child Development at the Intersection of Emotion and Cognition.** Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.



Murdoch Childrens Research Institute

Healthier Kids. Healthier Future.



Davidson, R.J. with Begley, S. (2012). **The Emotional Life of Your Brain.** London, UK: Hodder and Stoughton.

Doidge, N. (2007). The Brain That Changes Itself. New York: Viking.

Mesquita, B., Barrett, L.F. & Smith, E.R. (Eds.)(2010). **The Mind in Context.** New York: The Guilford Press.

Moller, A.R. (2009). The malleable brain: Benefits and harm from plasticity of the brain. New York: Nova Science Publishers.

Panksepp, J. (1998). Affective Neuroscience: The Foundations of Human and Animal Emotions. New York: Oxford University Press.

Panksepp, J. and Biven, L. (2012). **The Archaeology of Mind: Neuroevolutionary Origins of Human Emotions.** New York: W.W. Norton.

Pascual-Leone, A., Amedi, A., Fregni, F. and Merabet, L. (2005). The plastic human brain cortex. **Annual Review of Neuroscience**, **28**: 377-401.

Neurobiology of interpersonal relationships

Cozolino, L. (2010). The Neuroscience of Psychotherapy: Healing the Social Brain (2nd Ed.). New York: W.W. Norton.

Cozolino, L. (2014). The Neuroscience of Human Relationships: Attachment and the Developing Social Brain. New York: W.W. Norton.

Davidson, R.J. with Begley, S. (2012). **The Emotional Life of Your Brain.** London, UK: Hodder and Stoughton.

LeDoux, J. (2003). Synaptic Self: How Our Brains Become Who We Are. London, UK: Penguin Books.

Lieberman, M.D. (2013). **Social: Why Our Brains are Wired to Connect.** Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

McGilchrist, I. (2009). **The Master and His Emissary.** New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press.

Panksepp, J. (1998). Affective Neuroscience: The Foundations of Human and Animal Emotions. New York: Oxford University Press.

Panksepp, J. and Biven, L. (2012). **The Archaeology of Mind: Neuroevolutionary Origins of Human Emotions.** New York: W.W. Norton.

Schore, A.N. (2012). Affect Regulation and the Origin of the Self: The Neurobiology of Emotional Development. London, UK: Psychology Press.





Schore, A.N. (2012). **The Science of the Art of Psychotherapy.** New York: W.W. Norton.

Siegel, D.J. (2012). The Developing Mind: How Relationships and the Brain Interact to Shape Who We Are (2nd Ed.). New York: The Guilford Press.

Siegel, D.J. (2012). **Pocket Guide to Interpersonal Neurobiology: An Integrative Handbook of the Mind.** New York: W.W. Norton.

'Social climate change' and its effects

Australian Public Services Commission (2007). **Tackling Wicked Problems: A Public Policy Perspective.** Phillip, ACT: Australian Public Services Commission. <u>http://www.apsc.gov.au/publications07/wickedproblems.htm</u>

Eckersley, R. (2008). **Never better — or getting worse? The health and wellbeing of young Australians.** Weston, ACT: Australia 21. http://www.australia21.org.au/pdf/Youth%20Health%20Text%2008.pdf

Gibson, G. (2009). It Takes a Genome: How a Clash Between Our Genes and Modern Life Is Making Us Sick. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: FT Press Science.

Gluckman, P. & Hanson, M. (2006). **Mismatch: Why Our World No Longer Fits Our Bodies.** Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Hayes, A., Weston, R., Qu, L., & Gray, M. (2010). **Families then and now: 1980-2010** (AIFS Facts Sheet). Melbourne, Victoria: Australian Institute of Family Studies.

Head, B., & Alford, J. (2008). Wicked Problems: The Implications for Public Management. Presentation to Panel on Public Management in Practice, International Research Society for Public Management 12th Annual Conference, 26-28 March, 2008, Brisbane.

Keating, D.P. and Hertzman, C. (1999). Modernity's paradox. In Keating, D.P. and Hertzman, C. (Eds.). **Developmental Health and the Wealth of Nations: Social, Biological, and Educational Dynamics.** New York: The Guilford Press.

Leigh, A. (2010). **Disconnected.** Sydney, NSW: University of New South Wales Press.

Li, J., McMurray, A., & Stanley, F. (2008). Modernity's paradox and the structural determinants of child health and well-being. **Health Sociology Review, 17** (1), pp. 64-77.

Perrin, J.M., Bloom, S.R. and Gortmaker, S.L. (2007). The increase of childhood chronic conditions in the United States. Journal of the American Medical Association, 297 (24), 2755-2759.

Richardson, S., & Prior, M. (2005). **No Time to Lose: The Wellbeing of Australia's Children.** Melbourne, Victoria, Melbourne University Press.







Silbereisen, R.K. & Che, X. (Eds.)(2010). **Social Change and Human Development: Concept and Results**. London, UK: Sage Publications.

Stanley, F., Prior, M., & Richardson, S. (2005). **Children of the Lucky Country?** South Yarra, Victoria: Macmillan Australia.

Trask, B.S. (2010). **Globalization and Families: Accelerated Systemic Social Change.** New York: Springer.

Economic analyses of investments in the early years

Alderman, H. (2010). The economic cost of a poor start to life. **Journal of Developmental Origins of Health and Disease, 1** (1), 19-25. doi:10.1017/S2040174409990158.

Currie, J. (2011). Inequality at birth: Some causes and consequences. **American Economic Review, 101** (3), 1–22. DOI: 10.1257/aer.101.3.1 2.

Doyle, O., Harmon, C. P., Heckman, J. J., & Tremblay, R. E. (2009). Investing in early human development: Timing and economic efficiency. **Economics and Human Biology, 7** (1), 1-6.

Heckman, J. J. (2006). Skill formation and the economics of investing in disadvantaged children. **Science, 312** (5782), 1900-02. http://dx.doi.org/10.1126/science.1128898

Heckman, J. J. (2008). Schools, skills, and synapses. **Economic Inquiry, 46** (3), 289-324.

Heckman, J.J. (2013). **Giving Kids a Fair Chance (A Strategy That Works).** Cambridge, Massachusetts: MIT Press.

Lee, S., Drake E., Pennucci, A., Bjornstad, G., & Edovald, T. (2012). Economic evaluation of early childhood education in a policy context. **Journal of Children's Services**, **7** (1), 53-63.

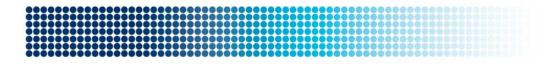
Social inequalities and their effects

Babones, S.J. (Ed.)(2009). **Social inequality and public health.** Bristol, UK: The Policy Press.

Bambra, C., Gibson, M., Sowden, A., Wright, K., Whitehead, M. & Petticrew, M. (2010). Tackling the wider social determinants of health and health inequalities: evidence from systematic reviews. **Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health, 64** (4), 284-291.

Commission on Social Determinants of Health (2008). **Closing the gap in a generation: Health equity through action on the social determinants of health.** Final Report of the WHO Commission on Social Determinants of Health. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organisation. http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2008/9789241563703_eng.pdf







Denburg, A. and Daneman, D. (2010). The link between social inequality and child health outcomes. **Healthcare Quarterly, 14** (Sp), 21-31.

Goldfeld, S. and West, S. (2014). **Inequalities in early childhood outcomes: What lies beneath.** Insight Issue 9. Melbourne, Victoria: Victorian Council of Social Services. <u>http://apo.org.au/files/Research/VCOSSInsight_InequalitiesInEarlyChildhoodOutcom</u> esWhatLiesBeneath Jan 2014.pdf

Hertzman, C. (2010). Framework for the social determinants of early child development. In R.E. Tremblay, M. Boivin & R.DeV. Peters (Eds.), **Encyclopedia on Early Childhood Development.** Montreal, Quebec: Centre of Excellence for Early Childhood Development. <u>www.child-</u>encyclopedia.com/documents/HertzmanANGxp.pdf

Hertzman, C., Siddiqi, A., Hertzman, E., Irwin, L. G., Vaghri, Z., Houweling, T. A. J., Bell, R., Tinajero, A., & Marmot, M. (2010). Bucking the inequality gradient through early child development. **British Medical Journal**, **340**, c468. Published 10 February 2010, doi:10.1136/bmj.c468.

Lareau, A. (2012). Unequal Childhoods: Class, Race, and Family Life (2nd Second Edition with an Update a Decade Later). Berkeley, California: University of California Press.

Marmot, M. (2004). Status Syndrome: How Your Social Standing Directly Affects Your Health and Life. London, UK: Bloomsbury.

Marmot, M. (2010). **Fair Society, Healthy Lives: The Marmot Review.** London, UK: University College London.

Nicholson, J.M., Lucas, N., Berthelsen, D. & Wake, M. (2012). Socioeconomic inequality profiles in physical and developmental health from 0-7 years: Australian national study. **Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health, 66**, e81-87. doi:10.1136/jech.2009.10329.

Piketty, T. (2014). **Capital in the Twenty-First Century.** Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.

Shonkoff, J. P. (2012). Leveraging the biology of adversity to address the roots of disparities in health and development. **Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA, 109** (Suppl. 2), 17302-7. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1121259109.

Wilkinson, R.G. (2005). The Impact of Inequality: How to Make Sick Societies Healthier. New York: The New Press.

Wilkinson, R.G. (2009). The impact of inequality: empirical evidence. In S.J. Babones (Ed.), **Social inequality and public health.** Bristol, UK: The Policy Press.

Wilkinson, R.G. and Pickett, K.E. (2009). **The Sprit Level: Why More Equal Societies Almost Always Do Better.** London, UK: Allen Lane.





Woolfenden, S., Goldfeld, S., Raman, S., Eapen, V., Kemp, L. and Williams, K. (2013). Inequity in child health: The importance of early childhood development. **Journal of Paediatrics and Child Health**, **49** (9), E365–E369. doi:10.1111/jpc.12171.

Measurement of key indicators of child development and functioning

Australian Government. (2013). A Snapshot of Early Childhood Development in Australia 2012 — AEDI National Report. Canberra, ACT: Australian Government.

Brinkman, S., Gregory, T., Harris, J., Hart, B., Blackmore, S. & Janus, M. (2013). Associations between the Early Development Instrument at age 5, and reading and numeracy skills at ages 8, 10 and 12: a prospective linked data study. **Child Indicators Research, 6** (4), 695-708. doi:10.1007/s12187-013-9189-3.

Brinkman, S.A., Gialamas, A., Rahman, A., Mittinty, M.N., Gregory, T.A., Silburn, S., Goldfeld, S., Zubrick, S., Carr, V., Janus, M., Hertzman, C. & Lynch, J.W. (2012). Jurisdictional, socioeconomic and gender inequalities in child health and development: analysis of a national census of 5-year-olds in Australia. **BMJ Open, 2** (5), e001075. doi:10.1136/bmjopen-2012-001075.

Brinkman, S., Sayers, M., Goldfeld, S. and Kline, J. (2009). Population monitoring of language and cognitive development in Australia: The Australian Early Development Index. **International Journal of Speech-Language Pathology, 11** (5), 419-430. doi:10.1080/17549500903147552.

Centre for Community Child Health and the Telethon Institute for Child Health Research (2009). A snapshot of early childhood development in Australia: Australian Early Development Index (AEDI) National Report 2009. Canberra, ACT: Australian Government.

Goldfeld, S., O'Connor, M., Sayers, M., Moore, T. and Oberklaid, F. (2012). The prevalence and correlates of special health care needs in a population cohort of Australian children at school entry. **Journal of Developmental and Behavioural Pediatrics**, **33** (3), 1-9.







CONTACT DETAILS

Dr. Tim Moore Senior Research Fellow

Centre for Community Child Health Murdoch Childrens Research Institute The Royal Children's Hospital 50 Flemington Road, Parkville, Victoria, Australia 3052

Phone:+61 3 9345 5040Email:tim.moore@mcri.edu.auWebsite:www.rch.org.au/ccch

