# Fetal Exposure to Maternal Depressive Symptoms is Associated with Cortical Thickness in Late Childhood

## Supplemental Information

#### **Assessment of Prenatal Depression**

Prenatal maternal depression was evaluated using the short form of the Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Inventory (CESD) (1). On a 4-point scale, women indicated how often they experienced a symptom during the past week ranging from "barely or none of the time" to "most of the time." Responses to each of the nine items were scored from 0-3. Two of the items were reverse scored so the final (total) score could range from 0 to 27, with a higher score indicating greater self-reported depressive symptoms. This measure has both internal consistency (Kuder-Richardson = .87) and validity (1). Short form scores correlate 0.97 with the original scale. The CESD is a commonly used instrument for the study of depression in the general population, in patients with a variety of disorders and has been validated in samples of pregnant women (2). Scores on the CESD during pregnancy are associated with birth outcome, post partum depression and infant development (3-7). Among our participants, prenatal depression significantly ( $F_{(1.9,138.8)} = 5.57$ , p < 0.005) increased over the course of gestation (19 weeks GA, 5.4 (4.1); 25 weeks GA, 5.7 (4.1); 31 weeks GA, 6.9 (4.6)). The increase in ratings of depression as gestation progressed is in contrast to the decrease in anxiety that is specific to pregnancy across gestation (8-9).

## Salivary Cortisol Assessment

Saliva samples were collected in the early afternoon at each prenatal visit, at least one hour after the participant had eaten using a Salivette sampling device (Sarstedt, Numbrecht, Germany). Saliva samples were spun and stored at -70°C until assayed. Thawed samples were centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 15 minutes before assay. Levels were determined by a competitive

luminescence immunoassay (LIA; IBL-America, Minneapolis, MN) with detection limits of 0.015 µg/dl. The cross reactivity of the assay was <2.5% with cortisone, prednisone and corticosterone and <0.1% with other naturally occurring steroids. The intra- and inter-assay coefficients of variance were 5.5% and 7.6%, respectively. Data reduction for the LIA assay was done by an automated four-parameter logistics computer program (software Mikro Win 2000; Berthold Microplate Luminometer). Samples were assayed in duplicate, averaged, residualized for time of day and log transformed to reduce skewedness.

## **Results for Maternal Prenatal Depression and Salivary Cortisol**

The correlations at each gestational interval between maternal depressive symptoms and the residualized and transformed maternal cortisol levels were not significant (19 weeks GA, r = -0.03; 25 weeks GA, r = -0.09; 31 weeks GA, r = 0.13).

#### **Conclusions about the Cortisol Signal to the Fetus**

Our results did not support the HPA mechanism as a maternal signal to the fetus of depressive symptoms. However, rather than conclude that maternal cortisol is not a signal to the fetus of maternal depressive symptoms we suggest that methodological limitations in our assessments of maternal cortisol concentrations (based on a single sample at each pregnancy assessment) might have prevented detection of a significant association with maternal mood. In support of this, we have shown that when maternal cortisol is measured repeatedly over the course of the day in an ambulatory setting, maternal psychosocial state and cortisol concentrations are associated, but they are not associated when measured once in the laboratory (10).

2

#### Levels of Maternal Prenatal and Concurrent Depression

Maternal prenatal depressive scores were positively skewed (all below 0.96) with no evidence of kurtosis (all below 0.60). The number of current maternal depressive symptoms was significantly positively skewed (2.97) and radically kurtotic (12.04) reflecting the absence of depressive symptoms. All of the measures of maternal prenatal depressive symptoms were significantly correlated.

#### Controlling for Current Levels of Maternal Depression at the Time of Child MRI

Because of partially shared variance (~20%) between prenatal and current maternal reports of depressive symptoms, and because of evidence that a depressed mother influences her child's behavior and its developing brain, all analyses were repeated using current depressive symptoms as a covariate. Clustering of current depression scores are in the "no symptom" range so these results should be interpreted with caution. Nevertheless, after controlling for current levels of depression, the direction of findings and structures affected are not changed, but the percentage of the areas affected by gestational exposure to maternal depression is slightly but not significantly reduced.

#### **Controlling for Birth Outcome**

In our cohort of relatively healthy pregnant women, prenatal symptoms of depression were not significantly associated with either length of gestation (r's = -.15 to -.21, p's > .08) or birth weight (r's = -.01 to .09, p's > .40). However, because fetuses of depressed mothers have been reported to be small on all biophysical parameters (11-13), born early and are small for gestational age (14, 15), are hyperactive and have higher heart rate and greater heart rate variability than fetuses of euthymic women (16-18), are hypotonic and exhibit decreased sensitivity to repeated stimulation (19) and because it is well-established that there are

persisting neurological consequences of the trauma related adverse birth outcomes (20), all of

our results were adjusted to account for birth outcome.

## Supplemental References

- 1. Santor DA, Coyne JC (1997): Shortening the CES-D to improve its ability to detect cases of depression. *Psychol Assess* 9:233-43.
- 2. Marcus SM, Flynn HA, Blow FC, Barry KL (2003): Depressive symptoms among pregnant women screened in obstetrics settings. *J Womens Health* 12:373-80.
- 3. Lundy BL, Jones NA, Field T, Nearing G, Davalos M, Pietro PA, *et al.* (1999): Prenatal depression effects on neonates. *Infant Behav Dev* 22:119-29.
- 4. Yim IS, Glynn LM, Dunkel-Schetter C, Hobel CJ, Chicz-DeMet A, Sandman CA (2009): Elevated corticotrophin-releasing hormone in human pregnancy increases the risk of postpartum depressive symptoms. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 66:162-9.
- 5. Davis EP, Glynn LM, Schetter CD, Hobel C, Chicz-Demet A, Sandman CA (2007): Prenatal exposure to maternal cortisol influences infant temperament. *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry* 46:737-46.
- 6. Davis EP, Sandman CA (2010): The timing of prenatal exposure to maternal cortisol and psychosocial stress is associated with human infant cognitive development. *Child Dev* 81:131-48.
- 7. Glynn LM, Sandman CA (2014): Evaluation of the association between placental corticotrophin-releasing hormone and postpartum depressive symptoms. *Psychosom Med.,* in press.
- 8. Kane HS, Dunkel-Schetter C, Hobel CJ, Sandman CA (2014): Pregnancy anxiety and prenatal cortisol trajectories. *Biological Psychol,* in press.
- 9. Glynn LM, Dunkel-Schetter C, Hobel CJ, Sandman CA (2008): Pattern of affect in pregnancy predicts preterm birth. *Health Psychol* 27:43-51.
- 10. Entringer S, Buss C, Andersen J, Chicz-DeMet A, Wadhwa PD (2011): Ecological momentary assessment of maternal cortisol profiles over a multiple-day period predicts the length of human gestation. *Psychosom Med* 73:469-74.
- 11. Jesse DE, Seaver W, Wallace DC (2003): Maternal psychosocial risks predict preterm birth in a group of women from Appalachia. *Midwifery* 19:191-202.
- 12. Field T, Diego M, Hernandez-Reif M, Deeds O, Holder V, Schanberg S, Kuhn C (2008): Depressed pregnant black women have a greater incidence of prematurity and low birthweight outcomes. *Infant Behav Dev* 32:10-6.
- 13. Field T, Diego M, Hernandez-Reif M, Figueiredo B, Deeds O, Ascencio A, *et al.* (2010): Comorbid depression and anxiety effects on pregnancy and neonatal outcome. *Infant Behav Dev* 33:23-9.
- 14. Grote NK, Bridge JA, Gavin AR, Melville JL, Iyengar S, Katon WJ (2010): A metaanalysis of depression during pregnancy and the risk of preterm birth, low birth weight, and intrauterine growth restriction. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 67:1012-24.
- 15. Hoffman S, Hatch MC (2000): Depressive symptomatology during pregnancy: Evidence for an association with decreased fetal growth in pregnancies of lower social class women. *Health Psychol* 19:535-43.
- 16. Allister L, Lester BM, Carr S, Liu J (2001): The effects of maternal depression on fetal heart rate response to vibroacoustic stimulation. *Dev Neuropsychol* 20:639-51.
- 17. Kinsella MT, Monk C (2009): Impact of maternal stress, depression and anxiety on fetal neurobehavioral development. *Clin Obstet Gynecol* 52:425-40.

- 18. Dieter JNI, Emory EK, Johnson KC, Raynor BD (2008): Maternal depression and anxiety effects on the human fetus: Preliminary findings and clinical implications. *Infant Ment Health J* 29:420-41.
- 19. Marcus S, Lopez JF, McDonough S, Mackenzie MJ, Flynn H, Neal CR Jr, *et al.* (2011): Depressive symptoms during pregnancy: Impact on neuroendocrine and neonatal outcomes. *Infant Behav Dev* 34:26-34.
- 20. Peterson BS, Vohr B, Staib LH, Cannistraci CJ, Dolberg A, Schneider KC, *et al.* (2000): Regional brain volume abnormalities and long-term cognitive outcome in preterm infants. *JAMA* 284:1939-47.