Anxiety disorders before birth and self-perceived distress during pregnancy: Associations with maternal depression and obstetric, neonatal and early childhood outcomes

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Abstract

Background: Maternal perinatal mental health has been shown to be associated with adverse consequences for the mother and the child. However, studies considering the effect of DSM-IV anxiety disorders beyond maternal self-perceived distress during pregnancy and its timing are lacking.

Aims: To examine the role of maternal anxiety disorders with an onset before birth and self-perceived distress during pregnancy for unfavourable maternal, obstetric, neonatal and childhood outcomes.

Study design: DSM-IV mental disorders and self-perceived distress of 992 mothers as well as obstetric, neonatal and childhood outcomes of their offspring were assessed in a cohort sampled from the community using the Munich-Composite International Diagnostic Interview. Logistic regression analyses revealed associations (odds ratios) between maternal anxiety disorders and self-perceived distress during pregnancy for maternal depression after birth and a range of obstetric, neonatal and childhood psychopathological outcomes.

Results: Lifetime maternal anxiety disorders were related to offspring anxiety disorders, but not to offspring externalizing disorders. Analyses focusing on maternal DSM-IV anxiety disorders before birth yielded associations with incident depression after birth. In addition, self-perceived distress during pregnancy was associated with maternal depression after birth, preterm delivery, caesarean section, separation anxiety disorder, ADHD, and conduct disorder in offspring.

Conclusion: Findings confirm the transmission of anxiety disorders from mother to offspring. Apart from maternal anxiety, self-perceived distress during pregnancy also emerged as a putative risk factor for adverse outcomes. The finding that maternal anxiety disorders before birth yielded less consistent associations, suggests that self-perceived distress during pregnancy might be seen as a putative moderator/mediator in the familial transmission of anxiety.

Keywords: Anxiety disorders, Distress, Pregnancy, Obstetric, Neonate

1. Introduction

Research from the past two decades suggests that maternal anxiety, depression, and prenatal psychological distress are associated with maternal mental disorders after birth, and with adverse obstetric, neonatal, and early childhood psychopathological outcomes [1–8]. However, studies often yielded inconsistent results, due to blending of different conceptualizations of anxiety, depression, and self-perceived distress (e.g., considering broad symptom levels vs. DSM-IV disorders) and ignoring the timing of these conditions (e.g., onset of maternal disorders before or after delivery) [4,9–11]. Studies also vary with regard to outcomes of interest in both mothers and their offspring. Hence, after careful inspection of the literature, we aim to disentangle the association of DSM-IV anxiety disorders before birth and
self-perceived distress during pregnancy with (I) maternal mental disorders after birth, (II) obstetric and neonatal outcomes, and (III) early childhood psychopathology.

1.1. Maternal DSM-IV anxiety disorders and psychological distress during pregnancy and maternal mental disorders after birth

The onset of most DSM-IV anxiety disorders is early in life, typically in childhood or adolescence [12,13]. During fertile age, DSM-IV anxiety disorders are widespread (12-month prevalence in women aged 18–34: 17%, CI: 14%–20%) [14]. Though pregnancy is usually considered as a time of relative mental well-being, the dramatic hormonal alterations during this period may change the vulnerability to mental disorders [15].

Prenatal anxiety was found to be an independent risk factor for postpartum depression [16,17]. In addition, mostly retrospective case reports show an attenuation of prenatal anxiety symptoms during pregnancy and an increased risk for onset or exacerbation of DSM-IV panic disorder, obsessive–compulsive disorder, and posttraumatic stress disorder after delivery [18]. In contrast, a recent population-based study indicated no significant alteration of prevalence rates during perinatal period for a range of DSM-IV anxiety disorders [17].

Various attempts have been made to predict postpartum disorders by using questions about putative risk factors and unfavourable conditions during pregnancy [19], such as poor social support, unwanted pregnancy, and marital conflict/problematic partnership [4,20–22]. Most of them describe adversities contributing to perceived distress in the mother. In our study though none of these assessments were used for logistical reasons. Instead, we only asked for perceived distress during pregnancy as a proxy to indicate increased likelihood for maternal mental disorders after birth [23–25].

1.2. Maternal DSM-IV anxiety disorders and psychological distress during pregnancy and obstetric and neonatal outcomes

Anxiety symptoms during pregnancy and psychological distress have been reported to be associated with preterm delivery (PTD), low birth weight (LBW), obstetric complications, and pain medication under labour [1,4,26]. Notably, PTD and LBW were found to be risk factors for later physical morbidity (diabetes mellitus, heart disease, and hypertonia) [4,27]. However, only few studies systematically evaluated the potential role of manifest maternal DSM-IV anxiety disorders for obstetric and neonatal outcomes apart from perceived psychological distress during pregnancy [1,2]. Posttraumatic stress disorder prior to conception resulted in significantly more pregnancy complications (e.g., preterm contractions and hyperemesis). Antenatal panic disorder was associated with PTD and LBW of the neonate [28–30].

Maternal psychopathology may also increase the risk for intrapartum complications, but studies so far revealed conflicting results [1,2,4].

1.3. Maternal DSM-IV anxiety disorders and psychological distress during pregnancy and early childhood disorders

A range of studies indicated associations between elevated levels of maternal anxiety and psychological distress with early behavioural and emotional problems in offspring. Even after controlling for approved confounders (e.g., nicotine consumption and postpartum depression) externalizing problems such as attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), conduct
disorder (CD), and oppositional defiant disorder (ODD) [3,31–33], but also 
behavioural/emotional problems [34,35] and childhood anxiety [36] were more frequently 
diagnosed in offspring, when mothers were anxious or stressed during pregnancy. Unfortunately, the association with separation anxiety disorder (SAD) has not been 
investigated, yet. These offspring outcomes have also been shown to increase the risk for 
other offspring childhood and adolescent disorders such as anxiety, mood, somatoform, and 
substance use disorders [37–41].

In sum, studies so far suggest that maternal anxiety disorders and psychological distress 
during pregnancy negatively affect maternal as well as offspring outcomes. However, valid 
conclusions from these studies are limited due to differences in the definition and 
operationalization of outcome variables (e.g. confounding of LBW and PTD: many preterm 
infants show also LBW) and inadequate control of covariates (e.g. comorbid depression) [26]. In addition, assessment of DSM-IV disorders is often hampered by the overlap of somatic 
pregnancy-related conditions, perinatal distress, and DSM-IV anxiety disorders [1]. The 
spectrum of mood states during the perinatal period ranges from prenatal distress to 
depressive and/or anxiety disorders [9–11]. To distinguish between these concepts is of great 
importance given the possible differences in mother and offspring outcomes, and associated 
implications for targeted prevention and early intervention [9,11].

The aim of this study was therefore to examine the impact of maternal DSM-IV anxiety 
disorders before birth and self-perceived distress during pregnancy on I) maternal mental 
disorders after birth, II) obstetric and neonatal outcomes (mode of delivery, PTD, LBW and 
APGAR-index) and III) early childhood disorders in offspring (any anxiety disorder, SAD, 
enuresis, encopresis, ADHD, CD and ODD).

2. Methods

The current analyses focus on N=992 mother–child pairs from a representative community 
sample of the prospective-longitudinal Early Developmental Stages of Psychopathology 
(EDSP) study. Offspring refer to the younger EDSP-cohort aged 14–17 years at baseline who 
were followed-up approximately 2 (T1), 4 (T2) and 10 (T3) years after baseline. Details of the 
design, methods, and assessment of the EDSP study have been reported previously [42,43]. All participants (in cases of aged 18 or younger their parents) provided written informed 
consent; the EDSP project and its family genetic supplement have been approved by the 
Ethics Committee of the Medical Faculty of the Technische Universitaet Dresden (No: EK- 
13811).

DSM-IV mental disorders in offspring and mothers were assessed face-to-face with the 
computer-assisted version of the standardized Munich-Composite International Diagnostic 
Interview (DIA-X/M-CIDI) [44–46]. For offspring, the lifetime version was used at baseline, 
the interval version at follow-up. Offspring anxiety diagnoses were cumulated across all 
available assessment waves (T0, T1, T2 and T3). Mothers were directly interviewed at T1, 
using the same instrument.

2.1. Predictors

When mothers reported onset of a DSM-IV anxiety disorder (including specific phobia, social 
phobia, generalized anxiety disorder, panic disorder, agoraphobia, obsessive–compulsive 
disorder and posttraumatic stress disorder) before birth of the index child (subsequently 
referred to as offspring), they were classified to have ‘any anxiety disorder’ (ANX). Mothers
were considered as a case, when onset of ANX was before or during pregnancy. Mean age of onset for ANX was 12.9 years (SD=9.4 years), mean age of recency was 44.1 years (SD=6.0 years). All mothers were affected during pregnancy. Mothers without DSM-IV anxiety disorder before birth were classified to have ‘no anxiety disorder’ (no ANX). Mean age of mothers at delivery was 29.5 years (SD=5.2 years), with no differences between mothers with (M=29.3 years, SD=4.8 years) and without (M=29.6 years, SD=5.2 years) an anxiety disorder before birth.

Self-perceived distress during pregnancy (SPD) in mothers was assessed by the question “During pregnancy, how much did you feel strained?” Response was recorded using a four point Likert scale. Answers were dichotomized into ‘low SPD’ (answer was ‘not at all’ or ‘only little’), and ‘high SPD’ (answer was ‘mild’ or ‘severe’) reflecting substantial distress during pregnancy. In the current sample, SPD was negatively associated with living with a partner (OR=0.8; 95%CI: 0.7–0.9, p=0.002), and positively associated with problems with the family during pregnancy (OR=1.4; 95%CI: 1.2–1.6, p=0.000) and unwanted pregnancy (OR=1.4; 95%CI: 1.0–1.8, p=0.031).

In addition, the relationship of age of onset of ANX with SPD during pregnancy was examined, since mothers with an onset of ANX during pregnancy may report higher levels of SPD during pregnancy than mothers with an earlier onset of ANX. Relationships were examined using the Area under the Receiver Operating Characteristic (AUC-curve). When age of onset of ANX is unrelated to SPD during pregnancy, AUC is 0.5. An AUC of 1 represents a perfect association (age of onset of ANX perfectly predicts SPD during pregnancy). AUC was 0.48 (AUC onset, SPD) indicating that reported levels of SPD during pregnancy are independent from age of onset of ANX.

To particularly examine the role of maternal ANX and SPD, and to disentangle interpretation of these results from depression, women with (comorbid) DSM-IV depressive disorders before birth were excluded (N=57/992), resulting in N=935 mothers available for analyses. This approach also permits to investigate the impact of maternal ANX and SPD on incident depressive disorders after birth.

Among those N=935 mothers, N=208 (22.3%) reported an onset of ANX before birth. N=727/935 (77.8%) never had a DSM-IV anxiety disorder (N=653) or reported an onset after birth (N=74), and were therefore classified to have ‘no ANX’ before birth. High SPD during pregnancy was reported by N=102/935 (10.9%).

We first investigated the associations of ANX before birth and SPD during pregnancy with the considered maternal, obstetric, neonatal, and childhood outcomes. Associations between ANX and respective outcomes were controlled for SPD and vice versa, in order to examine the independent contributions of these conditions.

Because these conditions may also occur in combination, we created four mutually exclusive groups to investigate the common effects of maternal ANX before birth and SPD during pregnancy: The four groups were generated through cross-tabulation of maternal diagnostic status and SPD (group 1/reference group: no ANX and low SPD, N=656; group 2: no ANX and high SPD, N=71; group 3: ANX and low SPD, N=177; and group 4: ANX and high SPD, N=31).

2.2. Outcomes
I) When onset of maternal DSM-IV major depressive episode or dysthymia was after birth, the respective case was classified as depressive disorder after birth. Mean age of onset was 40.6 years (SD=7.2 years), mean age of recency was 42.9 years (SD=8.9 years). Mothers were also asked about II) mode of delivery (vaginal delivery, assisted vaginal delivery that is forceps delivery or vacuum extraction, and unplanned caesarean section) and adverse neonatal outcomes (PTD: gestational age less than 37 completed gestation weeks [47], birth weight and APGAR-score N7 (APGAR-score is determined by evaluating the newborn on five criteria: Appearance, Pulse, Grimace, Activity and Respiration; APGAR-score ranges from zero to ten) [48]; and III) early adversities, namely if their child ever had enuresis (at least once per month, for a duration of at least 3 months, at age 5 or older), encopresis (at least once per month, for a duration of at least 3 months, at age 4 or older), CD, ODD, and ADHD (according to DSM-IV criteria). Offspring anxiety disorders (including social phobia, specific phobia, panic disorder, agoraphobia, generalized anxiety disorder, obsessive–compulsive disorder and posttraumatic stress disorder) were directly assessed in offspring using the DIA-X/M-CIDI. DSM-IV SAD was directly assessed in offspring interviews at first follow-up.

2.3. Statistical analyses

Results (% coefficients) are weighted by age, gender, and geographic location at baseline to match the distribution of the original sampling frame [42]; frequencies (Ns) are reported unweighted. The Stata Software package 10.0 [49] was used to compute robust variances, confidence intervals, and p-values (by applying the Huber–White sandwich matrix) which is required when analyses are based on weighted data [50]. (Multinomial) logistic regressions provided odds ratios (ORs) for associations between maternal diagnostic status and SPD during pregnancy with (I) maternal mental disorders after birth, (II) obstetric and neonatal outcomes, and (III) early childhood disorders. As an exploratory study, no adjustment for multiple testing was applied, because the individual tests were related to individual hypotheses and adjustment would treat them as reflecting a global hypothesis—which is questionable in substantive terms [51].

3. Results

Consistent with previous studies, maternal lifetime anxiety disorders were found to be associated with offspring anxiety disorders (including social phobia, specific phobia, panic disorder, agoraphobia, generalized anxiety disorder, obsessive–compulsive disorder and posttraumatic stress disorder) (OR=1.4, 95%CI: 1.1–1.9), but not with mode of delivery, neonatal (PTD, LBW and APGAR), or other childhood outcomes (enuresis/encopresis, CD, ODD, ADHD and SAD). High SPD during pregnancy was unrelated to offspring anxiety disorders, but associated with PTD (OR=3.4, 95%CI: 1.5–7.9), marginally lower AGPAR (OR=2.8, 95%CI: 0.9–7.9, p=0.054), and a higher risk for caesarian section (OR=1.9, 1.1–3.1) as well as offspring CD (OR=5.0, 95%CI: 1.2–21.3), and ADHD (OR=4.7, 95%CI: 2.2–10.0).

Using a strictly prospective approach, the following analyses focus on mothers with an onset of maternal anxiety disorder before birth of their offspring and SPD during pregnancy as a predictor variable (controlled for each other), and maternal, obstetric, neonatal and childhood disorders as outcomes (Table 1). ANX before birth was associated with maternal depressive disorder after birth. SPD was similarly associated with maternal depressive disorder after birth, but also with a higher risk for caesarean section, PTD and early childhood disorders (SAD, ADHD and CD). The associations of SPD with early childhood disorders did not change substantially when additionally controlling for maternal depressive disorder after...
birth, except that the association between SPD and CD was attenuated to nonsignificance (OR=5.6, 95%CI: 0.9–32.9, p=0.055). Thus, maternal depressive disorder after birth is unlikely to mediate the association between SPD and early childhood disorders.

The examination of the outcomes in the four mutually exclusive groups revealed similar results, with the strongest associations occurring when both ANX and SPD were present. Compared to mothers without ANX and low SPD (reference group, group 1), mothers with high SPD but no ANX (group 2) had a higher risk for caesarean section (OR=2.6, 95%CI: 1.3–5.0, p=0.005). Mothers with ANX and low SPD during pregnancy (group 3) had a higher risk for depressive disorders after birth (OR=2.1, 95%CI: 1.4–3.2, p=0.001) compared to mothers without ANX and SPD (group 1). When both ANX and high SPD (group 4) were reported, a higher risk for maternal depressive disorder after birth (OR=4.8, 95%CI: 2.1–11.2, p=0.000), PTD (OR=7.4, 95%CI: 1.9–29.2, p=0.005), enuresis encopresis (OR=4.8, 95%CI: 1.6–14.2, p=0.005), ADHD (OR=5.3, 95%CI: 1.8–16.2, p=0.003), and ODD (OR=3.8, 95%CI: 1.3–11.2, p=0.016) was found compared to mothers from the reference group.

Associations between ANX and high SPD (group 4) with psychopathological outcomes in offspring appeared to be almost unaffected by the presence of maternal depressive disorder after birth. That is, all associations except for enuresis and encopresis (OR=3.5, 95%CI: 0.9–12.8, p=0.062) and ODD (OR=1.9, 95%CI: 0.5–6.8, p=0.320) remained significant.

4. Discussion

Using a population-based cohort sample, we examined the role of maternal ANX before birth and SPD during pregnancy (beyond maternal depressive disorders before birth) for unfavourable maternal, obstetric, neonatal and childhood outcomes.

In line with previous studies [7,12,34,35,37], maternal lifetime anxiety disorders were found to be associated with offspring anxiety disorders, but not with offspring externalizing disorders.

When analyses were restricted to the presence of ANX before birth (controlled for SPD), ANX was unrelated to the investigated outcomes, except for maternal depressive disorder after birth. In addition, high SPD (controlled for ANX) was associated with a particular risk for maternal depressive disorder after birth, PTD, caesarean section, SAD, ADHD, and CD in the offspring. The coincidence of ANX before birth and SPD during pregnancy (group 4) substantially increased the risk for maternal depressive disorder after birth, PTD and psychopathological outcomes in the offspring.

The mother–offspring-transmission of anxiety may be particularly pronounced in the presence of risk factors after birth such as maternal mental disorders. We therefore additionally controlled associations between maternal ANX and SPD and early childhood psychopathological outcomes for maternal depressive disorders after birth. Results remained stable to a large extent indicating that maternal depressive disorder after birth unlikely mediates associations between maternal ANX before birth and SPD during pregnancy with early childhood psychopathological outcomes. Nevertheless, it should be noted that bonding disorders, adverse mother–infant–interaction, or adverse parental rearing behaviour—which were not considered in the current study—may also affect the relationship between maternal ANX, SPD and neonatal and childhood outcomes of their offspring [4,52,53].
The strong association of higher levels of SPD with adverse offspring outcomes might be particularly explained by psycho–physiological pregnancy processes. For example, the alteration of the hypothalamic–pituitary–adrenocortical system during pregnancy is involved in the timing of delivery and fetal maturation. Increased sympathetic activation in mothers leading to elevated norepinephrine levels and increased uterine artery resistance might impede the blood flow to the fetus, resulting in LBW and the induction of PTD (for overview see [54–56]). Hence, asking for perceived stress during pregnancy such as by “During pregnancy, how much did you feel strained?” holds promise to identify pregnant women at risk for later depressive disorders, obstetric adversities as well as neonatal and early childhood problems in their offspring. Further validation of the predictive power and clinical utility of such a question is however warranted.

The findings of our study should be interpreted with regard to some limitations. Mothers with depressive disorders before birth were excluded from analyses in order to examine the impact of ANX before birth and SPD during pregnancy on disorders after birth apart from concurrent depression, and to investigate the single vs. combined effects of ANX and SPD on incident depressive disorders. We did not exclude mothers with other comorbid disorders to allow for a more representative sample of mothers, and to prevent from limitations in statistical power. Our study did not allow to examine more heterogenous pregnancy processes intensively, such as associations of maternal and offspring psychopathology with gestation problems [4,36,57]. Mothers' age at childbirth and age of onset of maternal anxiety disorders were only assessed in measures of years. To minimize errors in determination of age of onset we calculated a proxy for the presence of anxiety disorders before birth and depressive disorders after birth, respectively, by using the age of the mother at interview and her offspring's exact date of birth. However, a small proportion of mothers may have been misclassified as having for instance the anxiety onset before birth when first onset was in fact shortly (within weeks or few months) after childbirth. Due to the low number of directly assessed fathers (N=27), data on paternal psychopathology were not included. A potentially significant limitation of our study is that distress during pregnancy (SPD) was not assessed by a psychometrically established instrument. Assessment of SPD was based on one item in mothers' interview to serve as a proxy for general evaluation of SPD during pregnancy. Pilot data suggest that this question is associated with psychosocial load. Internal and predictive validity of this approach however have yet to be established.

With these limitations in mind, our findings suggest that the time period prior and during pregnancy is a sensitive developmental niche for both the mother and her offspring in which the foundation for their individual further emotional, behavioural and mental development is laid. Thus, a prospective-longitudinal approach in a high risk sample of women, starting prior to or early in pregnancy is needed to allow for more precise predictions of parental and offspring outcomes.
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