Journal of Developmental Origins of Health and Disease

cambridge.org/doh

Review

Cite this article: Phillips-Beck W, Sinclair S, Campbell R, Star L, Cidro J, Wicklow B, Guillemette L, Morris MI, McGavock JM. (2019) Early-life origins of disparities in chronic diseases among Indigenous youth: pathways to recovering health disparities from intergenerational trauma. *Journal of Developmental Origins of Health and Disease* **10**: 115–122. doi: 10.1017/S2040174418000661

Received: 21 February 2018 Revised: 24 April 2018 Accepted: 2 August 2018 First published online: 18 September 2018

Key words:

colonization; indigenous doula; prenatal care

Address for correspondence:

J. McGavock, DREAM Theme & DEVOTION Network, CIHR Applied Health Chair in Resilience and Obesity in Youth, Department of Pediatrics and Child Health, Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Manitoba, 511 JBRC. Children's Hospital Research Institute of Manitoba, 715 McDermot ave. Winnipeg, Canada MB R3E 3P4. E-mail: jmcgavock@chrim.ca

© Cambridge University Press and the International Society for Developmental Origins of Health and Disease 2018.



Early-life origins of disparities in chronic diseases among Indigenous youth: pathways to recovering health disparities from intergenerational trauma

W. Phillips-Beck¹, S. Sinclair¹, R. Campbell¹, L. Star¹, J. Cidro², B. Wicklow^{3,4}, L. Guillemette^{3,4}, M. I. Morris^{3,4} and J. M. McGavock^{3,4}

¹Nanaandawewigamig – First Nations Health and Social Secretariat of Manitoba, Winnipeg, MB, Canada, ²Department of Anthropology, University of Winnipeg, Winnipeg, MB, Canada, ³Department of Pediatrics and Child Health, Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, MB, Canada and ⁴The DEVOTION Network, Children's Hospital Research Institute of Manitoba, Winnipeg, MB, Canada

Abstract

Indigenous women and children experience some of the most profound health disparities globally. These disparities are grounded in historical and contemporary trauma secondary to colonial atrocities perpetuated by settler society. The health disparities that exist for chronic diseases may have their origins in early-life exposures that Indigenous women and children face. Mechanistically, there is evidence that these adverse exposures epigenetically modify genes associated with cardiometabolic disease risk. Interventions designed to support a resilient pregnancy and first 1000 days of life should abrogate disparities in early-life socioeconomic status. Breastfeeding, prenatal care and early child education are key targets for governments and health care providers to start addressing current health disparities in cardiometabolic diseases among Indigenous youth. Programmes grounded in cultural safety and co-developed with communities have successfully reduced health disparities. More works of this kind are needed to reduce inequities in cardiometabolic diseases among Indigenous women and children worldwide.

Why study the developmental origins of chronic diseases in youth?

Chronic non-communicable diseases (e.g. diabetes, obesity and cardiovascular disease) are the leading causes of death, disability and health care expenditures worldwide.¹ When considered in relation to mortality and disability adjusted life years, the burden of chronic non-communicable diseases eclipses that of infectious diseases.² Alarmingly, rates of chronic diseases are rapidly increasing among youth and young adults with substantial effects on the quality of life, productivity and lifelong health care costs.^{3–6} There is growing evidence that this rapid increase is related to population-wide changes in early-life exposures (i.e. maternal gestational obesity/diabetes or exposure to environmental toxins) that contribute to the increased disease burden.

The landmark Dutch Famine⁷ and British birth cohort studies⁸ provided the first evidence that an altered fetal environment can programme an individual's risk for chronic disease. These data provided the foundation for the developmental origins of disease theory,^{9–12} which posits that early-life events biologically programme an individual's risk for chronic disease (reviewed in Barker,¹² Symonds *et al.*¹³ and McMillen and Robinson¹⁴). Studies using animal models with controlled pre- and postnatal conditions replicated these epidemiological observations demonstrating that maternal exposures (i.e. obesity/diabetes, smoking and medication use during pregnancy) programme susceptibility for chronic diseases in off-spring.^{13–15} Importantly, interventions delivered during the first few years of life can reduce disease risk (i.e. breastfeeding^{16,17}/early childhood education^{18,19}) demonstrating that the early postnatal period is a key window of opportunity for reducing lifetime chronic disease risk. Critically, these interventions result in substantial, lifelong health, neurodevelopmental and social benefits that reduce inequities associated with exposure to adverse early-life environments (i.e. poverty, diabetes, etc.).

Indigenous youth in Canada and elsewhere face some of the most profound inequities in chronic diseases.^{20,21} These inequities directly result from historical and contemporary trauma that Indigenous families face.²² The effects of this trauma are evident early in the life of Indigenous children. For example, in Manitoba, Indigenous children are more likely to live in poverty, suffer from food insecurity, attend underfunded schools, and women are less likely to

receive breastfeeding or to have access to public health interventions and primary care services. This structural racism combined with historical and contemporary colonial trauma contributes to high rates of chronic diseases among Indigenous vouth in the province, particularly hypertension, obesity and type 2 diabetes. The incidence of chronic diseases with potentially early-life origins like obesity and type 2 diabetes among Manitoban Indigenous youth far exceeds that seen in other provinces in Canada.^{23–26} Three critical facts reinforce the notion that these disparities are socially constructed and not due to genetic or lifestyle underpinnings specific to Indigenous peoples and must be acknowledged by Western science. First, these disparities do not exist for non-Indigenous youth in Canada who live in similarly deprived regions or households with similar incomes and are less pronounced among Indigenous peoples that experience less trauma.²⁷ Second, these disparities did not exist before settlers entered Indigenous territory nor among youth before entering residential schools.²⁸ Finally, Indigenous nations that experienced less trauma and are currently more culturally connected do not observe the same degree of health inequities.^{21,29-31} In select settings across North America, interventions are currently underway to promote Indigenous cultural identity and connectedness as a means of 'treating' and reducing health and social inequities³² as there is growing recognition that connection to culture is an important protective factor for First Nations peoples' health, particularly in regard to mental health.³³ In fact, in most Indigenous worldviews, the connection between mental, emotional, spiritual and physical wellbeing is clear, and the transmission pathway of embodied suffering from mother to baby is well understood. Western science and the study of epigenesis, on the other hand, is only just beginning to catch up. The purpose of this review is to explore the impact of historical and ongoing trauma on the maternal and early life forces that shape chronic disease risk among Indigenous youth. We will apply both Indigenous and Western worldviews in this review, restrict the discussion to the Canadian context and attempt to provide promising strategies grounded in a 'decolonizing' or cultural restoration framework.

Colonization and trauma are the main cause of health disparities among Indigenous women and their children

Obesity and type 2 diabetes are two of the most common chronic diseases in youth in Canada $^{34-36}$ and disproportionately affect Indigenous peoples worldwide.^{37–43} The inequities in obesity, type 2 diabetes and life expectancy among Indigenous peoples in Canada can be attributed to several unique lifestyle and societal factors.⁴⁴ The geopolitical and sociohistorical/colonial experiences of all Indigenous peoples in Canada are paramount to any discussion of health inequities among Indigenous peoples in this country.^{45,46} As highlighted in the recent Truth and Reconciliation Commission Report,⁴⁷ the legacy of several forms of colonization have impacted the health and wellbeing of Indigenous peoples in Canada.^{45,46} Government-led assimilation practices/ strategies of Indigenous peoples, including geographic displacement, residential school education and religious suppression are established determinants of disease inequities.⁴⁷ The appropriation of traditional land by European settlers and government legislation led to the displacement of many communities away from land that was integral to traditional ways of life. Entire communities were displaced onto lands that forced rapid

transition to a more European lifestyle.48 Geographic displacement was and is still compounded by the legacy of residential schools, of the Sixties Scoop,⁴⁹ and continued assimilation forced upon Indigenous children, vouth, their families and communities.⁴⁷ The cultural genocide did not stop after the Sixties Scoop; it continues even today through the systematic racist policies that continue to remove Indigenous children from their family, community and traditional lands. Here we argue that the government-sponsored appropriation of land and loss of traditional cultural practices during the early life period, combined with the intergenerational impact of residential schools and the Sixties Scoop policies explain, in large part, the disparities in chronic diseases between Indigenous and non-Indigenous youth in Canada. These include historical and current loss of the connection of Indigenous peoples to traditional lands that are universally considered critical for wellness among Indigenous peoples in Canada.

Potential mechanisms for early-life programming of chronic disease risk in youth

Although epidemiological studies strongly suggest that the risk for premature chronic disease has origins in early life, the biological mechanisms by which fetal and early-life exposures influence physiology and health of children and youth are complex and remain unclear.^{50–53} Two traditionally proposed mechanisms involve: (1) permanent structural changes to key organs (i.e. destruction of fetal pancreatic beta cells increasing diabetes risk) and (2) accelerated cellular ageing (i.e. oxidative stress-induced shortening of telomeres leading to cellular senescence and premature age-related pathologies; reviewed in Martin-Gronert and Ozanne⁵¹). More recently, altered epigenetic regulation of gene expression^{50–53} following exposure to prenatal and/or early-life environmental stressors is believed to play a causal role in the link between early-life exposure and lifelong chronic disease risk.

The epigenome is a complex layer of regulatory information superimposed on the genome and includes nucleosome occupancy, positioning, composition, modification and dynamics, as well as DNA methylation that influence the expression of genes.^{54–56} Owing to phenotypic plasticity in early life, epigenetic mechanisms are very significant in the maternal-placenta–fetal transmission of disease phenotypes.⁵⁷ Epigenetic modification of DNA contributes to the transmission of risk from mother to child during gestation and contributes to the offspring's susceptibility to chronic diseases.^{58–61} Moreover, epigenetic programming can be influenced by how the offspring are nursed, by infection or allergen exposure or even by how the gut is colonized by bacteria.⁶² Epigenetic programming of gene expression may also have an intergenerational effect and as a result may perpetuate chronic disease risk in the next generation.⁶³

Perhaps the earliest series of epigenetic studies that could support the fact that colonial atrocities have rendered Indigenous youth at greater risk of chronic disease stem from the work of Michael Meaney and colleagues from McGill University.⁶⁴ In brief, they demonstrated in rodents that creating stressful environments that increased the stress response early in life epigenetically modified the glucocorticoid receptor gene.⁶⁵ The epigenetic shift altered gene expression for glucocorticoid genes that further altered the offspring's stress response. Importantly, these epigenetic shifts were buffered by higher maternal care and support.^{65,66} Data from this animal model provide insight into the mechanistic underpinnings for the importance of maternal roles (and potentially communal roles) in buffering the lasting effects of trauma on offspring. These concepts have long been recognized and promoted within Indigenous communities in Canada but have been lost in some communities due to colonization and the impact of Western medicine on birthing practices (i.e. removal/ evacuation of women from communities to give birth), the child welfare system and the shunning of traditional birthing/family practices by the church and state.

Elders have long warned that the impact of the cultural genocide First Nations peoples experienced would last generations.^{67,68} The Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada has called on health care providers and scientists to recognize that there is a direct link between these atrocities and current health inequities among Indigenous peoples.²² From a Western standpoint, changes in specific epigenetic markers have been documented in survivors of residential schools, secondary to the starvation imposed on children attending the schools.⁶⁹ These epigenetic effects are believed to underpin not only the stress response, but may also increase risk for cardiometabolic diseases in adulthood. What remains unclear, but is worth examining, is whether maternal factors such as breastfeeding, returning birth to communities and/or restoring traditional early-life cultural practices can buffer and eventually erase adverse epigenetic changes from intergenerational trauma and begin the path towards health equity for Indigenous peoples.⁷⁰

Early-life interventions elicit significant lifelong health and social benefits

The effectiveness of lifestyle interventions to prevent chronic disease in adults is mixed. However, growing experimental evidence demonstrates that interventions delivered during the prenatal or early postnatal years yield lasting benefits into adulthood.⁷¹⁻⁷⁴ Improving conditions for physical, nutritional and social health during the early years of life decrease the incidence of non-communicable chronic diseases, encourage healthy lifestyle in adults and reduce health care expenditures. More importantly, interventions delivered early in life seem to confer lifelong protection from several chronic conditions. Accordingly, expert health panels like the World Health Organization and The World Bank build on a conceptual framework for early childhood development outcomes with a focus on health, nutrition and early learning,^{75–77} particularly: (1) breastfeeding promotion; (2) access to and provision of prenatal care and (3) formal early learning. An extensive series was published early in 2017 reviewing each of these areas as well as challenges associated with scaling this evidence into programmes offered globally. Here we will provide brief summaries of the three main areas with relevant work conducted in Manitoba, Canada.

Breastfeeding

Breastfeeding was traditionally the main source of nutrients, immune factors and calories in the first year of life. As alternative forms of infant feeding have become more common, science has extensively studied the differences in child health outcomes associated with breastfeeding.¹⁶ Extensive literature exists demonstrating the benefits of breastfeeding on infant weight status.^{17,78} Data from our group and others found that initiation of breastfeeding alone confers protection against type 2 diabetes in both mothers and their offspring.^{79–82} Importantly, this protection appears to be dosedependent with the intensity (exclusiveness) and duration of

breastfeeding for both mothers⁸¹ and offspring.⁸³ Unfortunately, while breastfeeding initiation rates are relatively high, the duration and exclusivity of breastfeeding is suboptimal¹⁶ and costs are extensive. A recent economic analysis in the United States revealed that if rates of exclusive breastfeeding in the first 6 months of life increased to 90% of families, a country could save \$13 billion in health-related expenditures annually and safe close to 1000 lives.⁸⁴ Similar data are needed in Canada; however, this reinforces the potential economic health care savings associated with early-life behavioural interventions.

Similar to other modifiable lifestyle behaviours, the impacts of colonization and cultural genocide have led to profound disparities in breastfeeding practices among Indigenous women. In a recent study by our group, we found that only 56% of First Nations mothers, compared with 83% of non-First Nations mothers, initiated breastfeeding in the hospital following birth.⁷⁹ Similar disparities exist among Indigenous women in Australia.⁸⁵ These disparities are grounded in historical and contemporary injustices: interventions focused exclusively on education are unjust and prove ineffective in populations affected by structural racism. Interventions to support breastfeeding among Indigenous women should be grounded in factors that support them to breastfeed, including cultural traditions, community and family support, and addressing socioeconomic challenges.⁸⁶ Interventions with particular success relied on Elder and/or peer support, media/community campaigns to address stigma and home-visiting programs.^{87,88} There is a significant research gap in community-driven participatory models of breastfeeding promotion among Indigenous women. Increasing the number of community-driven interventions that promote breastfeeding in a culturally safe and grounded way may reduce inequities in breastfeeding rates among Indigenous women in Canada.

Access to and provision of prenatal care

Improvements in prenatal care contributed significantly to the reduction in maternal and infant mortality in high-income countries over the last century.⁸⁹ Prenatal care is considered a universal right in Canada and is provided within the public health system.⁹⁰ National societies of obstetrics and gynaecology recommend women attend prenatal visits with increasing frequency throughout pregnancy to screen for pregnancy-related health risks, receive information on healthy pregnancy and track fetal growth and development. Despite universal access to prenatal care in Canada, significant disparities in prenatal care exist worldwide,89,91,92 particularly among Indigenous women and women living in low-income households. A recent systematic review identified several social factors associated with not accessing prenatal care. We have compared these factors with those identified in a Manitoba-based case-control study of women living in an underserved urban area (Table 1). Similar to disparities in health outcomes, the disparities in access to prenatal care that Indigenous women experience are grounded in historical and contemporary trauma that created and maintain adverse social conditions. Similar to breastfeeding disparities, interventions aimed at improving access to care, particularly for Indigenous women, must be culturally grounded in traditional knowledge and practices and on decolonizing and/or social justice frameworks.

Several models of prenatal care support exist worldwide.^{92–94} Prenatal care is associated with better health outcomes in mothers

Systematic review	Manitoba case-control study ⁸²
Young maternal age	Low household income
Low maternal education	Importance was unclear
Nonmarital status	Relied on friends/family
Ethnic minority	Dissatisfied with care
Unplanned pregnancy	Depressed/stressed
High parity	Family/partner problems
Late recognition of pregnancy	Concern for child apprehension

Table 1. Published barriers to prenatal care

and children and data from recent systematic reviews suggest that group-based prenatal care confers even greater health benefits than individual care.^{93,95} Group-based therapy can provide the additional benefit of creating social support networks and information-sharing at a lower cost, making it attractive as a public health intervention among groups suffering from inequities in care. Midwifery is another emerging model of prenatal care that may help reduce gaps in care and support women during the prenatal period.^{96,97} A systematic review that included six cluster randomized trials (n = 138,549) and seven quasi-experimental studies (n = 72,225) indicated that interventions with traditional birth attendants, including midwives, was associated with a 24% reduction in perinatal death, 21% reduction in neonatal death and a trend towards lower maternal mortality.⁹⁷ These effects seem to be greatest among women and children living in low resources environments.^{98,99} A recent intervention in Winnipeg, the largest city in Manitoba, was guided by the results from a case-control study of barriers and facilitators to prenatal care.^{91,100} Co-developed between practitioners, mostly Indigenous women from a low-income neighbourhood in the inner city of Winnipeg, and researchers, the intervention was perceived by participants as reducing inequities in prenatal care. The study was strengthened by creating positive relationships with health care providers, flexible schedule and support with transportation and care. This is an attractive model to consider for reducing inequities in prenatal care among Indigenous in Canada and scale-up models need to be tested.

Early-life interventions

It is posited that interventions delivered in the first few years life confer lifelong social and health benefits.^{101,102} Supporting early-life brain development, optimal nutrition and mastery are core goals for a resilient first 1000 days of life.^{75,103} Unfortunately, although several interventions have targeted women living in low-and middle-income countries, some of these efforts engaged Indigenous community in an effort to address inequities in health among Indigenous women and children.

The Abecedarian study is one of the most widely cited early-life interventions with longitudinal follow-up into adulthood. It provides an excellent example of the lifelong benefits of early-life interventions.^{18,71} Children from low-income families who received full-time, high-quality educational intervention in a childcare setting from infancy through age 5 were twice as likely to graduate from college, displayed higher cognitive function from age 5 to 21 years and were 20–50% less likely to develop hypertension and the metabolic syndrome at 30 years of age.¹⁸ This model of intensive early child care has influenced several provincial child care policies in Canada;

however, it has remained targeted to non-Indigenous children. Models of intensive early-life education and care, grounded in Indigenous cultural teachings need to be developed and tested with Indigenous community stakeholders to determine if similar effects are achievable in Canada.

Examples inform future efforts to reduce inequities in indigenous maternal-child health outcomes

The United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples state that Indigenous peoples have the right 'to maintain and have access to their traditional medicines and health practices, including the conservation of their vital medicinal plants, animals and minerals'. The Declaration also calls for the 'right to access, without any discrimination, all social and health services'. We would like to highlight specific models of co-developed culturally safe care that could be used to guide future interventions. These examples have relied on ethical reciprocal university– community partnerships grounded in justice or equity. They also recognize the importance of co-creating interventions or policies guided by the voice and priorities of community.

Strengthening families maternal-child health

In some First Nations communities, there are programmes and services that are geared towards pre- and postnatal women, such as the Strengthening Families Maternal Child Health (SF-MCH) homevisiting program, which is being delivered in 16 of 63 First Nations communities in Manitoba. The SF-MCH programme provides intensive home visiting to prenatal women and families with children from 0 to 6 years of age, with a focus on prenatal health, preparing for birth, attachment and bonding, breastfeeding, screening for postpartum depression and early childhood screening/ development. The programme uses a strength-based approach and the accredited Growing Great Kids Curriculum^{™104} that has been culturally adapted to each individual community. Two successive evaluations have demonstrated that the programme has been effective in developing strong parental skills, increased breastfeeding rates, supporting positive relationships within the family, improved family functioning and improved access to health services among the participants.^{105,106} The programme has been recognized as a best practice by the Health Council of Canada,¹⁰⁷ particularly around the joint partnership model with First Nation leadership.

Indigenous doula initiative

Another of these examples is the training and implementation of Indigenous doulas to support women during pregnancy, delivery and postpartum period. Travelling for birth is a typical experience for many First Nations women in Canada from remote and rural communities. Traditionally, Canadian women, particularly First Nations women, gave birth in their home communities, among friends and extended family. Cultural practices established strong community roots for the mother, her infant and the family. The children born in the community developed a clear sense of identity that helped them to become resilient and responsible members of that community. In the 1960s, the government began building local nursing stations staffed by nurses and at least one midwife;¹⁰⁸ however, by the 1970s, the efforts to decrease maternal mortality and morbidity in the general population led to a move towards hospital deliveries for all women. Criteria was established for evacuating mothers with high-risk pregnancies to

tertiary centres, but by the 1980s essentially all deliveries occurred outside of the community.¹⁰⁸ For First Nations women in particular, this led to their being transferred out of their home community weeks before their due date, an event which often resulted in a cascade of negative social consequences.^{109,110} Often unaccompanied, women must leave their communities to experience labour and delivery in a distant referral centre where they reside in short-term boarding houses for weeks. This leaves them feeling culturally alienated or isolated over the course of the birthing period. Teenage girls may be particularly vulnerable when left without their mothers/caregivers for weeks at a critical time in their development¹¹⁰ and may increase the instances of racism and isolation and creates the susceptibility to trafficking.¹¹¹

Although many Indigenous communities are now exploring the possibilities of returning birthing back to communities for women characterized as low risk, there are still unmet needs that diminish the quality of the birthing experiences for women, whether they deliver in the community or in tertiary care centres. To date, discussions of risk have focused exclusively on the medical aspects of pregnancy, ignoring risks associated with dislocating the birthing event from its sociocultural context. In Manitoba, research is underway to explore the potential for trained birth workers to support pregnant and delivering women who travel for birth and in relearning traditional ways of nurturing and caring for pregnant women. In Winnipeg, Indigenous doulas provide support and mentorship for prenatal Indigenous women, during pregnancy, delivery and postpartum through the Manitoba Indigenous Doulas Initiative. Indigenous doulas in Manitoba are rooted in cultural teachings, spiritual connections and traditions but do not provide clinical assessment. It is increasingly recognized that a trained birth companion could have large impacts on some of the psychological and social stressors experienced by women, as well as birth and health outcomes especially for women who travel for birth.¹¹² This programme is working in tandem with the Indigenous leadership on implementing a culturally and community-driven Indigenous doula programme designed for women in First Nations communities where women are required to travel for birth. Expectant mothers will be paired with a local Indigenous doula who has undergone culturally-specific doula training along with mentorship from an Indigenous doula/midwife team in the city. The expectant mothers will receive doula care from pregnancy to postpartum from her 'doula team'. Researchers are measuring a variety of outcomes related to psychological and social stressors and health outcomes using a variety of qualitative, quantitative and clinic evaluation. Some of these prenatal measurements include quality of prenatal care,¹¹³ interpersonal processes of care,¹¹⁴ stress^{115,116} and postpartum depression.¹¹⁷ This project is determining if health, social and cultural outcomes for mothers and newborns improved with First Nations, culturally-based doulas for women who travel for birth. Underpinning this project is the concept of resilience. Despite years of having traditions of birthing and midwifery replaced by biomedical notions of risk and safety, communities have developed pathways of resiliency. This project supports resiliency and is reflective of the larger response to domination faced by evacuated First Nations communities.

Inuit midwives

In addition to Doula support, communities are advocating for and piloting the use of local midwives to support returning birthing back to communities. A Canadian example of this model is the midwifery education programme at the Inuulisivik Health Centre, which trains Inuit midwives within the community-based birthing services programme.^{118–120} Interventions such as these (Maternal Child Health Strengthening Families, the Indigenous Doulas Initiative and others) grounded in restoring precolonial ways of life are critical as they keep the family together, support the healthy families by restoring traditional parenting roles that were violently taken during the era of residential school, Sixties Scoop and continue today through the child and family services system.

Conclusions

In conclusion, the health disparities that exist among Indigenous women and children can be linked directly to historical trauma and colonial policies which severed the connection of Indigenous peoples to the land and culture, which is essentially cultural genocide. Interventions grounded in cultural restoration in the first 1000 days of life may be critical to overcoming the lasting effects of this trauma on Indigenous families. Efforts to promote prenatal care, breastfeeding and restoration of traditional birth practices are essential for gradually restoring the health of Indigenous families to the levels once observed before colonization.

Acknowledgments. The authors would like to acknowledge the guidance of Elders and Knowledge Keepers involved in this work who have provided teachings to guide the work the authors do.

Financial Support. Dr McGavock is funded through grants from Research Manitoba Cluster Program and the Lawson Foundation for the DEVOTION Network and holds a CIHR Applied Public Health Chair in Resilience and Obesity. Drs Wicklow and Cidro hold awards from the Canadian Institutes of Health Research. Ms Guillemette holds a doctoral student award from the Canadian Institutes of Health Research and from the University of Manitoba Graduate Enhancement of Tri-Council Stipends program.

Conflicts of Interest. None.

References

- Bauer UE, Briss PA, Goodman RA, Bowman BA. Prevention of chronic disease in the 21st century: elimination of the leading preventable causes of premature death and disability in the USA. *Lancet*. 2014; 384, 45–52.
- Murray CJ, Lopez AD. Global mortality, disability, and the contribution of risk factors: Global Burden of Disease Study. *Lancet.* 1997; 349, 1436– 1442.
- Baraldi E, Filippone M. Chronic lung disease after premature birth. N Engl J Med. 2007; 357, 1946–1955.
- 4. Pinhas-Hamiel O, Zeitler P. The global spread of type 2 diabetes mellitus in children and adolescents. *J Pediatr*. 2005; 146, 693–700.
- Pinhas-Hamiel O, Zeitler P. Acute and chronic complications of type 2 diabetes mellitus in children and adolescents. *Lancet*. 2007; 369, 1823–1831.
- Sears MR. Epidemiology of childhood asthma. *Lancet.* 1997; 350, 1015–1020.
 Ravelli GP, Stein ZA, Susser MW. Obesity in young men after famine
- exposure in utero and early infancy. N Engl J Med. 1976; 295, 349–353.
 8. Barker DJ, Winter PD, Osmond C, Margetts B, Simmonds SJ. Weight in infancy and death from ischaemic heart disease. Lancet. 1989; 2, 577–
- 580.9. Barker DJ. The fetal and infant origins of adult disease. *BMJ*. 1990; 301, 1111.
- Gluckman PD, Hanson MA, Mitchell MD. Developmental origins of health and disease: reducing the burden of chronic disease in the next generation. *Genome Med.* 2010; 2, 14.

- Fleming TP, Watkins AJ, Velazquez MA, *et al.* Origins of lifetime health around the time of conception: causes and consequences. *Lancet.* 2018; 391, 1842–1852.
- Barker DJ. Developmental origins of adult health and disease. J Epidemiol Community Health. 2004; 58, 114–115.
- 13. Symonds ME, Sebert SP, Hyatt MA, Budge H. Nutritional programming of the metabolic syndrome. *Nat Rev Endocrinol.* 2009; 5, 604–610.
- McMillen IC, Robinson JS. Developmental origins of the metabolic syndrome: prediction, plasticity, and programming. *Physiol Rev.* 2005; 85, 571–633.
- Chan LL, Sebert SP, Hyatt MA, et al. Effect of maternal nutrient restriction from early to midgestation on cardiac function and metabolism after adolescent-onset obesity. Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol. 2009; 296, R1455–R1463.
- Victora CG, Bahl R, Barros AJ, et al. Breastfeeding in the 21st century: epidemiology, mechanisms, and lifelong effect. Lancet. 2016; 387, 475–490.
- Weng SF, Redsell SA, Swift JA, Yang M, Glazebrook CP. Systematic review and meta-analyses of risk factors for childhood overweight identifiable during infancy. *Arch Dis Child*. 2012; 97, 1019–1026.
- 18. Campbell F, Conti G, Heckman JJ, et al. Early childhood investments substantially boost adult health. *Science*. 2014; 343, 1478–1485.
- Engle PL, Black MM, Behrman JR, *et al.* Strategies to avoid the loss of developmental potential in more than 200 million children in the developing world. *Lancet.* 2007; 369, 229–242.
- Azzopardi PS, Sawyer SM, Carlin JB, et al. Health and wellbeing of Indigenous adolescents in Australia: a systematic synthesis of population data. Lancet. 2018; 391, 766–782.
- Anderson I, Robson B, Connolly M, et al. Indigenous and tribal peoples' health (The Lancet-Lowitja Institute Global Collaboration): a population study. Lancet. 2016; 388, 131–157.
- 22. Canada TaRCo. Calls to Action. Winnipeg, Manitoba, 2015.
- Amed S, Dean HJ, Panagiotopoulos C, et al. Type 2 diabetes, medicationinduced diabetes, and monogenic diabetes in Canadian children: a prospective national surveillance study. Diabetes Care. 2010; 33, 786–791.
- Daley D, Lemire M, Akhabir L, et al. Analyses of associations with asthma in four asthma population samples from Canada and Australia. *Hum Genet.* 2009; 125, 445–459.
- Kozyrskyj AL, HayGlass KT, Sandford AJ, et al. A novel study design to investigate the early-life origins of asthma in children (SAGE study). *Allergy.* 2009; 64, 1185–1193.
- Subbarao P, Becker A, Brook JR, et al. Epidemiology of asthma: risk factors for development. Expert Rev Clin Immunol. 2009; 5, 77–95.
- Kaspar V. The lifetime effect of residential school attendance on indigenous health status. Am J Public Health. 2014; 104, 2184–2190.
- Hackett FJ, Abonyi S, Dyck RF. Anthropometric indices of First Nations children and youth on first entry to Manitoba/Saskatchewan residential schools-1919 to 1953. *Int J Circumpolar Health*. 2016; 75, 30734.
- 29. Esparza-Romero J, Valencia ME, Urquidez-Romero R, et al. Environmentally driven increases in Type 2 diabetes and obesity in Pima Indians and non-Pimas in Mexico over a 15-year period: The Maycoba Project. Diabetes Care. 2015; 38, 2075–2082.
- Schulz LO, Bennett PH, Ravussin E, *et al.* Effects of traditional and western environments on prevalence of type 2 diabetes in Pima Indians in Mexico and the U.S. *Diabetes Care.* 2006; 29, 1866–1871.
- Broderstad AR, Melhus M. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome and diabetes mellitus in Sami and Norwegian populations. The SAMINOR —a cross-sectional study. *BMJ Open*. 2016; 6, e009474.
- Barker B, Goodman A, DeBeck K. Reclaiming Indigenous identities: culture as strength against suicide among Indigenous youth in Canada. *Can J Public Health.* 2017; 108, e208–e210.
- Snowshoe A, Crooks CV, Tremblay PF, Craig WM, Hinson RE. Development of a cultural connectedness scale for First Nations youth. *Psychol Assess.* 2015; 27, 249–259.
- Dabelea D, Mayer-Davis EJ, Saydah S, *et al.* Prevalence of type 1 and type 2 diabetes among children and adolescents from 2001 to 2009. *JAMA*. 2014; 311, 1778–1786.
- Sauaia A, Byers T. Obesity in US children and adults. JAMA. 2012; 307, 2145.

- Roberts KC, Shields M, de Groh M, Aziz A, Gilbert JA. Overweight and obesity in children and adolescents: results from the 2009 to 2011 Canadian Health Measures Survey. *Health Rep.* 2012; 23, 37–41.
- Craig ME, Femia G, Broyda V, Lloyd M, Howard NJ. Type 2 diabetes in Indigenous and non-Indigenous children and adolescents in New South Wales. *Med J Aust.* 2007; 186, 497–499.
- Daniel M, Gamble D. Diabetes and Canada's aboriginal peoples: the need for primary prevention. *Int J Nurs Stud.* 1995; 32, 243–259.
- Maple-Brown LJ, Sinha AK, Davis EA. Type 2 diabetes in indigenous Australian children and adolescents. J Paediatr Child Health. 2010; 46, 487–490.
- 40. Minges KE, Zimmet P, Magliano DJ, *et al.* Diabetes prevalence and determinants in Indigenous Australian populations: a systematic review. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract.* 2011; 93, 139–149.
- Young TK, Schraer CD, Shubnikoff EV, Szathmary EJ, Nikitin YP. Prevalence of diagnosed diabetes in circumpolar indigenous populations. *Int J Epidemiol.* 1992; 21, 730–736.
- Young TK, Dean HJ, Flett B, Wood-Steiman P. Childhood obesity in a population at high risk for type 2 diabetes. J Pediatr. 2000; 136, 365–369.
- Katzmarzyk PT. Obesity and physical activity among Aboriginal Canadians. Obesity (Silver Spring). 2008; 16, 184–190.
- 44. Liburd LC, Vinicor F. Rethinking diabetes prevention and control in racial and ethnic communities. *J Public Health Manag Pract.* 2003; Suppl: S74–S79.
- 45. King M, Smith A, Gracey M. Indigenous health part 2: the underlying causes of the health gap. *Lancet*. 2009; 374, 76–85.
- Gracey M, King M. Indigenous health part 1: determinants and disease patterns. Lancet. 2009; 374, 65–75.
- 47. Canada TaRCo. Honouring the truth, reconciling for the future: library and archives. Canada Cataloguing in Publication, 2015.
- Zimmet P, Alberti KG, Shaw J. Global and societal implications of the diabetes epidemic. *Nature*. 2001; 414, 782–787.
- 49. Sinclair R. Identities lost and found: lessons from the sixties scoop. *The First Peoples Child Fam Rev.* 2007; 3, 65–82.
- Aiken CE, Ozanne SE. Transgenerational developmental programming. Hum Reprod Update. 2014; 20, 63–75.
- 51. Martin-Gronert MS, Ozanne SE. Mechanisms underlying the developmental origins of disease. *Rev Endocr Metab Disord*. 2012; 13, 85–92.
- 52. Ozanne SE, Constancia M. Mechanisms of disease: the developmental origins of disease and the role of the epigenotype. *Nat Clin Pract Endocrinol Metab.* 2007; 3, 539–546.
- 53. Cottrell EC, Ozanne SE. Developmental programming of energy balance and the metabolic syndrome. *Proc Nutr Soc.* 2007; 66, 198–206.
- 54. Gabory A, Attig L, Junien C. Developmental programming and epigenetics. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 2011; 94(6 Suppl), 19438–1952SS.
- 55. Martino D, Prescott S. Epigenetics and prenatal influences on asthma and allergic airways disease. *Chest.* 2011; 139, 640–647.
- Groom A, Elliott HR, Embleton ND, Relton CL. Epigenetics and child health: basic principles. Arch Dis Child. 2011; 96, 863–869.
- Low FM, Gluckman PD, Hanson MA. Developmental plasticity and epigenetic mechanisms underpinning metabolic and cardiovascular diseases. *Epigenomics*. 2011; 3, 279–294.
- 58. Dennis C. Epigenetics and disease: altered states. *Nature*. 2003; 421, 686–688.
- Houde AA, Legare C, Hould FS, et al. Cross-tissue comparisons of leptin and adiponectin: DNA methylation profiles. Adipocyte. 2014; 3, 132–140.
- Ruchat SM, Hivert MF, Bouchard L. Epigenetic programming of obesity and diabetes by in utero exposure to gestational diabetes mellitus. *Nutr Rev.* 2013; 71(Suppl 1), S88–S94.
- Hivert MF, Vassy JL, Meigs JB. Susceptibility to type 2 diabetes mellitus —from genes to prevention. *Nat Rev Endocrinol.* 2014; 10, 198–205.
- 62. Gluckman PD, Hanson MA, Low FM. The role of developmental plasticity and epigenetics in human health. *Birth Defects Res C Embryo Today.* 2011; 93, 12–18.
- 63. Brookes E, Shi Y. Diverse epigenetic mechanisms of human disease. *Annu Rev Genet.* 2014; 48, 237–268.
- 64. Weaver IC, Cervoni N, Champagne FA, et al. Epigenetic programming by maternal behavior. *Nat Neurosci.* 2004; 7, 847–854.

- Turecki G, Meaney MJ. Effects of the social environment and stress on glucocorticoid receptor gene methylation: a systematic review. *Biol Psychiatry*. 2016; 79, 87–96.
- 66. Bagot RC, Zhang TY, Wen X, *et al.* Variations in postnatal maternal care and the epigenetic regulation of metabotropic glutamate receptor 1 expression and hippocampal function in the rat. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S* A. 2012; 109(Suppl 2), 17200–17207.
- 67. Hatala AR, Desjardins M, Bombay A. Reframing narratives of aboriginal health inequity: exploring cree elder resilience and well-being in contexts of historical trauma. *Qual Health Res.* 2016; 26, 1911–1927.
- Bombay A, Matheson K, Anisman H. The intergenerational effects of Indian residential schools: implications for the concept of historical trauma. *Transcult Psychiatry*. 2014; 51, 320–338.
- Mosby I GT. 'Hunger was never absent': How residential school diets shaped current patterns of diabetes among Indigenous peoples in Canada. CMAJ. 2017; 189, 1043–E5.
- Lindstrom G, Choate PW. Nistawatsiman: rethinking assessment of aboriginal parents for child welfare following the truth and reconciliation commission. *The First Peoples Child Fam Rev.* 2016; 11, 45–57.
- Heckman JJ. Skill formation and the economics of investing in disadvantaged children. *Science*. 2006; 312, 1900–1902.
- Gottlieb G, Blair C. How early experience matters in intellectual development in the case of poverty. *Prev Sci: The Official J Soc Prev Res.* 2004; 5, 245–252.
- Maggi S, Irwin LJ, Siddiqi A, Hertzman C. The social determinants of early child development: an overview. J Paediatr Child Health. 2010; 46, 627–635.
- Hertzman C, Wiens M. Child development and long-term outcomes: a population health perspective and summary of successful interventions. *Soc Sci Med.* 1996; 43, 1083–1095.
- Black MM, Walker SP, Fernald LCH, et al. Early childhood development coming of age: science through the life course. Lancet. 2017; 389, 77–90.
- Daelmans B, Darmstadt GL, Lombardi J, et al. Early childhood development: the foundation of sustainable development. Lancet. 2017; 389, 9–11.
- 77. Neuman MJ, Devercelli AE. What matters most for early childhood. Development: A Framework Paper. 2013.
- Giugliani ER, Horta BL, Loret de Mola C, Lisboa BO, Victora CG. Effect of breastfeeding promotion interventions on child growth: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Acta Paediatr.* 2015; 104, 20–29.
- Martens PJ, Shafer LA, Dean HJ, *et al.* Breastfeeding initiation associated with reduced incidence of diabetes in mothers and offspring. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2016; 128, 1095–1104.
- Halipchuk J, Temple B, Dart A, Martin D, Sellers EAC. Prenatal, obstetric and perinatal factors associated with the development of childhood-onset type 2 diabetes. *Can J Diabetes*. 2018; 42, 71–77.
- Gunderson EP, Hurston SR, Ning X, et al. Lactation and progression to type 2 diabetes mellitus after gestational diabetes mellitus: a prospective cohort study. Ann Intern Med. 2015; 163, 889–898.
- 82. Ziegler AG, Wallner M, Kaiser I, *et al.* Long-term protective effect of lactation on the development of type 2 diabetes in women with recent gestational diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes.* 2012; 61, 3167–3171.
- Young TK, Martens PJ, Taback SP, et al. Type 2 diabetes mellitus in children: prenatal and early infancy risk factors among native Canadians. Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med. 2002; 156, 651–655.
- Bartick M, Reinhold A. The burden of suboptimal breastfeeding in the United States: a pediatric cost analysis. *Pediatrics*. 2010; 125, e1048– e1056.
- Chamberlain CR, Wilson AN, Amir LH, *et al.* Low rates of predominant breastfeeding in hospital after gestational diabetes, particularly among Indigenous women in Australia. *Aust N Z J Public Health.* 2017; 41, 144– 150.
- Dodgson JE, Duckett L, Garwick A, Graham BL. An ecological perspective of breastfeeding in an indigenous community. J Nurs Scholarsh. 2002; 34, 235–241.
- Ashman AM, Brown LJ, Collins CE, Rollo ME, Rae KM. Factors associated with effective nutrition interventions for pregnant indigenous women: a systematic review. J Acad Nutr Diet. 2017; 117, 1222–1253 e2.

- Cidro J, Zahayko L, Lawrence HP, Folster S, McGregor M, McKay K. Breast feeding practices as cultural interventions for early childhood caries in Cree communities. *BMC Oral Health.* 2015; 15, 49.
- Feijen-de Jong EI, Jansen DE, Baarveld F, et al. Determinants of late and/or inadequate use of prenatal healthcare in high-income countries: a systematic review. Eur J Public Health. 2012; 22, 904–913.
- Heaman MI, Sword W, Elliott L, et al. Barriers and facilitators related to use of prenatal care by inner-city women: perceptions of health care providers. BMC Pregnancy Childbirth. 2015; 15, 2.
- Heaman MI, Moffatt M, Elliott L, *et al.* Barriers, motivators and facilitators related to prenatal care utilization among inner-city women in Winnipeg, Canada: a case-control study. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth*. 2014; 14, 227.
- Barros AJ, Ronsmans C, Axelson H, et al. Equity in maternal, newborn, and child health interventions in Countdown to 2015: a retrospective review of survey data from 54 countries. Lancet. 2012; 379, 1225–1233.
- 93. Carter EB, Temming LA, Akin J, *et al.* Group prenatal care compared with traditional prenatal care: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2016; 128, 551–561.
- 94. Downe S, Finlayson K, Tunçalp Ö, Metin Gülmezoglu A. What matters to women: a systematic scoping review to identify the processes and outcomes of antenatal care provision that are important to healthy pregnant women. *BJOG*. 2016; 123, 529–539.
- Mazzoni SE, Carter EB. Group prenatal care. Am J Obstet Gynecol. 2017; 216, 552–556.
- 96. Renfrew MJ, McFadden A, Bastos MH, *et al.* Midwifery and quality care: findings from a new evidence-informed framework for maternal and newborn care. *Lancet.* 2014; 384, 1129–1145.
- 97. Wilson A, Gallos ID, Plana N, et al. Effectiveness of strategies incorporating training and support of traditional birth attendants on perinatal and maternal mortality: meta-analysis. BMJ. 2011; 343, d7102.
- Carlo WA, Goudar SS, Jehan I, et al. Newborn-care training and perinatal mortality in developing countries. N Engl J Med. 2010; 362, 614–623.
- 99. Jokhio AH, Winter HR, Cheng KK. An intervention involving traditional birth attendants and perinatal and maternal mortality in Pakistan. *N Engl J Med.* 2005; 352, 2091–2099.
- Heaman MI, Sword W, Elliott L, *et al.* Perceptions of barriers, facilitators and motivators related to use of prenatal care: a qualitative descriptive study of inner-city women in Winnipeg, Canada. *SAGE Open Med.* 2015; 3, 2050312115621314.
- Heckman JJ, Garcia JL. Social policy: targeting programs effectively. Nat Hum Behav. 2017; 19, 1–4.
- 102. Conti G, Heckman JJ. The developmental approach to child and adult health. *Pediatrics.* 2013; 131(Suppl 2), S133–S141.
- Black MM, Hurley KM. Early child development programmes: further evidence for action. *Lancet Glob Health*. 2016; 4, e505–e506.
- 104. http://www.greatkidsinc.org GGK.
- 105. LeCroy C, Davis MF. Randomized trial of healthy families Arizona. Quantitative and qualitative outcomes. *Res Soc Work Pract.* 2017; 27, 747–757.
- 106. Ferguson J, Vanderpool RC. Impact of a Kentucky maternal, infant, and early childhood home-visitation program on parental risk factors. *J Child Fam Stud.* 2013; 22, 551–558.
- 107. Canada HCo. Understanding and improving aboriginal maternal and child health in Canada, 2011.
- 108. Wright AL. Role of the nurse in returning birth to the North. Rural Remote Health. 2015; 15, 3109.
- 109. Society of O, Gynaecologists of C. SOGC policy statement. No. 251, December 2010. Returning birth to aboriginal, rural, and remote communities. J Obstet Gynaecol Can. 2010; 32, 1186–1188.
- 110. Chamberlain M, Barclay K. Psychosocial costs of transferring indigenous women from their community for birth. *Midwifery*. 2000; 16, 116–122.
- 111. Sethi A. Domestic sex trafficking of aboriginal girls in Canada: issues and implications. *First Peoples Child Fam Rev.* 2007; 3, 57–71.
- 112. Samson S. Indigenous doulas to give spiritual, traditional support throughout province. CBC. 2016. Retrieved from https://www.cbc.ca/ news/canada/manitoba/indigenous-doulas-to-give-spiritual-traditionalsupport-throughout-province-1.3487966.

- 113. Nanaadawawegimeg. Maternal Child Health Strengthening Families Program. 2017.
- 114. (ADAC). ADAC. Aboriginal doulas for aboriginal women: an action plan for bringing traditional birthing support practices back into the hands of women: final report, 2010.
- 115. Darwin Z, Green J, McLeish J, Willmot H, Spiby H. Evaluation of trained volunteer doula services for disadvantaged women in five areas in England: women's experiences. *Health Soc Care Commun.* 2017; 25, 466– 447.
- 116. Sword W, Heaman MI, Brooks S, *et al.* Women's and care providers' perspectives of quality prenatal care: a qualitative descriptive study. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2012; 12, 29.
- 117. Wong ST, Korenbrot CC, Stewart AL. Consumer assessment of the quality of interpersonal processes of prenatal care among ethnically diverse low-income women: development of a new measure. *Womens Health Issues.* 2004; 14, 118–129.
- 118. Simonet F, Wilkins R, Labranche E, *et al.* Primary birthing attendants and birth outcomes in remote Inuit communities—a natural 'experiment' in Nunavik, Canada. *J Epidemiol Community Health.* 2009; 63, 546–551.
- 119. Douglas VK. The Inuulitsivik Maternities: culturally appropriate midwifery and epistemological accommodation. *Nurs Inq.* 2010; 17, 111–117.
- Van Wagner V, Osepchook C, Harney E, Crosbie C, Tulugak M. Remote midwifery in Nunavik, Quebec, Canada: outcomes of perinatal care for the Inuulitsivik health centre, 2000-2007. *Birth*. 2012; 39, 230–237.