

## Early stress, vagal development, and well-being

1     **The longitudinal negative impact of early stressful events on emotional and physical well-**  
2                                   **being: The buffering role of cardiac vagal development.**

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### 25 **Abstract**

26 Early stressful events negatively affect emotional and physical well-being. Cardiac vagal tone  
27 (CVT), which is associated with better emotional and physical well-being, have also been shown to  
28 increase gradually in early childhood. Nonetheless, children's CVT developmental trajectories are  
29 greatly variable, such that CVT can increase or decrease across the years. The present study  
30 examines the longitudinal effects of early stressful events and the role of 4-years CVT developmental  
31 trajectory on children's emotional and physical well-being.

32 Forty-two 4-year-old children were enrolled in the study. Number of stressful events and  
33 resting electrocardiogram (ECG) were collected at T1. ECG was registered again after one (T2), two  
34 (T3) and three (T4) years. Also, children's emotional and physical well-being were assessed at T4.  
35 CVT development was calculated as the angular coefficient, reflecting the developmental trajectory  
36 of CVT across the four timepoints.

37 Results showed that higher numbers of experienced stressful events (T1) predicted poorer  
38 emotional and physical well-being after 4 years (T4). The interaction between the number of  
39 stressful events and CVT development emerged on physical well-being. Early stressful events  
40 negatively affect long-term children's emotional and physical well-being while a positive CVT  
41 development seems to mitigate the negative effects of early stressful events on physical well-being.

42

### 43 **Keywords**

44 Early stressful events, Heart Rate Variability, Cardiac vagal tone, Emotional Well-being, Physical  
45 Well-being

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### 47 Introduction

48 Early stressful events have been shown to have a lifelong cost on child development, directly  
49 influencing learning abilities, behaviours and both physical and emotional health (Flaherty et al.,  
50 2006; Shonkoff et al., 2012). Several longitudinal studies have documented the consequences of early  
51 stressful events on educational achievement, economic productivity, health status and longevity  
52 (Felitti et al., 2019; Flaherty et al., 2006, 2009; Koenen et al., 2007). Physiologic responses to stress  
53 include the activation of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenocortical axis and the sympathetic-  
54 adrenomedullary system, that determines a rise in the levels of corticotropin-releasing hormone,  
55 cortisol, norepinephrine and adrenaline. While the stress response is protective and essential for  
56 survival, excessive or prolonged activation of these biological systems can be quite harmful  
57 (McEwen & Seeman, 1999) and the dysregulation of this network may affect multiple organs. The  
58 negative impact of stressful events on children's emotional and physical well-being can be  
59 modulated by adverse and protective factors (McEwen, 2006; Shonkoff et al., 2012). Protective  
60 factors are of considerable relevance since they can temper the negative effects of stressful events.  
61 For example, given a range of stressful events that can differ according to duration and magnitude,  
62 such as the first day of school, an illness or parents' divorce, the presence of a protective factor, such  
63 as supportive adults will buffer the impact of the experienced situations (Shonkoff et al., 2012).  
64 Protective factors include environmental factors as well as biological factors such as responses of the  
65 physiological systems. Among physiological indexes, cardiac vagal tone (CVT), measured through  
66 the root mean square of the successive differences between adjacent heartbeats (RMSSD), has been  
67 shown to reflect the activity of the parasympathetic vagus nerve on the sinoatrial node (Berntson et  
68 al., 1997; Malik et al., 1996). CVT is a reliable cardiac measure reflecting the ability to deal with  
69 stressful situations (Kim et al., 2018; Thayer et al., 2012) and could represent a physiological  
70 protective factor in the relationship between early stressful events and the individual's well-being

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71 (Beauchaine & Thayer, 2015). CVT has been associated with the ability to cope with stressful  
72 situations in both adults and children (Kim et al., 2018; Thayer et al., 2012). In response to stressful  
73 stimuli, a transient reduction in CVT has been consistently reported in adults (Kim et al., 2018), in  
74 toddlers (Calkins & Johnson, 1998) and in preschool children (Calkins & Dedmon, 2000; Scrimin,  
75 Patron, et al., 2019). While CVT has been shown to be a good indicator of the ability to self-regulate  
76 in response to stressful situations, high CVT levels have been correlated with increased positive  
77 emotions (Kok & Fredrickson, 2010; Oveis et al., 2009) and emotional well-being, while reduced  
78 CVT is associated with greater psychopathology (Beauchaine & Thayer, 2015) symptoms of both  
79 internalizing and externalizing psychopathology (Beauchaine, 2015) and depression (Rottenberg et  
80 al., 2007). Also, high CVT has been related to better physical health in children (Gutin et al., 2005)  
81 and well-being in adults (Kemp & Quintana, 2013), while lower CVT has been associated with  
82 different negative outcomes such as anger, anxiety and sadness in young children (Michels et al.,  
83 2013), and chronic fatigue and asthma in adolescents (Rimes et al., 2017). Intriguingly, CVT  
84 modification during laboratory stress, together with other psychophysiological responses, have been  
85 shown to moderate the longitudinal effects of marital conflict on psychological and behavioral  
86 maladjustment among adolescents (Philbrook et al., 2018). It has to be noted that during child  
87 development sympathetic and parasympathetic branches sustain a maturation process, similar to  
88 several other biological systems, that lay the foundation for self-regulation abilities (Calkins &  
89 Keane, 2004). While there is a growing body of literature on how CVT is related to child adaptation  
90 and self-regulation, very few longitudinal investigations have focused on CVT development showing  
91 that CVT increases gradually in early childhood (up to 7 years of age; Alkon et al., 2003; Calkins and  
92 Keane, 2004; Marshall and Stevenson-Hinde, 1998), and level off by late childhood or adolescence  
93 (El-Sheikh, 2005; Hinnant et al., 2011). Most importantly, a great variability has been reported in  
94 children's CVT developmental trajectories, with CVT increasing in some children while decreasing

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95 in others across the years (Hinnant et al., 2011). No study to date focused on CVT development as a  
96 protective factor for early stressful events in child adjustment. In fact, while early stressful events can  
97 have a dangerously negative effect on both emotional and physical well-being, it could be  
98 hypothesized that appropriate maturation of the ANS, as reflected by a positive CVT development  
99 during early childhood, could buffer the effects of stress, reducing the risk for future poor emotional  
100 and/or physical health.

101 The present study investigates the effects of early stressful events (experienced before  
102 entering the second year of pre-school) and the moderating role of CVT development across four  
103 years on children's emotional and physical well-being. We expect a higher number of early stressful  
104 events to predict later worse emotional and physical well-being. Here it was hypothesized that a  
105 positive CVT development across the 4 years could mitigate the effects of early stressors on  
106 emotional and physical well-being, acting as a protective factor especially in those children who  
107 experienced a higher number of negative events.

108

## 109 Method

### 110 Participants

111 Forty-two children (22 boys, 52%) attending pre-school were enrolled in the study. Children  
112 had a mean age of 4.74 years ( $56.88 \pm 6.71$  months). All children were attending public pre-schools  
113 in the northeast of Italy and were from low- to middle-class families. Descriptive data have been  
114 reported in Table 1. Before the beginning of data collection, trained researchers spent three months  
115 (at the beginning of the school year) participating in classroom activities and organizing games with  
116 children in order to familiarize and obtain pre-schoolers' total trust. Subsequently, children were  
117 tested individually during 4 separate sessions.

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118 Parental written permission and children’s verbal assent were required for participation; in  
119 addition, written informed consent was obtained from the school principal and from the Ethical  
120 Committee of the Psychology section of the University of Padova,” (protocol number:  
121 89ADC65ECC5E40203FF0079D9D6CDB53). Children were given the opportunity to decline  
122 participation at any time between the four sessions as well as during every single session. In the  
123 present study, we report on the data collected in four longitudinal assessment sessions, which took  
124 place between September 2015 and December 2018.

125 “Table 1 here”

### 126 Procedure

127 Data reported in this study were collected as part of a larger study aimed at investigating the  
128 links between self-regulation and psychological functioning in primary school students (Scrimin et  
129 al., 2017; Scrimin, Moscardino, et al., 2019; Scrimin, Patron, et al., 2019). In the present study, we  
130 report on the data collected in four of the six sessions, which took place between September 2015  
131 and December 2018. In order to establish a friendly relationship with children, researchers spent  
132 three months by weekly joining the classroom and interacting with children, organizing several short  
133 lessons and games. This familiarization phase was repeated each year before each data collection.  
134 The assessment took place at four different time points (see Figure 1) across 4 years and always at  
135 the beginning of each academic year (October-November). Specifically, children were assessed  
136 during 1) the second year of pre-school (T1); 2) the third year of pre-school (T2); 3) the first year of  
137 primary school (T3), and 4) the second year of primary school (T4). At each assessment session,  
138 children were invited to follow the researcher, that they knew well, in a schoolroom set up for the  
139 purpose of the study. Here, after a short warm-up talk, resting electrocardiography (ECG) was  
140 recorded for 4 minutes. All the recordings took place in the morning (between 9 a.m. and 12 p.m.)  
141 in the same quiet room of the school’s building. After attaching the sensors, the researcher invited

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142 the child to sit comfortably and rest for 15 minutes (adaptation period). Subsequently, children were  
143 asked to watch a relaxing video on the computer screen in front of them. Moreover, before the first  
144 assessment session (T1), parents were interviewed in order to collect sociodemographic information  
145 and number of stressful events experienced by the child and family. Whereas, during the last  
146 assessment session (T4) children were interviewed on their self-reported physical and emotional  
147 well-being. This interview took place immediately after the ECG recording during the same session.  
148 It is important to note that all children were happy to take part in the study and joined the  
149 researchers for all the assessment sessions.

150

### **151 Measures**

#### **152 Sociodemographic information, and the number of stressful events**

153 Caregivers were asked to provide sociodemographic information, including socioeconomic  
154 status (SES), employment status of both parents, educational level, number of siblings, target child's  
155 date of birth, weight and gestational age at birth, as well as relevant health-related issues. Then, they  
156 were asked to complete a checklist containing a number of stressful events that a family might  
157 experience (Scrimin et al., 2018) such as relocation, divorce, loss of a family member, accident of a  
158 family member or close friend, severe illness, arguments between parents, arguments with children,  
159 economic problems, new person lives in the family. Parents were asked to report whether each event  
160 had occurred, and at what age of the child it took place. A total stressful events score was then  
161 computed by summing up all the early stressful events.

162

#### **163 Child well-being**

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164           The Child Health and Illness Profile – Child Edition (CHIP–CE) (Riley et al., 2004) is a 45-  
165 item questionnaire that can be administered as an interview to the child. It is designed to evaluate  
166 the well-being of children ages 6 through 11 years and examines aspects of health and well-being  
167 that can be influenced by health systems, school systems, and health promotion efforts. The CHIP–  
168 CE targets health-related quality-of-life aspects that are of special interest to the school-aged group.  
169 In the present study, the Emotional and Physical comfort subscales were employed (experience of  
170 emotional and physical symptoms and observed activity limitations). Frequency of symptoms in the  
171 past four weeks was assessed using a 5-point Likert scale (see appendix in the Supplementary  
172 material). The measure has excellent psychometric properties (Riley et al., 2004). In the present  
173 study, both subscales had good internal consistency (Cronbach Alphas range .79 to .81).

174

## **175 Electrophysiological data recording and processing**

176           Electrocardiogram (ECG) was recorded by means of a POLAR sensor placed on the child's  
177 thorax using a multimodality physiological monitoring device that encodes biological signals in real-  
178 time (ProComp Infiniti; Thought Technology, Montreal, Canada). The ECG signal was recorded  
179 continuously via a 12-bit analogue-to-digital converter with a sampling rate of 256 Hz and stored  
180 sequentially for analysis. The raw ECG signal was then exported in Kubios HRV Analysis Software  
181 2.2 (The Biomedical Signal Analysis Group, Department of Applied Physics, University of Kuopio,  
182 Finland) to estimate the occurrence of each heartbeat and derive the series of inter-beat intervals  
183 (IBIs), calculated as the difference in msec between successive R-waves. First, the ECG signal was  
184 visually inspected, and artefacts were corrected by means of a piecewise cubic splines interpolation  
185 method that generates values for missing or corrupted values into the IBIs series. Then, average  
186 resting HR was calculated, as well as the square root of the mean squared differences of successive

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187 NN intervals (RMSSD)<sup>1</sup>. While HR is affected by both the sympathetic and parasympathetic  
188 branches of the autonomic nervous system, RMSSD is sensitive to short-term heart period  
189 fluctuations (Malik et al., 1996) thus, it is thought to specifically reflect parasympathetic activity  
190 through the influence of the vagus nerve on the sinoatrial node (Berntson et al., 1997; Malik et al.,  
191 1996) independently of respiratory interferences (Hill et al., 2009). For a recent comprehensive  
192 review regarding the interpretation, adjustment, and reporting of HRV metrics, see (de Geus et al.,  
193 2019).

194 All physiological signals were recorded through a FlexComp Infiniti™ encoder (Thought  
195 Technology Ltd, Montreal, Canada) which is a computerized recording system approved by the U.S.  
196 Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and considered a gold standard measurement system  
197 (Menghini et al., 2019).

198

### 199 Data reduction and statistical analysis

200 Cardiac vagal tone (CVT) development index was calculated as the angular coefficient in  
201 RMSSD from the first to the fourth evaluation, that reflects the development trajectory across the  
202 four timepoints (see Figure 1). To determine whether the number of stressful events at T1  
203 influenced emotional and/or physical well-being, a median split procedure was applied to  
204 individuate participants who experienced a high vs low number of early stressful events. To verify  
205 whether physical and emotional well-being at T4 were differently predicted by early stressful events  
206 at T1, by CVT development across the 4 years or by their interaction, two hierarchical linear

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<sup>1</sup> RMSSD was obtained according to the formula (Malik et al., 1996):

$$RMSSD = \sqrt{\frac{1}{1-N} \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} (RR_{i+1} - RR_i)^2}$$

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207 regressions were run with physical and emotional well-being as the dependent variable, respectively,  
208 and high vs low number of stressful events at T1, vagal growth index and their interaction as  
209 predictors. All analyses were performed using R (version 3.6.1, R Development Core and Team,  
210 2011). A  $p$ -value  $< .05$  was considered statistically significant.

211

### 212 Results

213 With respect to the number of stressful events, a mean number of 3.52 (SD= 1.97, range =  
214 1-8) stressful events were reported by parents before the recording of the first year (T1). The median  
215 corresponded to 3 stressful events at T1, therefore, after the median split procedure 19 children  
216 experienced a high number of stressful events ( $> 3$ ) and 23 a low number of stressful events ( $\leq 3$ ).

217 The first step of the hierarchical linear regression on emotional well-being showed that a  
218 high number of stressful events at T1 significantly predicted lower reported emotional well-being at  
219 T4 ( $\beta = -0.55, p = .017$ ) while vagal growth did not predict subsequent emotional well-being ( $p =$   
220  $.879$ ; see Table 2 and see Figure 2a). In the second step of the hierarchical linear regression the  
221 number of stressful events ( $p = .052$ ) did not significantly predict emotional well-being, and neither  
222 did vagal growth and the interaction between the number of stressful events and vagal growth (all  $p$ 's  
223  $> .475$ ).

224 The first step of the hierarchical linear regression on physical well-being showed that a high  
225 number of stressful events at T1 significantly predicted lower reported physical well-being at T4 ( $\beta$   
226  $= -0.87, p < .001$ ) while vagal growth did not predict subsequent physical well-being ( $p = .397$ ; see  
227 Table 3). Therefore, a high number of stressful events during the first five years of the child was  
228 associated with lower reported physical well-being four years later (when the children are around age  
229 9). A significant interaction between the number of stressful events at T1 and vagal growth emerged  
230 ( $\beta = 0.05, p = .006$ ). Therefore, those children who suffered a lower number of stressful events

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231 reported high physical well-being independent of the vagal growth. On the contrary, children who  
232 suffered a higher number of stressful events showed a relation between vagal growth index and  
233 physical well-being, such that those who had a higher index of vagal growth reported a good level of  
234 physical well-being, while children with a high number of stressful events at T1 and low vagal  
235 growth reported the lowest level of physical well-being at T4 (see Figure 2b).

236 “Table 2 here”

237 “Table 3 here”

238

## 239 Discussion

240 The main aim of the present longitudinal study was to evaluate the role of cardiac vagal tone  
241 development in modulating the relationship between early stressful events and children’s emotional  
242 and physical well-being. Most importantly, the multiple measures of CVT in a critical age period,  
243 characterized by the transition from pre-school to primary school, allowed us to study the cardiac  
244 vagal development trajectory as well as whether it could act as a positive moderator buffering the  
245 effect of early stressful events on children’s well-being.

246 The longitudinal data on CVT showed a pattern characterized by a gradual and steady  
247 increase in CVT together with a reduction in HR, in line with previous studies (Alkon et al., 2003;  
248 Calkins & Keane, 2004; Marshall & Stevenson-Hinde, 1998). This trajectory of cardiac vagal  
249 development may reflect the physiological maturation process of the parasympathetic nervous  
250 system (Calkins & Keane, 2004; Porges et al., 1996).

251 As expected, results showed that children who experienced a higher number of early  
252 stressful events (before entering the second year of pre-school) reported significantly lower  
253 emotional and physical well-being 4 years later. However, despite the negative direct link between  
254 early stressful events and later emotional well-being, no direct association emerged with CVT

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255 development nor interaction between stressful events and CVT development. Regarding physical  
256 well-being, a direct negative association with early stressful events was found; in addition, this  
257 relation was also moderated by CVT development. Specifically, while children who experienced a  
258 low number of stressful events reported higher physical well-being independently of CVT  
259 development, in children who experienced a higher number of early stressful events CVT  
260 development acted as a protective factor. Children that showed an improvement in CVT across the  
261 years (i.e., positive CVT development) reported higher physical well-being while children who show  
262 no improvement or a reduction in CVT across the years showed the lowest levels of reported  
263 physical well-being.

264 As hypothesized, the present results bolster the predominant negative role of early stressful  
265 events on emotional well-being (Flaherty et al., 2006, 2009). On the contrary, the expected  
266 protective role of CVT development in buffering the effects of early stressful events on children's  
267 emotional well-being is not supported. Previous studies have shown how cardiac vagal tone is widely  
268 associated with emotional reactivity and regulation in children (Appelhans & Luecken, 2006; Fabes  
269 et al., 1994). It has to be noted that while children in the first years of primary school can reliably  
270 report on their well-being (Riley, 2004; Varni et al., 2007) they can have difficulties in focusing and  
271 reporting their own emotional states (Harris, 1989) and tend to express their discomfort more in  
272 terms of physical symptoms. This could help to better understand why, in the present study, no  
273 moderation of cardiac vagal development emerged between early stressful events and emotional  
274 well-being.

275 As hypothesized, the negative effect of early stressful events on physical well-being was  
276 mitigated by a positive development trajectory in CVT across 4 years. Specifically, among those  
277 children who experienced a higher number of early stressful events, a positive CVT development  
278 trajectory (reflecting an increase in CVT across four years) was associated with better physical well-

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279 being, while a negative or flat CVT development trajectory (reflecting a reduction or no  
280 improvement in CVT across four years) was linked to the lowest physical well-being. The  
281 maturation of different biological systems, including the parasympathetic branch of the autonomic  
282 nervous system (indexed by CVT), sets the basis for self-regulation abilities. Individual differences in  
283 the maturation of the parasympathetic system might modulate later self-regulation abilities (Calkins  
284 & Keane, 2004; Porges et al., 1994). The mechanism by which a positive CVT development  
285 modulates the effect of early stressful events on perceived physical wellbeing could be related to a  
286 better ability to face stressful events and cope with them (Fabes et al., 1994) and to adapt  
287 constructively to stressful environments (Fox, 1989).

288 To date, the present study is the first longitudinal study to show the role of cardiac vagal  
289 developmental trajectory in mitigating the negative effects of early stressful events on physical well-  
290 being in children. The present study has limitations that must be acknowledged. First, the sample  
291 size is limited and hence is difficult to generalize the findings. Second, children's emotional and  
292 physical well-being were not assessed at T1, making it impossible to evaluate changes in children's  
293 perceived emotional and physical well-being across evaluations. Third, similarly the occurrence of  
294 successive stressful events during T2, T3 and T4 were not assessed, therefore possible effects of  
295 successive stressful events on emotional and physical well-being cannot be evaluated. Fourth, only  
296 CVT during resting conditions was recorded in the present study. Some authors proposed that  
297 cardiac vagal response to a stressful situation (vagal withdrawal) may be more directly related to self-  
298 regulation abilities (Calkins & Keane, 2004). Nonetheless, resting CVT has been consistently  
299 associated with better emotion regulation and physical well-being (Kemp & Quintana, 2013; Thayer  
300 et al., 2010) as well as self-regulation (Koenig et al., 2016; Kok & Fredrickson, 2010).

301 Despite these limitations, taken together the present results support the hypothesis that early  
302 stressful events have a high impact on long term emotional and physical children's well-being and

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303 that cardiac vagal development may act as a protective mechanism that mitigates the negative effects  
304 of early stressful events on physical well-being. The identification of modifiable protective factors  
305 could help the recognition and shaping of intervention strategies for children who experienced early  
306 stressful events. To date, early childhood policy focuses mainly on educational objectives (Shonkoff  
307 et al., 2012), nonetheless, there is growing evidence for interventions to reduce negative outcomes  
308 and to prepare children to cope with stressful situations to enhance emotional and physical health  
309 and well-being, which would generate even larger returns to all of society. For example, CVT can be  
310 boosted through early psychophysiological interventions such as HRV biofeedback (Gevirtz, 2013)  
311 targeting CVT directly, which have been shown to have positive effects in children with conduct,  
312 anxious and somatoform disorders (Pop-Jordanova & Nada, 2009).

313

314

### **315 Data Availability Statement**

316 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon  
317 reasonable request.

318

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479 **Table 1** Sociodemographic variables

	<b>N=42</b>
	<b>M (SD)</b>
<b>Age (months)</b>	56.88 (6.71)
<b>Males (N, %)</b>	22 (52)
<b>Immigrants (N, %)</b>	21 (50)
<b>Socioeconomic Status (N, %)</b>	
<b>Low</b>	15 (36)
<b>Medium</b>	11 (26)
<b>High</b>	16 (38)

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482 **Table 2** Regression model on Emotional Well-being

<b>Predictors of Emotional Well-being</b>						
<b>Block 1</b>						
<b>Predictors</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>95% C.I.</b>		<b>t</b>	<b>p</b>
			<b>Lower</b>	<b>Upper</b>		
<b>Intercept</b>	4.23	0.18	3.86	4.60	23.10	< .001
<b>Stressful events (High-Low) (T1)</b>	-0.55	0.22	-0.99	-0.11	-2.50	0.017
<b>CVT development</b>	0.00	0.01	-0.02	0.02	0.15	0.879
<b>Block 2</b>						
<b>Predictors</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>95% C.I.</b>		<b>t</b>	<b>p</b>
			<b>Lower</b>	<b>Upper</b>		
<b>Intercept</b>	4.29	0.21	3.87	4.71	20.69	< .001
<b>Stressful events (High-Low) (T1)</b>	-0.78	0.39	-1.56	0.01	-2.01	0.052
<b>CVT development</b>	-0.005	0.01	-0.03	0.02	-0.34	0.737
<b>Stressful events × CVT development</b>	0.02	0.02	-0.03	0.06	0.72	0.475

483 *Note:* T1 = first evaluation during the second year of pre-school; CVT= cardiac vagal tone.

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485 **Table 3** Regression model on Physical Well-being

<b>Predictors of Physical Well-being</b>						
<b>Block 1</b>						
<b>Predictors</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>95% C.I.</b>		<b>t</b>	<b>p</b>
			<b>Lower</b>	<b>Upper</b>		
<b>Intercept</b>	4.33	0.15	4.03	4.64	28.51	< .001
<b>Stressful events (High-Low) (T1)</b>	-0.87	0.18	-1.24	-0.51	-4.80	< .001
<b>CVT development</b>	0.01	0.01	-0.01	0.03	0.86	0.397
<b>Block 2</b>						
<b>Predictors</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>95% C.I.</b>		<b>t</b>	<b>p</b>
			<b>Lower</b>	<b>Upper</b>		
<b>Intercept</b>	4.54	0.16	4.23	4.86	28.90	< .001
<b>Stressful events (High-Low) (T1)</b>	-1.57	0.29	-2.17	-0.98	-5.35	< .001
<b>CVT development</b>	-0.01	0.01	-0.03	0.01	-1.11	0.275
<b>Stressful events × CVT development</b>	0.05	0.02	0.01	0.08	2.89	0.006

486 *Note:* T1 = first evaluation during the second year of pre-school; CVT= cardiac vagal tone.

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### 488 **Figure legend**

489 **Figure 1.a** Descriptive statistics on HR across the four-time evaluations; **Figure 1.b** Descriptive  
490 statistics on RMSSD across the four evaluations. Each participant is represented by a grey dot, the  
491 violin plots around the dots represent the smoothed data distribution, the black dots represent the  
492 average during each evaluation.; RMSSD = Root Mean Square of the Successive Differences; T1 =  
493 first evaluation during the second year of pre-school; T2 = second evaluation during the third year  
494 of pre-school; T3 = third evaluation during the first year of primary school; T4 =fourth evaluation  
495 during the second year of primary school.

496

497 **Figure 2.a** Effect of the number of early stressful events at T1 on reported emotional well-being at  
498 T4. T1 = first evaluation during the second year of pre-school; T4 =fourth evaluation during the  
499 second year of primary school. **Figure 2.b** Interaction effect of the interaction between the number  
500 of early stressful events at T1 and cardiac vagal tone development across four years in predicting  
501 reported physical well-being at T4. CVT = cardiac vagal tone. T1 = first evaluation during the  
502 second year of pre-school; T4 =fourth evaluation during the second year of primary school. Grey  
503 and black lines represent estimated regression for low and high number of early stressful events  
504 respectively; the grey area represents 95% confidence interval.

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