

1 MATERNAL PERINATAL AND CONCURRENT ANXIETY AND MENTAL HEALTH  
2 PROBLEMS IN EARLY CHILDHOOD: A SIBLING-COMPARISON STUDY

3  
4 Running head: Maternal anxiety and child mental health problems  
5  
6  
7  
8

9 ABSTRACT

10 Do associations between maternal anxiety symptoms and offspring mental health remain after  
11 comparing differentially exposed siblings? Participants were 17,724 offspring siblings and  
12 11,553 mothers from the Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort study. Mothers reported  
13 anxiety and depressive symptoms at 30 weeks' gestation, and 0.5, 1.5, 3 and 5 years  
14 postpartum. Child internalizing and externalizing problems were assessed at ages 1.5, 3 and 5,  
15 and modelled using multilevel analyses with repeated measures nested within siblings, nested  
16 within mothers. Maternal pre- and postnatal anxiety were no longer associated with child  
17 internalizing or externalizing problems after adjusting for maternal depression and familial  
18 confounding. Maternal anxiety when the children were in preschool age, however, remained  
19 significantly associated with child internalizing, but not externalizing problems.  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26

27 Anxiety disorders and symptoms of anxiety are common during and after pregnancy (Lee et  
28 al., 2007; Ross & McLean, 2006). In addition to exerting a negative impact on the mothers,  
29 maternal anxiety in both the prenatal and postpartum periods is associated with child mental  
30 health problems (Glasheen, Richardson, & Fabio, 2010; Graignic-Philippe, Dayan, Chokron,  
31 Jacquet, & Tordjman, 2014; Stein et al., 2014; Talge, Neal, Glover, & Early Stress  
32 Transnational Res, 2007). These associations are evident both in large studies where brief  
33 questionnaires and parent report are often used, and in smaller studies that have relied on  
34 more detailed measures of mother and child (e.g. Davis et al., 2004; Huizink, de Medina,  
35 Mulder, Visser, & Buitelaar, 2002). Mental health problems in children are often divided into  
36 an internalizing and externalizing spectrum (Achenbach, 1966), and are associated with an  
37 increased risk for mental disorders in adulthood (Hofstra, van der Ende, & Verhulst, 2002).  
38 Findings are mixed on whether exposure to maternal anxiety is associated with child  
39 internalizing or externalizing problems or both (Barker, Jaffee, Uher, & Maughan, 2011;  
40 O'Connor, Heron, Glover, & Alspac Study Team, 2002; Van Batenburg-Eddes et al., 2013).  
41 For optimal prevention, it is crucial to establish a clearer picture on whether the association  
42 between maternal anxiety and child mental health problems is due to different types of  
43 confounding, and at what age the child is most vulnerable to this exposure. For these  
44 purposes, large, prospective studies have been recommended (Glasheen et al., 2010).

45         Different mechanisms are likely to explain negative child outcomes when the exposure  
46 to maternal anxiety is prenatal compared to postpartum. Several possible prenatal mechanisms  
47 have been reviewed, including the role of the HPA axis and cortisol, compromised placental  
48 functioning, maternal immune system and relevant health behaviors (Beijers, Buitelaar, & de  
49 Weerth, 2014; Glover, O'Connor, & O'Donnell, 2010; Graignic-Philippe et al., 2014). The  
50 evidence for the involvement of the HPA axis and cortisol in child behavioral outcomes is  
51 weak, particularly when maternal anxiety is self-reported (Beijers et al., 2014). Findings from

52 a large number of animal and human studies point to epigenetics, in which the expression of  
53 genes is altered, as a central piece of the puzzle of prenatal mechanisms. More specifically,  
54 epigenetic regulation of the genome (particularly DNA methylation of immune function and  
55 the placenta and brain) has been suggested to mediate associations between prenatal maternal  
56 stress and negative behavioral outcomes in children (Appleton et al., 2013; Babenko,  
57 Kovalchuk, & Metz, 2015; Cao-Lei, Laplante, & King, 2016; Mitchell, Schneper, &  
58 Notterman, 2015; Monk, Spicer, & Champagne, 2012). The importance of epigenetic factors  
59 has been affirmed in studies that include natural disasters, such as Project Ice Storm (King,  
60 Dancause, Turcotte-Tremblay, Veru, & Laplante, 2012). Natural disasters can be used as  
61 natural experiments, where one advantage is the possibility to disentangle mothers' subjective  
62 distress from an objective exposure.

63         After birth, maternal anxiety may affect the offspring negatively through  
64 environmental processes. Possible mechanisms are disruption of mother-child interactions and  
65 attachment (Glasheen et al., 2010) or quality of parenting (Stein et al., 2014). The importance  
66 of cumulative exposure has also been highlighted, as it is associated with increased risk for  
67 negative outcomes in the children (Stein et al., 2014). Epigenetic mechanisms may also be at  
68 play in postpartum interactions between mother and child (Monk et al., 2012).

69         Furthermore, both prenatal and postpartum associations may be due to residual  
70 confounding from factors shared between mother and child. Genes represent an important  
71 source of confounding, as mother and child share 50% of their genome, and adult anxiety and  
72 child internalizing and externalizing problems are heritable . It is likely that at least some of  
73 the maternal genetic predisposition to anxiety is overlapping with the child's genetic  
74 predisposition to internalizing or externalizing symptoms. This can create spurious  
75 associations that can be erroneously interpreted as a causal influence of the exposure to  
76 maternal anxiety. It is intuitive that there should be some degree of overlap in the genetic

77 variance for maternal internalizing disorders and child internalizing symptoms. However,  
78 empirical studies find evidence to the contrary, both when the maternal phenotypes are  
79 anxiety (Eley et al., 2015) and depression (Silberg, Maes, & Eaves, 2010; Singh et al., 2011).  
80 Less intuitive is the genetic link between maternal internalizing disorders and child  
81 externalizing disorders, but partial genetic overlap has been found when the maternal  
82 phenotype is depression (Silberg et al., 2010; Singh et al., 2011), indicating pleiotropy. The  
83 genetic overlap in anxiety and depressive disorders is high (Kendler, 1996). There is also  
84 evidence of a moderate genetic overlap in anxiety and conduct problems in children (Gregory,  
85 Eley, & Plomin, 2004). Hence, it is reasonable to assume that a genetic overlap is also  
86 possible between maternal anxiety and child externalizing symptoms.

87       Exposure to maternal anxiety both during pregnancy and after birth needs to be  
88 considered together in order to evaluate whether the child's vulnerability to the exposure is  
89 particularly high during different developmental periods. Several studies that report an  
90 influence of maternal perinatal anxiety and child mental health problems have not controlled  
91 for maternal anxiety during the child's infancy and childhood (e.g. Loomans et al., 2011).  
92 Studies that do control for maternal anxiety after birth, however, often find that the  
93 association between prenatal anxiety and child mental health problems is no longer significant  
94 (e.g. Van Batenburg-Eddes et al., 2013). Adjusting for depression is also important, as anxiety  
95 disorders and depression are highly comorbid conditions (Kessler et al., 1994). Because  
96 anxiety and depression can require different therapeutic approaches (e.g. exposure versus  
97 cognitive or psychodynamic therapy), knowledge on disorder-specific contributions is  
98 necessary for providing adequate treatment of the mother, which, in the longer run, may  
99 improve child mental health. Only a handful of studies have included large samples, a  
100 prospective, longitudinal design, both prenatal and postpartum anxiety as well as measures of  
101 depression (Barker et al., 2011; O'Connor et al., 2002; Van Batenburg-Eddes et al., 2013).

102 These studies all find associations between perinatal anxiety and various child mental health  
103 outcomes, but are limited by the lack of genetically informative data to adjust for unmeasured  
104 familial confounding, the lack of measures of later maternal anxiety, and the narrow age span  
105 (3-4 years or 7-8 years) of the children included. In addition, these studies are limited to two  
106 cohorts: the Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children (Barker et al., 2011; O'Connor  
107 et al., 2002; Van Batenburg-Eddes et al., 2013) and Generation R (Van Batenburg-Eddes et  
108 al., 2013). It is therefore not given that results are generalizable to other populations.

109         It is impractical let alone unethical to conduct a randomized controlled trial on  
110 maternal anxiety and child outcomes. Comparison of differentially exposed siblings is a well-  
111 established quasi-experimental design for ruling out important sources of confounding  
112 (Keyes, Smith, & Susser, 2013; Lahey & D'Onofrio, 2010). The sibling comparison design  
113 has for example contributed substantially to our understanding of harmful consequences of  
114 maternal smoking during pregnancy on offspring health. The comparison of siblings of  
115 mothers who smoked during one pregnancy but not the other controls for many familial  
116 confounds, thus providing a far more stringent test of association than most other research  
117 designs. With this method it has been shown that smoking is systematically linked to lower  
118 birth weight in the offspring, but does not appear to influence the offspring's risk for mental  
119 health problems (Gustavson et al., 2017; Kuja-Halkola, D'Onofrio, Larsson, & Lichtenstein,  
120 2014; Lahey & D'Onofrio, 2010).

121         In contrast to other genetically informative designs such as the classical twin study  
122 (Martin & Eaves, 1977), the sibling comparison design cannot quantify the contribution of  
123 genetic and environmental influences on the study variables. It can however, rule out  
124 confounding due to genes inherited from the mother that contributes to both the maternal and  
125 child behavior, even though mother and child share only 50% of their genes. This is because  
126 parental alleles are randomly distributed across siblings. For example, if a mother experienced

127 anxiety during one pregnancy but not the other, both offspring would be equally likely to  
128 receive maternal alleles associated with perinatal anxiety, even if only one of them was  
129 directly exposed (Lahey & D'Onofrio, 2010). The sibling comparison design also rules out  
130 unmeasured confounding in situations where associations between mother and child  
131 phenotypes are attributable to environmental influences shared by siblings (Lahey &  
132 D'Onofrio, 2010). Examples include socioeconomic status and neighborhood effects.

133         The design cannot rule out confounding due to child behavior influencing maternal  
134 behavior (which could also happen during pregnancy), and it does not rule out confounding  
135 due to environmental confounds that are not shared by siblings (Lahey & D'Onofrio, 2010).  
136 For instance, child temperament could influence maternal levels of stress, or the increased  
137 size of the household following the birth of a new sibling could influence stress levels in both  
138 mothers and children.

139         Of the few studies utilizing genetically informative designs, most have reported that  
140 associations between maternal anxiety and offspring mental health problems remain after  
141 accounting for the genetic relatedness of mother and child. This has been found with regards  
142 to maternal anxiety and adolescent offspring anxiety in a children-of-twins study (Eley et al.,  
143 2015), postpartum maternal anxiety and toddler negative affect in an adoptive sample  
144 (Brooker et al., 2015), and maternal prenatal stress and mid-childhood antisocial behavior and  
145 anxiety in an in vitro sample (Rice et al., 2010). However, a notable exception was recently  
146 found in a Norwegian prospective study, also using MoBa data (described below). The  
147 authors concluded that exposure to maternal prenatal anxiety was not associated with child  
148 internalizing symptoms in 6 and 36 months old children after sibling comparison (Bekkhuis et  
149 al., 2017). The study did however not include measures of externalizing symptoms in the  
150 children, nor adjust for maternal depressive symptoms or concurrently measured maternal  
151 anxiety symptoms. We are aware of only two other genetically informed studies that have

152 investigated perinatal maternal anxiety or stress (Brooker et al., 2015; Rice et al., 2010), and  
153 only one of these included both prenatal and later measures of the maternal predictor (Rice et  
154 al., 2010). Adjusting for later maternal stress, the association between prenatal stress and child  
155 anxiety disappeared, whereas the association with child antisocial behavior remained (Rice et  
156 al., 2010). Additional limitations of these studies include the use of a cross-sectional design  
157 (Eley et al., 2015; Rice et al., 2010) and retrospective measures (Rice et al., 2010). None of  
158 these studies investigated the development of problems in the important period spanning from  
159 toddlerhood to school age. In sum, no previous studies have had a sufficient design for  
160 establishing associations between mother's anxiety in the prenatal, postpartum and/or  
161 preschool period and preschool children's internalizing or externalizing problems after  
162 accounting for familial confounding.

163         In a recent study (Gjerde et al., 2017), associations between perinatal depression and  
164 preschool offspring's internalizing and externalizing problems were found to be due to  
165 unmeasured confounding in a genetically informative and prospective cohort sample. Using  
166 the same cohort and design, we investigate i) associations between maternal anxiety  
167 symptoms at several different periods during and after pregnancy and preschool offspring's  
168 internalizing and externalizing problems, ii) whether these associations remain after two types  
169 of control: measured covariates including depressive symptoms, and sibling comparison, and  
170 iii) whether associations change with child age.

171

## 172 METHOD

### 173 **Sample**

174 The present study is part of a subproject of the Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study  
175 (MoBa), conducted by the Norwegian Institute of Public Health (NIPH). MoBa is a  
176 prospective, ongoing, pregnancy cohort study, and has been described in detail elsewhere

177 (Magnus et al., 2016). Participants were recruited from 1999 to 2009 at a routine ultrasound  
178 examination offered to all pregnant women in Norway at 17-18 weeks' gestation. The total  
179 sample now includes >114,500 children, >95,000 mothers and >75,000 fathers. In total, 41%  
180 of eligible women participated. The current study was restricted to families with more than  
181 one birth record in MoBa. Missing data were allowed on the time-variant variables, but not on  
182 the time-invariant variables resulting in 40,457 observations nested within 17,724 siblings  
183 from 11,553 mothers (of which 5,623, 5,691, 237 and two mothers had one, two, three, or  
184 four children, respectively).

185         Version 9 of the quality-assured MoBa data files were used, released in 2015. Written  
186 informed consent was obtained from all participants upon recruitment. The MoBa study has  
187 been granted a license from the Norwegian Data Inspectorate, and the present study was  
188 approved by the Regional Committee for Medical Research Ethics. In the current study we  
189 used information obtained at 30 weeks gestation, 0.5 years postpartum, and 1.5, 3 and 5 years  
190 postpartum. We will refer to these as the prenatal (gestation week 30), postpartum (0.5 years  
191 after birth) and concurrent (1.5, 3 and 5 years after birth) periods.

192

### 193 **Measures**

194 Maternal anxiety and depressive symptoms were each assessed using a short form of the  
195 Symptom Checklist (SCL; Derogatis, Lipman, Rickels, Uhlenluth, & Covi, 1974). The short  
196 form is the eight item SCL-8, that have been validated and thoroughly described elsewhere  
197 (Tambs & Røysamb, 2014). This is an abbreviated form of the short form SCL-25, that was  
198 constructed to measure symptoms of anxiety and depression (Hesbacher, Rickels, Morris,  
199 Newman, & Rosenfeld, 1980). A recommended cutoff for detecting caseness in SCL-25 is  
200 1.75 (Sandanger et al., 1999), and 2.0 for SCL-5 (Strand, Dalgard, Tambs, & Rognerud,  
201 2003). Within the MoBa questionnaires, the same SCL-8 measure was available in the



202 questionnaire issued from 30 weeks gestation and onwards. Participants rated to what extent a  
203 set of statements, covering the last two weeks of their life, are true on a 1 to 4 scale (1 = “not  
204 at all bothered”, 4 = quite a bit bothered”). In order to assess anxiety and depressive  
205 symptoms separately, we divided the SCL-8 scale into the four items intended to measure  
206 anxiety (“Feeling fearful”; “Nervousness or shakiness inside”; “Suddenly scared for no  
207 reason”; “Feeling tense or keyed up”) and the four items intended to measure depression  
208 (“Worrying too much about things”; “Feeling blue”; “Feeling helpless about the future”;  
209 “Feeling everything is an effort”), respectively (Tambs & Røysamb, 2014). We further  
210 created mean scores for each period separately, leaving us with three predictor variables  
211 reflecting mothers’ anxiety symptom levels at each period: one for prenatal (gestation week  
212 30), one for postpartum (0.5 years after birth) and one for concurrent anxiety (when the  
213 children were 1.5, 3 and 5 years old). The depression variables for each period were used as  
214 covariates. Internal consistency estimated by Cronbach’s alpha for the anxiety items in our  
215 sample were 0.70 for the prenatal measure, 0.71 for the postpartum measure, and 0.72, 0.76  
216 and 0.73 for the concurrent measures. The sum of the four anxiety items in SCL-8 have been  
217 found to correlate 0.90 with the anxiety score in SCL-25 (Tambs & Røysamb, 2014).  
218 Maternal concurrent anxiety can vary across child age, whereas the values for the prenatal and  
219 postpartum predictors, measured before the children were 1.5 years old, are repeated within a  
220 child across the last three time-points and are thus time-invariant (see Table 1 for  
221 specifications of variable levels).

222         The outcomes were child internalizing and externalizing problems at child ages 1.5, 3  
223 and 5, measured with items from the Child Behavior Checklist preschool version (CBCL;  
224 Achenbach, 1992). Mothers reported agreement on a three-point Likert scale for each item.  
225 There were a total of 13 internalizing and 11 externalizing items. The items were selected by a  
226 team of psychologists based on clinical expertise, theory and factor loadings on internalizing

227 and externalizing behavior. The internalizing short scale has been found to correlate .71, .79  
228 and .87 with the full CBCL internalizing scale at ages 1.5, 3 and 5 years, respectively  
229 (Helland, Røysamb, Wang, & Gustavson, 2017). As for time-varying concurrent maternal  
230 anxiety, internalizing and externalizing problems from the measures at age 1.5 to 5 were each  
231 represented by one time-variant variable. To capture more information and thereby reduce the  
232 influence of measurement error, we estimated factor scores based on an item response theory  
233 (IRT) analysis with a nominal response model instead of using sum scores. Unlike in classical  
234 test theory (CTT), where it is assumed that all categories in an item indexes performance  
235 equally well, IRT focuses on the performance of each item in a scale (Reise & Revicki, 2014).  
236 The reliability of an IRT score can therefore vary across each latent score of the measured  
237 construct. We calculated the average reliability of the IRT scores using the following formula:  
238  $1 - \text{mean}(\text{S.E.}_{\text{measurement}})^2$ . The average reliability of the two IRT scores was 0.48 and 0.71 for  
239 the internalizing and externalizing measure, respectively. As can be seen in Figure 1a and  
240 Figure 1b, the reliability was highest in the clinical range of the outcome variables. The  
241 resulting internalizing and externalizing factor scores were transformed to have a mean of 50,  
242 and a standard deviation of 10, and are thus interpreted as T-scores.

243 Covariates were child age and sex, and maternal depressive symptoms, parity, and  
244 education. Child age (i.e. the time variable of the growth curves) was centered to 5 years, and  
245 added in order to model change in child symptom levels as a function of child age. Child sex,  
246 coded as 0 = “boy” and 1 = “girl”, was included as associations may vary for boys and girls.  
247 Maternal parity and education were included as these have previously been shown to be  
248 associated with similar outcomes in children with anxious mothers (Petzoldt, Wittchen,  
249 Einsle, & Martini, 2016). Parity was coded as 0 = “first birth” through 4 = “four or more  
250 previous births”. Education, coded as 1 = “9-year secondary school” through 6 = “University,

251 technical college, >4 years”, was defined for the parent with the highest achieved level of  
252 education at 17 weeks gestation.

253

254 *Figure 1a and 1b here*

255

## 256 **Statistical analyses**

257 The included data had a three-level structure, where responses at age 1.5, 3 and 5 years (level  
258 1) were nested in siblings (level 2) nested in mothers (Table 1). We used linear multilevel  
259 models to account for dependency across siblings within mothers (level 3) and across tests  
260 within children (level 2) by estimating between-mother and between-sibling differences  
261 through the inclusion of random effects (Rabe-Hesketh & Skrondal, 2012). Maximum  
262 likelihood, assuming data were missing at random, was used as estimator in Stata 14  
263 (StataCorp, 2015). Analyses included a random intercept that estimates between-variance at  
264 the sibling and mother level, and a random slope for age at the mother level that estimates  
265 variation in associations between the predictors and outcome as a function of child age across  
266 mothers. Age was added as a random slope instead of time, as we had exact measures of age  
267 on the children. Figure 2 provides an illustration of the basic model used.

268

269 *Table 1 here*

270

271 *Figure 2 here*

272

273 Is maternal anxiety at different developmental stages associated with child internalizing and  
274 externalizing problems?

275 To investigate whether maternal anxiety was associated with child internalizing and  
276 externalizing problems we first ran a set of models where only one predictor was included for  
277 each outcome separately, adjusted for covariates (referred to as Model 0). Predictors without  
278 interpretable zero points were centered on their means to obtain meaningful intercepts (Hox,  
279 2010). As we included separate predictors for the prenatal (gestational week week 30),  
280 postpartum (0.5 years) and concurrent (1.5, 3 and 5 years) period, a total of three models were  
281 each run for child internalizing and externalizing problems separately. Interactions between  
282 each anxiety predictor and child age were also included in the models, in order to allow for  
283 differential associations of anxiety with child symptom levels as a linear function of child  
284 development. A positive interaction would imply that the association between the predictor  
285 and outcome becomes stronger over child age, whereas a negative interaction would imply  
286 that the association becomes weaker.

287

288 Adjusting for measured confounding

289 For the second set of analyses (Model 1) we included all anxiety predictors simultaneously, so  
290 that each anxiety exposure period is adjusted for the others, along with the covariates and  
291 interactions between each anxiety predictor and child age. In the next set of models (Model  
292 2), we also adjusted for maternal depression at all periods, to investigate whether anxiety had  
293 a unique association with child internalizing and externalizing problems over and above the  
294 association with maternal depression. In addition, interactions between each depression  
295 predictor and child age were included. Based on previous recommended cutoffs for short  
296 forms of the SCL, the regression coefficients in Model 1 and 2 can be interpreted as the  
297 expected average T score change in internalizing or externalizing symptoms in children when  
298 we compare mothers without anxiety symptoms with mothers with a clinically relevant level  
299 of anxiety symptoms.

300

301 Adjusting for unmeasured confounding

302 Finally, in Model 3 we conducted sibling comparisons to adjust for unmeasured, familial  
303 confounding. This was done by mean-centering each of the anxiety predictors and depression  
304 covariates within mothers. A deviation score was thus created for each sibling within a  
305 mother. If the siblings were equally exposed they would get identical scores and not  
306 contribute to the estimated association. Because the centered predictors are orthogonal to all  
307 between-family varying variables, this procedure adjusts for potentially confounding genetic  
308 and environmental influences that are shared among siblings. The results can therefore be  
309 interpreted as the change in child T scores when the same mother moves from zero symptoms  
310 of anxiety to a clinically significant level, all else being constant. In this sibling comparison  
311 model, we adjusted for the same variables as in Model 2, with the exception of parental  
312 education (as this was not unique to each child). All models were run separately for  
313 internalizing and externalizing problems.

314

## 315 RESULTS

316 We ran preliminary tests to check for multicollinearity by extracting variance inflation factors  
317 (VIFs) from the predictors included in Model 1-3 (see Supplementary). None approached the  
318 value 10. Pearson's correlation coefficients between the exposures and outcomes are shown in  
319 Table 2. The correlations ranged from  $r = .11$  to  $.66$ . The lowest correlations were between  
320 maternal anxiety in gestation week 30 and child externalizing symptoms, and between  
321 postpartum anxiety and externalizing symptoms. The highest correlation was between  
322 concurrent maternal anxiety and depressive symptoms. As a measure of how similar children  
323 within mothers were on the exposures, we used intraclass correlations. The correlations were  $r$   
324  $= .50, .45$  and  $.48$  for prenatal, postpartum and concurrent anxiety exposure, respectively.

325

326 *Table 2 here*

327

328 Internalizing problems

329 The results for the analyses on the predictors separately (aim 1) are illustrated under Model 0  
330 in Figure 3, but not reported in tables, as these analyses were run to investigate whether there  
331 were grounds for carrying out analyses with stricter control and for comparison with previous  
332 studies. For all anxiety predictors, the associations were statistically significant and positively  
333 associated with internalizing problems. The unstandardized estimates varied between 4.96  
334 (95% CI = 4.33-5.58) for maternal anxiety at 6 months postpartum, and 5.75 (95% CI = 5.20-  
335 6.30) for concurrent maternal anxiety. The interpretation of these estimates is that for each  
336 unit increase in maternal anxiety, internalizing problems increase with a T-score of 4.96-5.75.

337

338 *Associations after adjusting for measured confounding*

339 In Model 1 (Figure 3 and Table 3), maternal anxiety symptoms at gestation week 30 and up to  
340 5 years after birth were significantly associated with child internalizing problems. The largest  
341 association was found for concurrent maternal anxiety symptoms ( $b = 4.63$ , 95% CI = 4.04-  
342 5.23). In Model 2 (Figure 3 and Table 3), all associations between the maternal anxiety  
343 predictors and internalizing problems were attenuated. Anxiety symptoms at 0.5 years  
344 postpartum were no longer significantly associated with internalizing problems.

345

346 *Associations after adjusting for unmeasured confounding (sibling comparison)*

347 Adjusting for familial confounding in addition to depressive symptoms and other covariates  
348 (Model 3; Figure 3 and Table 3), only concurrent maternal anxiety symptoms ( $b = 1.75$ , 95%  
349 CI = 0.27-3.23) remained statistically significantly associated with child internalizing

350 problems. Estimates for all predictors, with the exception of maternal anxiety 0.5 years  
351 postpartum were further attenuated, and not statistically different from zero. The concurrent  
352 depression symptoms covariates were still significantly associated with internalizing problems  
353 ( $b = 2.14$ , 95% CI = 1.07, 3.20). All main effects are shown in Figure 3. The pattern of  
354 successive attenuation was evident for all predictors.

355

### 356 *Interaction effects*

357 In Model 1, both maternal postpartum and concurrent anxiety were found to interact with  
358 child age ( $b = 0.33$  and  $0.80$ , 95% CIs = 0.09, 0.58 and 0.57, 1.03, respectively), indicating  
359 that the association between maternal anxiety and child internalizing problems increased as  
360 the children grew older. The latter remained after adjusting for depression (Model 2), but was  
361 attenuated ( $b = 0.39$ , 95% CI = 0.10, 0.67). After sibling comparison however (Model 3,  
362 Table 3), there were no significant interactions between the anxiety predictors and child age.

363

### 364 *Table 3 here*

365

### 366 Externalizing child problems

367 When the predictors were investigated one at a time (Model 0, all anxiety predictors were  
368 statistically significantly and positively associated with externalizing problems. The estimates  
369 varied between 3.11 (95% CI = 2.51-3.70) for maternal anxiety at 30 weeks' gestation, and  
370 4.12 (95% CI = 3.60-4.64) for concurrent maternal anxiety.

371

### 372 *Associations after adjusting for measured confounding*

373 Results for externalizing problems are shown in Table 4 and Figure 3. Adjusted only for  
374 covariates and each other, maternal anxiety symptoms at all periods were positively and

375 statistically significantly associated with externalizing problems (Model 1). The strongest  
376 association was found for maternal concurrent anxiety symptoms ( $b = 3.60$ , 95% CI = 3.04,  
377 4.16). The pattern of findings changed dramatically in Model 2, adjusted for depression  
378 predictors and interactions, as none of the anxiety predictors remained significantly associated  
379 with the outcome. Hence, for externalizing problems, maternal anxiety had no unique  
380 contributions, beyond the contributions from maternal depressive symptoms. In this model,  
381 maternal depression at week 30 during pregnancy, 0.5 years postpartum and concurrently  
382 were all statistically significantly associated with externalizing problems.

383

384 *Associations after adjusting for unmeasured confounding (sibling comparison)*

385 Adjusting for familial confounding (Model 3) did not change the pattern of results. None of  
386 the anxiety predictors were statistically significantly associated with the outcome.

387

388 *Table 4 and Figure 3 here*

389

390 *Interaction effects*

391 In Model 1 (Table 4), concurrent anxiety interacted with child age ( $b = 0.56$ , 95% CI = 0.34,  
392 0.77). The interaction was positive, indicating that the association between maternal anxiety  
393 and externalizing problems increased across time. After adjusting for depressive symptoms  
394 and their interaction with child age, none of the interactions were significantly different from  
395 zero (Model 2), a pattern that remained in Model 3.

396

397 DISCUSSION

398 In this large prospective cohort study, we investigated to what extent exposure to maternal  
399 symptoms of anxiety during the perinatal and preschool period were associated with



400 preschool child internalizing and externalizing problems above and beyond the associations  
401 with maternal perinatal and concurrent depressive symptoms. The sibling design further  
402 allowed us to account for familial confounding stemming from unmeasured genetic and  
403 shared environmental influences on the associations.

404         Our first aim was to investigate whether any associations could be found between  
405 maternal anxiety at different stages of development and child internalizing or externalizing  
406 problems. Both perinatal maternal anxiety and concurrent maternal anxiety were significantly  
407 and positively associated with internalizing and externalizing problems in preschool children.  
408 These patterns of result are comparable with findings from several cross-sectional studies  
409 (e.g. Glasheen et al., 2010; O'Connor et al., 2002). However, there are also examples of  
410 previous cross-sectional studies that do not find associations between maternal anxiety and  
411 child mental health outcomes (Glasheen et al., 2010). This variation in findings is not  
412 surprising given the large diversity in anxiety measures, periods of exposure and sample sizes.  
413 Regardless, our findings indicated that all periods of anxiety exposure were associated with  
414 child internalizing and externalizing problems.

415         Our second aim was to assess whether these associations remained after controlling for  
416 measured confounding (the children's age and sex, and parity and educational level in the  
417 mother). For both internalizing and externalizing problems, most associations remained  
418 significant in these models.

419         When we also adjusted for concurrently measured depressive symptoms, most of the  
420 associations with internalizing problems remained, but associations with externalizing  
421 problems did not. A similar pattern of results was found in a previous study utilizing the  
422 ALSPAC cohort (Barker et al., 2011), where it was found that maternal prenatal and  
423 postpartum anxiety was associated only with internalizing and not with externalizing  
424 problems in 7-8 year old children after adjusting for concurrent maternal depressive

425 symptoms. Also in a more recent study of 3-4 year old children from both ALSPAC and the  
426 Generation R samples, associations between maternal anxiety and child externalizing  
427 problems disappeared when maternal depression was adjusted for (Van Batenburg-Eddes et  
428 al., 2013).

429         Associations between maternal anxiety symptoms and child mental health problems  
430 may be the result of several possible mechanisms. The association may be causal, such that  
431 there is a direct effect of exposure to the mother's anxiety symptoms on child's risk for  
432 mental health problems. Alternatively, the same genes might be influencing both the parent  
433 and child phenotype, or aspects of the shared family environment may contribute both to a  
434 higher risk for anxiety in the mother and mental health problems in the child. Our control for  
435 such unmeasured genetic and shared environmental confounding through the sibling  
436 comparison analyses indicated that associations between perinatal measures of maternal  
437 anxiety symptoms and internalizing problems are confounded by genetic and environmental  
438 influences shared between mothers and children, in line with previous studies (e.g. Bekkhus et  
439 al., 2017). Only maternal concurrent anxiety symptoms remained significantly associated with  
440 preschool offspring's internalizing problems. We can only speculate on which mechanisms  
441 might be at play, but it is possible that anxious mothers use parenting techniques that are  
442 harmful to the child (Creswell, Apetroaia, Murray, & Cooper, 2013), or that the child learns  
443 anxious behavior from the mother (Askew & Field, 2008). The associations may also be  
444 bidirectional, as indicated in a previous study on maternal depression and child mental health  
445 problems (McAdams et al., 2015), or be mediated through other phenomena, such as sleep  
446 problems (Ystrom et al., 2017). These findings may also be accounted for by shared method  
447 bias, which we discuss in the limitations section.

448         Externalizing problems, on the other hand, were not associated with maternal anxiety  
449 when concurrent depressive symptoms were included in the analyses. Compared to a

450 previous study where maternal concurrent depressive symptoms were unadjusted for  
451 concurrent anxiety symptoms (Gjerde et al., 2017), the associations in the present study with  
452 maternal depressive symptoms are only slightly attenuated after adjusting for maternal anxiety  
453 symptoms. The finding fits well with two other genetically informative studies employing  
454 distinct designs, where evidence of direct environmental transmission was found between  
455 parental and offspring anxiety (Brooker et al., 2015; Eley et al., 2015). The implication of our  
456 finding is that maternal anxiety symptoms may have a more specific influence on the risk for  
457 child mental health problems than depressive symptoms.

458 For our third and final aim, we investigated whether the associations between maternal  
459 anxiety and their children's internalizing and externalizing problems were equally strong  
460 across preschool years. The impact of anxiety symptoms did not change in the late compared  
461 to the early preschool years.

462 Our findings may appear to contrast with the literature on epigenetic changes  
463 following exposure to maternal stress during pregnancy (Babenko et al., 2015; Monk et al.,  
464 2012). We can only speculate on what the explanation for this discrepancy might be, but three  
465 possibilities stand out. First, behavioral phenotypes are multifactorial and polygenic (Rutter,  
466 2006). Thus, even if epigenetic alterations occur in the exposed children, these may not be  
467 sufficient in explaining more than a fraction of the variance in the phenotype that they code  
468 for, and therefore not be sufficient for causing behavioral change. Second, it has recently been  
469 found that even methylation processes are to a great extent under genetic control (Polderman  
470 et al., 2015). It is therefore possible that familial confounding could help explain epigenetic  
471 findings, as for instance has been indicated for the association between methylation at the  
472 SOCS3 gene and BMI (Li, Wong, Southey, & Hopper, 2017). Third, despite the convincing  
473 literature on the role of epigenetic regulations for associations between maternal anxiety and  
474 negative child outcomes up to several decades after exposure, we are nowhere near

475 understanding the specific mechanisms in which DNA alterations contribute to gene  
476 expression and ultimately to phenotypic expression (Babenko et al., 2015; Cao-Lei et al.,  
477 2016). Hopefully, future studies on genetic biomarkers or sibling studies including measures  
478 of genomic methylation can help bridge the gap between findings from genetically  
479 informative epidemiological studies and studies such as Project Ice Storm (King et al., 2012).

480

### 481 **Strengths and limitations**

482 Strengths in the present study include a large, longitudinal population-based sample,  
483 genetically informative data, and measures of both anxiety and depressive symptoms.  
484 However, the following limitations need to be acknowledged. Anxious and depressed mothers  
485 might be more inclined to worry about their children, which could cause a bias towards  
486 reporting more emotional and behavior problems. Mothers' ratings of their children were  
487 obtained at the same time they rated their own symptoms. This may have caused confounding  
488 due to shared method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Many  
489 studies have investigated whether anxious and/or depressed mothers exaggerate their  
490 children's mental health problems, but firm conclusions have not yet been reached (De Los  
491 Reyes et al., 2015). Unfortunately, the potential effect of a shared informant bias from the  
492 potential effect of maternal anxiety and depression symptoms on their children's mental  
493 health problems cannot be separated in the MoBa. The design in the present study adjusts for  
494 time-invariant rating bias, and bias associated with depression. The time-variant rater bias that  
495 would remain could not be adjusted for. If anxious mothers did indeed rate their children  
496 more negatively, we would expect to see the same pattern for internalizing as for externalizing  
497 problems. This was not the case in the present study. It is possible that the lack of a significant  
498 association between maternal concurrent anxiety and child externalizing symptoms could be  
499 explained by previous observations of anxious/depressed mothers' rating bias being higher

500 when rating internalizing than externalizing symptoms in their children (Kroes, Veerman, &  
501 De Bruyn, 2003; Salbach-Andrae, Lenz, & Lehmkuhl, 2009). More distortion when reporting  
502 internalizing symptoms could be due to mothers remembering better symptoms in their  
503 children that resemble their own symptoms. Alternatively, as internalizing symptoms are  
504 often less visible than externalizing symptoms, more distortion may be expected for the more  
505 ambiguous internalizing symptoms, in accordance with the social attribution theory (Kroes et  
506 al., 2003). Distortion does however not appear to be greater for anxious than depressed  
507 mothers, either for ratings of internalizing (Kroes et al., 2003), or externalizing symptoms  
508 (Chilcoat & Breslau, 1997). Therefore, should our results be explained solely by rater bias, we  
509 would expect to find approximately the same association between concurrent depression and  
510 externalizing symptoms as for concurrent anxiety and externalizing symptoms. Instead,  
511 concurrent maternal depressive symptoms had a much larger association with externalizing  
512 symptoms. It is therefore reasonable to assume that the remaining associations found in this  
513 study cannot be explained by shared method bias alone.

514 We used a pregnancy cohort sample of Norwegian mothers and their children. The  
515 recruitment rate was low, and attrition occurred during follow-up (Magnus et al., 2006). We  
516 handled attrition by including all cases with data at one or more of the preschool measures of  
517 child internalizing and externalizing problems, and estimated the models assuming responses  
518 were missing at random. We were reluctant to use multiple imputation on these clustered data,  
519 as this is still considered experimental in the statistical literature. When studying possible self-  
520 selection bias in MoBa, it has been found that women in MoBa differ from other childbearing  
521 women in Norway on several exposures and outcomes (Nilsen et al., 2009). Mental health  
522 variables were not studied with regard to selection bias, but it is possible that the most anxious  
523 and depressed mothers may have dropped out early or never participated in the study. While  
524 the detected differences in exposure and outcomes in MoBa compared to the general

525 population in Norway did affect prevalence estimates, they did not bias association measures  
526 (Nilsen et al., 2009). It is therefore likely that the associations found in the present study  
527 should generalize to similar populations. However, it is possible that the results may not be  
528 valid in other settings, such as in developing countries, or particularly poor neighborhoods,  
529 where more stressors and heterogeneity could be expected.

530

## 531 CONCLUSION

532 In the present sample, associations between pre- and postnatal maternal anxiety and child  
533 internalizing problems appeared to be confounded by genetic or environmental factors shared  
534 between mother and child. The association between pre- and postnatal maternal anxiety and  
535 child externalizing symptoms appeared to be confounded by maternal depressive symptoms as  
536 well as by shared genetic or environmental factors. Maternal anxiety during the preschool  
537 years however, remained associated with concurrent child internalizing, but not externalizing  
538 problems, after sibling comparison. Anxiety symptoms may therefore have more specific  
539 influences on child mental health problems, compared to maternal depression, which has been  
540 found to impact on both child internalizing and externalizing problems. Our results  
541 underscore the importance of concurrent maternal anxiety as a risk factor in the development  
542 of child mental health problems, which has often been overshadowed by the focus on  
543 maternal depression in the previous literature.

544

545

546

547

548

549

550 REFERENCES

- 551 Achenbach, T. M. (1966). The classification of children's psychiatric symptoms: a factor-  
552 analytic study. *Psychological monographs*, 80, 1-37.
- 553 Achenbach, T. M. (1992). *Manual for the Child Behavior Checklist/2-3 and 1992 Profile*.  
554 Burlington , VT: Department of Psychiatry, University of Vermont.
- 555 Appleton, A. A., Armstrong, D. A., Lesseur, C., Lee, J., Padbury, J. F., Lester, B. M., &  
556 Marsit, C. J. (2013). Patterning in placental 11-B hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase  
557 methylation according to prenatal socioeconomic adversity. *Plos One*, 8, 7.  
558 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0074691
- 559 Askew, C., & Field, A. P. (2008). The vicarious learning pathway to fear 40 years on. *Clinical*  
560 *Psychology Review*, 28, 1249-1265. doi:10.1016/j.cpr.2008.05.003
- 561 Babenko, O., Kovalchuk, I., & Metz, G. A. S. (2015). Stress-induced perinatal and  
562 transgenerational epigenetic programming of brain development and mental health.  
563 *Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews*, 48, 70-91.  
564 doi:10.1016/j.neubiorev.2014.11.013
- 565 Barker, E. D., Jaffee, S. R., Uher, R., & Maughan, B. (2011). The contribution of prenatal and  
566 postnatal maternal anxiety and depression to child maladjustment. *Depression and*  
567 *Anxiety*, 28, 696-702.
- 568 Beijers, R., Buitelaar, J. K., & de Weerth, C. (2014). Mechanisms underlying the effects of  
569 prenatal psychosocial stress on child outcomes: beyond the HPA axis. *European Child*  
570 *& Adolescent Psychiatry*, 23, 943-956. doi:10.1007/s00787-014-0566-3
- 571 Bekkhus, M., Lee, Y., Nordhagen, R., Magnus, P., Samuelsen, S. O., & Borge, A. I. H.  
572 (2017). Re-examining the link between prenatal maternal anxiety and child emotional  
573 difficulties, using a sibling design. *International Journal of Epidemiology*, 156-165.  
574 doi:10.1093/ije/dyx186

575 Brooker, R. J., Neiderhiser, J. M., Leve, L. D., Shaw, D. S., Scaramella, L. V., & Reiss, D.  
576 (2015). Associations between infant negative affect and parent anxiety symptoms are  
577 bidirectional: Evidence from mothers and fathers. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 6, 10.  
578 doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2015.01875

579 Cao-Lei, L., Laplante, D. P., & King, S. (2016). Prenatal maternal stress and epigenetics:  
580 Review of the human research. *Current Molecular Biology Reports*, 2, 16-25.  
581 doi:10.1007/s40610-016-0030-x

582 Chilcoat, H. D., & Breslau, N. (1997). Does psychiatric history bias mothers' reports? An  
583 application of a new analytic approach. *Journal of the American Academy of Child  
584 and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 36, 971-979. doi:10.1097/00004583-199707000-00020

585 Creswell, C., Apetroaia, A., Murray, L., & Cooper, P. (2013). Cognitive, affective, and  
586 behavioral characteristics of mothers with anxiety disorders in the context of child  
587 anxiety disorder. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 122, 26-38. doi:10.1037/a0029516

588 Davis, E. P., Snidman, N., Wadhwa, P. D., Glynn, L. M., Schetter, C. D., & Sandman, C. A.  
589 (2004). Prenatal maternal anxiety and depression predict negative behavioral reactivity  
590 in infancy. *Infancy*, 6, 319-331. doi:doi:10.1207/s15327078in0603\_1

591 De Los Reyes, A., Augenstein, T. M., Wang, M., Thomas, S. A., Drabick, D. A. G., Burgers,  
592 D. E., & Rabinowitz, J. (2015). The validity of the multi-informant approach to  
593 assessing child and adolescent mental health. *Psychological Bulletin*, 141, 858-900.  
594 doi:10.1037/a0038498

595 Derogatis, L. R., Lipman, R. S., Rickels, K., Uhlenluth, E. H., & Covi, L. (1974). The  
596 Hopkins Symptom Checklist (HSCL): A self-report symptom inventory. *Behavioral  
597 Science*, 19, 1-15.

598 Eley, T. C., McAdams, T. A., Rijdsdijk, F. V., Lichtenstein, P., Narusyte, J., Reiss, D., . . .  
599 Neiderhiser, J. M. (2015). The intergenerational transmission of anxiety: A Children-



600 of-Twins study. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 172, 630-637.  
601 doi:10.1176/appi.ajp.2015.14070818

602 Gjerde, L. C., Eilertsen, E. M., Reichborn-Kjennerud, T., McAdams, T. A., Zachrisson, H. D.,  
603 Zambrana, I. M., . . . Ystrøm, E. (2017). Maternal perinatal and concurrent depressive  
604 symptoms and child behavior problems: a sibling comparison study. *Journal of Child  
605 Psychology and Psychiatry*, 779-786. doi:10.1111/jcpp.12704

606 Glasheen, C., Richardson, G. A., & Fabio, A. (2010). A systematic review of the effects of  
607 postnatal maternal anxiety on children. *Archives of Womens Mental Health*, 13, 61-74.  
608 doi:10.1007/s00737-009-0109-y

609 Glover, V., O'Connor, T. G., & O'Donnell, K. (2010). Prenatal stress and the programming of  
610 the HPA axis. *Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews*, 35, 17-22.  
611 doi:10.1016/j.neubiorev.2009.11.008

612 Graignic-Philippe, R., Dayan, J., Chokron, S., Jacquet, A. Y., & Tordjman, S. (2014). Effects  
613 of prenatal stress on fetal and child development: A critical literature review.  
614 *Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews*, 43, 137-162.  
615 doi:10.1016/j.neubiorev.2014.03.022

616 Gregory, A. M., Eley, T. C., & Plomin, R. (2004). Exploring the association between anxiety  
617 and conduct problems in a large sample of twins aged 2–4. *Journal of Abnormal Child  
618 Psychology*, 32, 111-122. doi:10.1023/B:JACP.0000019765.29768.1c

619 Gustavson, K., Ystrom, E., Stoltenberg, C., Susser, E., Suren, P., Magnus, P., . . . Reichborn-  
620 Kjennerud, T. (2017). Smoking in pregnancy and child ADHD. *Pediatrics*, 139, 8.  
621 doi:10.1542/peds.2016-2509

622 Helland, S. S., Røysamb, E., Wang, M. V., & Gustavson, K. (2017). Language difficulties and  
623 internalizing problems: bidirectional associations from 18 months to 8 years among  
624 boys and girls. *Development and Psychopathology*. doi:10.1017/S0954579417001559

625 Hesbacher, P. T., Rickels, K., Morris, R. J., Newman, H., & Rosenfeld, H. (1980). Psychiatric  
626 illness in family practice. *Journal of Clinical Psychiatry*, *41*, 6-10.

627 Hofstra, M. B., van der Ende, J., & Verhulst, F. C. (2002). Child and adolescent problems  
628 predict DSM-IV disorders in adulthood: A 14-year follow-up of a Dutch  
629 epidemiological sample. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent*  
630 *Psychiatry*, *41*, 182-189. doi:10.1097/00004583-200202000-00012

631 Hox, J. J. (2010). *Multilevel analysis. Techniques and applications*. New York Routledge.

632 Huizink, A. C., de Medina, P. G., Mulder, E. J., Visser, G. H., & Buitelaar, J. K. (2002).  
633 Psychological measures of prenatal stress as predictors of infant temperament. *Journal*  
634 *of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, *41*, 1078-1085.

635 Kendler, K. S. (1996). Major depression and generalised anxiety disorder. Same genes,  
636 (partly)different environments--revisited. *British Journal of Psychiatry*, 68-75.

637 Kessler, R. C., McGonagle, K. A., Zhao, S. Y., Nelson, C. B., Hughes, M., Eshleman, S., . . .  
638 Kendler, K. S. (1994). Lifetime and 12 month prevalence of DSM-III-R psychiatric  
639 disorders in the United States - Results from the National Comorbidity Survey.  
640 *Archives of General Psychiatry*, *51*, 8-19. Keyes, K. M., Smith, G. D., & Susser, E.  
641 (2013). On sibling designs. *Epidemiology*, *24*, 473-474.  
642 doi:10.1097/EDE.0b013e31828c7381

643 King, S., Dancause, K., Turcotte-Tremblay, A. M., Veru, F., & Laplante, D. P. (2012). Using  
644 natural disasters to study the effects of prenatal maternal stress on child health and  
645 development. *Birth Defects Research Part C-Embryo Today-Reviews*, *96*, 273-288.  
646 doi:10.1002/bdrc.21026

647 Kroes, G., Veerman, J. W., & De Bruyn, E. E. J. (2003). Bias in parental reports? Maternal  
648 psychopathology and the reporting of problem behavior in clinic-referred children.

649 *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*, 19, 195-203. doi:10.1027//1015-  
650 5759.19.3.195

651 Kuja-Halkola, R., D'Onofrio, B. M., Larsson, H., & Lichtenstein, P. (2014). Maternal  
652 smoking during pregnancy and adverse outcomes in offspring: Genetic and  
653 environmental sources of covariance. *Behavior Genetics*, 44, 456-467.  
654 doi:10.1007/s10519-014-9668-4

655 Lahey, B. B., & D'Onofrio, B. M. (2010). All in the family: Comparing siblings to test causal  
656 hypotheses regarding environmental influences on behavior. *Current Directions in*  
657 *Psychological Science*, 19, 319-323. doi:10.1177/0963721410383977

658 Lee, A. M., Lam, S. K., Mun Lau, S. M. S., Chong, C. S. Y., Chui, H. W., & Fong, D. Y. T.  
659 (2007). Prevalence, course, and risk factors for antenatal anxiety and depression.  
660 *Obstetrics and Gynecology*, 110, 1102-1112.  
661 doi:10.1097/01.aog.0000287065.59491.70

662 Li, S., Wong, E. M., Southey, M. C., & Hopper, J. L. (2017). Association between DNA  
663 methylation at SOCS3 gene and body mass index might be due to familial  
664 confounding. *International Journal of Obesity*, 41, 995-996. doi:10.1038/ijo.2017.56

665 Loomans, E. M., van der Stelt, O., van Eijsden, M., Gemke, R., Vrijkotte, T., & Van den  
666 Bergh, B. R. H. (2011). Antenatal maternal anxiety is associated with problem  
667 behaviour at age five. *Early Human Development*, 87, 565-570.  
668 doi:10.1016/j.earlhumdev.2011.04.014

669 Magnus, P., Birke, C., Vejrup, K., Haugan, A., Alsaker, E., Daltveit, A. K., . . . Stoltenberg,  
670 C. (2016). Cohort profile update: The Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study  
671 (MoBa). *International Journal of Epidemiology*, 382-388. doi:10.1093/ije/dyw029

672 Magnus, P., Irgens, L. M., Haug, K., Nystad, W., Skjaerven, R., & Stoltenberg, C. (2006).  
673 Cohort profile: The Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study (MoBa). *International*  
674 *Journal of Epidemiology*, 35, 1146-1150. doi:10.1093/ije/dyl170

675 Martin, N. G., & Eaves, L. J. (1977). The genetical analysis of covariance structure. *Heredity*,  
676 38, 79-95.

677 McAdams, T. A., Rijdsdijk, F. V., Neiderhiser, J. M., Narusyte, J., Shaw, D. S., Natsuaki, M.  
678 N., . . . Eley, T. C. (2015). The relationship between parental depressive symptoms  
679 and offspring psychopathology: evidence from a children-of-twins study and an  
680 adoption study. *Psychological Medicine*. doi:10.1017/S0033291715000501.

681 Mitchell, C., Schneper, L. M., & Notterman, D. A. (2015). DNA methylation, early life  
682 environment, and health outcomes. *Pediatric Research*, 79, 212.  
683 doi:10.1038/pr.2015.193

684 Monk, C., Spicer, J., & Champagne, F. A. (2012). Linking prenatal maternal adversity to  
685 developmental outcomes in infants: The role of epigenetic pathways. *Development*  
686 *and Psychopathology*, 24, 1361-1376. doi:10.1017/s0954579412000764

687 Nilsen, R. M., Vollset, S. E., Gjessing, H. K., Skjaerven, R., Melve, K. K., Schreuder, P., . . .  
688 Magnus, P. (2009). Self-selection and bias in a large prospective pregnancy cohort in  
689 Norway. *Paediatric and Perinatal Epidemiology*, 23, 597-608. doi:10.1111/j.1365-  
690 3016.2009.01062.x

691 O'Connor, T. G., Heron, J., Glover, V., & Alspac Study Team. (2002). Antenatal anxiety  
692 predicts child behavioral/emotional problems independently of postnatal depression.  
693 *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 41, 1470-1477.  
694 doi:10.1097/01.chi.0000024880.60748.38

695 Petzoldt, J., Wittchen, H. U., Einsle, F., & Martini, J. (2016). Maternal anxiety versus  
696 depressive disorders: specific relations to infants' crying, feeding and sleeping  
697 problems. *Child Care Health and Development*, 42, 231-245. doi:10.1111/cch.12292

698 Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method  
699 biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended  
700 remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 879-903. doi:10.1037/0021-  
701 9101.88.5.879

702 Polderman, T. J., Benyamin, B., de Leeuw, C. A., Sullivan, P. F., van Bochoven, A.,  
703 Visscher, P. M., & Posthuma, D. (2015). Meta-analysis of the heritability of human  
704 traits based on fifty years of twin studies. *Nature Genetics*, 47, 702-709.  
705 doi:10.1038/ng.3285

706 Rabe-Hesketh, S., & Skrondal, A. (2012). *Multilevel and longitudinal modeling using Stata* (3  
707 ed. Vol. 1). Texas: Stata Press.

708 Reise, S. P., & Revicki, D. A. (2014). *Handbook of item response theory modeling:  
709 Applications to typical performance assessment*. New York: Routledge.

710 Rice, F., Harold, G. T., Boivin, J., van den Bree, M., Hay, D. F., & Thapar, A. (2010). The  
711 links between prenatal stress and offspring development and psychopathology:  
712 disentangling environmental and inherited influences. *Psychological Medicine*, 40,  
713 335-345. doi:10.1017/s0033291709005911

714 Ross, L. E., & McLean, L. M. (2006). Anxiety disorders during pregnancy and the postpartum  
715 period: A systematic review. *Journal of Clinical Psychiatry*, 67, 1285-1298.

716 Rutter, M. (2006). *Genes and behavior: Nature-nurture interplay explained*. Oxford:  
717 Blackwell Publishing.

718 Salbach-Andrae, H., Lenz, K., & Lehmkuhl, U. (2009). Patterns of agreement among parent,  
719 teacher and youth ratings in a referred sample. *European Psychiatry, 24*, 345-351.  
720 doi:10.1016/j.eurpsy.2008.07.008

721 Sandanger, I., Moum, T., Ingebrigtsen, G., Sorensen, T., Dalgard, O. S., & Bruusgaard, D.  
722 (1999). The meaning and significance of caseness: The Hopkins Symptom Checklist-  
723 25 and the Composite International Diagnostic Interview II. *Social Psychiatry and*  
724 *Psychiatric Epidemiology, 34*, 53-59. doi:10.1007/s001270050112

725 Silberg, J. L., Maes, H., & Eaves, L. J. (2010). Genetic and environmental influences on the  
726 transmission of parental depression to children's depression and conduct disturbance:  
727 an extended Children of Twins study. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 51*,  
728 734-744. doi:10.1111/j.1469-7610.2010.02205.x

729 Singh, A. L., D'Onofrio, B. M., Slutske, W. S., Turkheimer, E., Emery, R. E., Harden, K. P., .  
730 . . Martin, N. G. (2011). Parental depression and offspring psychopathology: a  
731 Children of Twins study. *Psychological Medicine, 41*, 1385-1395.  
732 doi:10.1017/s0033291710002059

733 StataCorp. (2015). *Stata multilevel mixed-effects reference manual. Release 14*. Texas:  
734 StataCorp LP.

735 Stein, A., Pearson, R. M., Goodman, S. H., Rapa, E., Rahman, A., McCallum, M., . . .  
736 Pariante, C. M. (2014). Effects of perinatal mental disorders on the fetus and child.  
737 *Lancet, 384*, 1800-1819. Strand, B. H., Dalgard, O. S., Tambs, K., & Rognerud, M.  
738 (2003). Measuring the mental health status of the Norwegian population: A  
739 comparison of the instruments SCL-25, SCL-10, SCL-5 and MHI-5 (SF-36). *Nordic*  
740 *Journal of Psychiatry, 57*, 113-118. doi:10.1080/08039480310000932

741 Talge, N. M., Neal, C., Glover, V., & Early Stress Transnational Res, P. (2007). Antenatal  
742 maternal stress and long-term effects on child neurodevelopment: how and why?

743 *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 48, 245-261. doi:10.1111/j.1469-  
744 7610.2007.01714.x

745 Tambs, K., & Røysamb, E. (2014). Selection of questions to short-form versions of original  
746 psychometric instruments in MoBa. *Norwegian Journal of Epidemiology*, 195-201.

747 Van Batenburg-Eddes, T., Brion, M. J., Henrichs, J., Jaddoe, V. W. V., Hofman, A., Verhulst,  
748 F. C., . . . Tiemeier, H. (2013). Parental depressive and anxiety symptoms during  
749 pregnancy and attention problems in children: a cross-cohort consistency study.  
750 *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 54, 591-600. doi:10.1111/jcpp.12023

751 Ystrom, E., Hysing, M., Torgersen, L., Ystrom, H., Reichborn-Kjennerud, T., & Sivertsen, B.  
752 (2017). Maternal symptoms of anxiety and depression and child nocturnal awakenings  
753 at 6 and 18 months. *Journal of Pediatric Psychology*. doi:10.1093/jpepsy/jsx066

754

Table 1

Variables used in the multilevel analyses

	Level	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min.	Max.
<b>Dependent variables</b>					
Internalizing	1	50	10	35.72	104.21
Externalizing	1	50	10	31.26	92.92
<b>Predictors (Raw)</b>					
Prenatal anxiety	2	1.16	0.29	1	4
Postpartum anxiety	2	1.14	0.29	1	4
Concurrent anxiety	2	1.16	0.31	1	4
<b>Predictors (Grand-mean centered)</b>					
Prenatal anxiety	2	0	0.29	-0.16	2.84
Postpartum anxiety	2	0	0.29	-0.14	2.86
Concurrent anxiety	1	0	0.31	-0.16	2.84
<b>Predictors (Group-mean centered)</b>					
Prenatal anxiety	2	0	0.12	-1.33	1.50
Postpartum anxiety	2	0	0.13	-1.88	2.25
Concurrent anxiety	1	0	0.12	-1.58	1.50
<b>Covariates</b>					
Child age (years)	1	-2.02	1.47	-3.72	1.67
Child sex	2	0.49	0.50	0	1
Parity	2	0.79	0.82	0	4
Parental education level	2	4.91	1.04	1	6
Prenatal depression	2	1.26	0.36	1	4
Postpartum depression	2	1.26	0.29	1	4
Concurrent depression	2	1.29	0.42	1	4
Gr.MC prenatal depression	2	0	0.36	-0.26	2.74
Gr.MC postpartum depression	2	0	0.38	-0.26	2.74
Gr.MC concurrent depression	1	0	0.42	-0.29	2.71
GMC prenatal depression	2	0	0.16	-1.67	1.69
GMC postpartum depression	2	0	0.17	-1.69	2.25



GMC concurrent depression	1	0	0.17	-1.50	1.50
---------------------------	---	---	------	-------	------

---

N. of observations were 40,457 for all variables. N. of obs = number of observations across the level 1 measures (at 1.5, 3 and 5 years after birth); Level = nested data structure: 1 for occasions and 2 for sibling level. Prenatal = gestation week 30; Postpartum = 0.5 years after birth; Concurrent = 1.5, 3 and 5 years after birth. Predictors and covariates are grand-mean centered (Gr.MC) lest they have a meaningful zero point. Group-mean centering (GMC) of predictors enables sibling comparison.

Table 2

Pearson's correlation coefficients between the anxiety and depression scales

Measures	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
<i>Internalizing (1)</i>	—							
Externalizing (2)	.35***	—						
Prenatal <i>anx.</i> (3)	.15***	.11***	—					
Postpart. <i>anx.</i> (4)	.14***	.11***	.44***	—				
Conc. <i>anx.</i> (5)	.17***	.15***	.39***	.45***	—			
Prenatal <i>depr.</i> (6)	.15***	.13***	.63***	.38***	.33***	—		
Postpart. <i>depr.</i> (7)	.16***	.14***	.37***	.63***	.38***	.48***	—	
Conc. <i>depr.</i> (8)	.19***	.20***	.34***	.37***	.66***	.41***	.47***	—

N = 40,457. \*\*\* =  $p < 0.001$ . Prenatal *anx./depr.* = anxiety/depressive symptoms at gestation week 30; Postpart. *Anx/depr.* = anxiety/depressive symptoms 0.5 years postpartum; Conc.*anx./depr.* = anxiety/depressive symptoms when the child is between age 1,5 – 5 years old.

Table 3

## Results from multilevel modeling of child internalizing problems

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3 (sib. comparison)	
<b>Fixed effects</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>95% CI</b>
<i>Intercept</i>	49.42***	49.14, 49.69	49.59***	49.31, 49.86	49.55***	49.30, 49.81
Prenatal anxiety	2.77***	2.10, 3.44	1.68***	0.90, 2.47	0.38	-0.94, 1.69
Postpartum anxiety	2.39***	1.71, 3.09	0.69	-0.12, 1.50	0.81	-0.54, 2.17
Concurrent anxiety	4.63***	4.04, 5.23	2.05***	1.31, 2.79	1.75*	0.27, 3.23
Prenatal anxiety x child age	0.19	-0.04, 0.42	0.21	-0.06, 0.48	0.36	-0.14, 0.86
Postpartum anxiety x child age	0.33**	0.09, 0.58	0.17	-0.11, 0.45	0.34	-0.18, 0.85
Concurrent anxiety x child age	0.80***	0.57, 1.03	0.39**	0.10, 0.67	0.20	0.38, 0.78
<b>Random effects</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>95% CI</b>
<i>var</i> ( $\varepsilon_{ijk}$ )	63.67	62.32, 65.05	63.48	62.13, 64.86	63.64	62.29, 65.02
<i>var</i> ( $n_{jk}$ )	8.55	7.31, 9.99	8.62	7.38, 10.06	8.05	6.83, 9.48
<i>var</i> ( $n_{0k}$ )	32.46	29.96, 35.16	30.55	28.12, 33.19	39.50	36.81, 42.40
<i>var</i> ( $n_{1k}$ )	1.03	0.80, 1.32	1.02	0.79, 1.31	1.15	0.91, 1.44
	<b>Est. (corr)</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b>Est. (corr)</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b>Est. (corr)</b>	<b>95% CI</b>
<i>cov</i> ( $n_{0k}, n_{1k}$ )	4.25 (0.73)	3.57, 4.93	4.07 (0.73)	3.40, 4.75	5.02 (0.74)	4.30, 5.73
AIC	295,117.0		294,770.1		296,049.6	

\* =  $p < 0.05$ , \*\* =  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\* =  $p < 0.001$ . Model 1 adjusted for each anxiety period + interaction between anxiety symptoms at each period and child age + age, sex, parity and education. Model 2 = Model 1 + adjusted for depressive symptoms at each period and interaction between depressive symptoms at each period and child age. Model 3 = Model 2, not adjusted for education + sibling comparison. *var* ( $\varepsilon_{ijk}$ ) = variance at the individual level; *var* ( $n_{jk}$ ) = variance at the sibling level; *var* ( $n_{0k}$ ) = variance in intercept at mother level; *var* ( $n_{1k}$ ) = variance in slope at mother level; *cov* ( $n_{0k}, n_{1k}$ ) = covariance intercept and slope at mother level. Prenatal anxiety = gestational week 30; Postpartum anxiety = 0.5 years postpartum; Concurrent anxiety = 1.5, 3 and 5 years postpartum (concurrent measure with child internalizing and externalizing problems).

Table 4

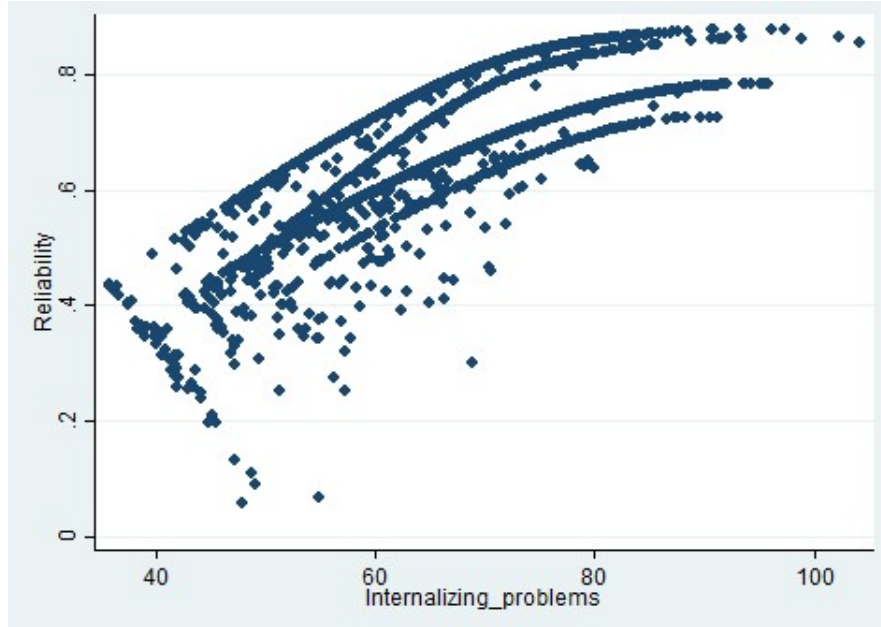
## Results from multilevel modeling of child externalizing problems

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3 (sib. comparison)	
<b>Fixed effects</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>95% CI</b>
<i>Intercept</i>	47.83***	47.55, 48.11	48.01***	47.74, 48.29	48.03***	47.78, 48.28
Prenatal anxiety	1.56***	0.91, 2.21	0.41	-0.36, 1.17	0.05	-1.18, 1.28
Postpartum anxiety	1.57***	0.90, 2.24	0.36	-0.43, 1.14	0.72	-0.54, 1.98
Concurrent anxiety	3.60***	3.04, 4.16	0.48	-0.22, 1.17	0.81	-0.54, 2.17
Prenatal anxiety x child age	0.08	-0.13, 0.29	0.07	-0.18, 0.32	-0.07	-0.52, 0.38
Postpartum anxiety x child age	0.09	-0.14, 0.31	0.12	-0.14, 0.38	0.24	-0.22, 0.70
Concurrent anxiety x child age	0.56***	0.34, 0.77	-0.09	-0.35, 0.18	-0.13	-0.66, 0.39
<b>Random effects</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>95% CI</b>
<i>var</i> ( $\varepsilon_{ijk}$ )	49.93	48.86, 51.02	49.80	48.73, 50.89	49.97	48.89, 51.06
<i>var</i> ( $n_{jk}$ )	12.57	11.40, 13.87	12.68	11.50, 13.98	12.29	11.12, 13.59
<i>var</i> ( $n_{0k}$ )	41.58	38.99, 44.35	39.00	36.48, 41.69	45.97	43.25, 48.86
<i>var</i> ( $n_{1k}$ )	1.32	1.11, 1.57	1.28	1.07, 1.52	1.35	1.14, 1.60
	<b>Est. (corr)</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b>Est. (corr)</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b>Est. (corr)</b>	<b>95% CI</b>
<i>cov</i> ( $n_{0k}, n_{1k}$ )	5.30 (0.72)	4.66, 5.95	5.01 (0.71)	4.37, 5.64	5.66 (0.72)	5.00, 6.32
AIC	290,773.0		290,369.8		291,365.4	

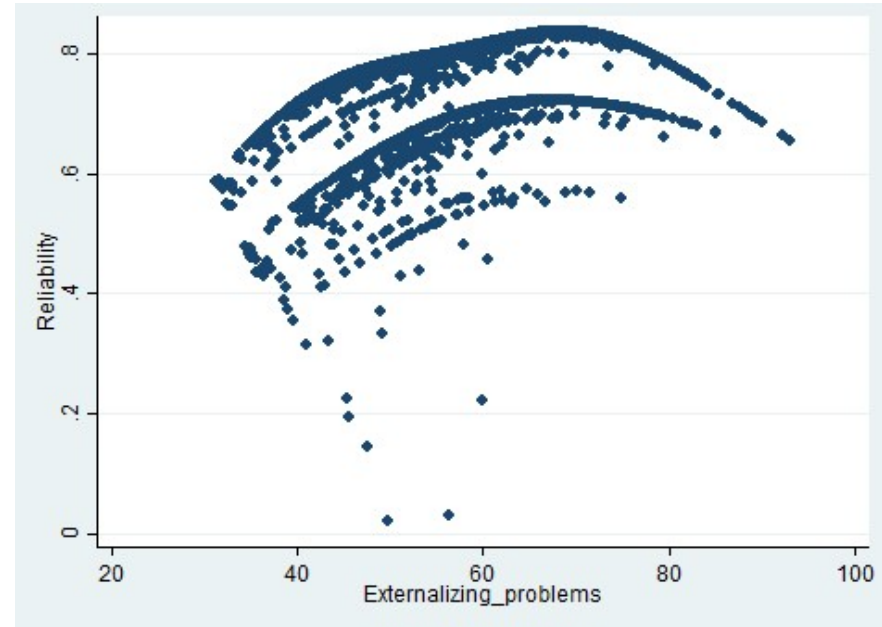
\* =  $p < 0.05$ , \*\* =  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\* =  $p < 0.001$ . Model 1 adjusted for each anxiety period, and interaction between anxiety symptoms at each period and child age + age, sex, parity and education. Model 2 = Model 1 + adjusted for depressive symptoms at each period and interaction between depressive symptoms at each period and child age. Model 3 = Model 2, not adjusted for education + adjusted for familial confounding (sibling comparison). Please see Table 3 for explanations of abbreviations.

Figure 1

a)

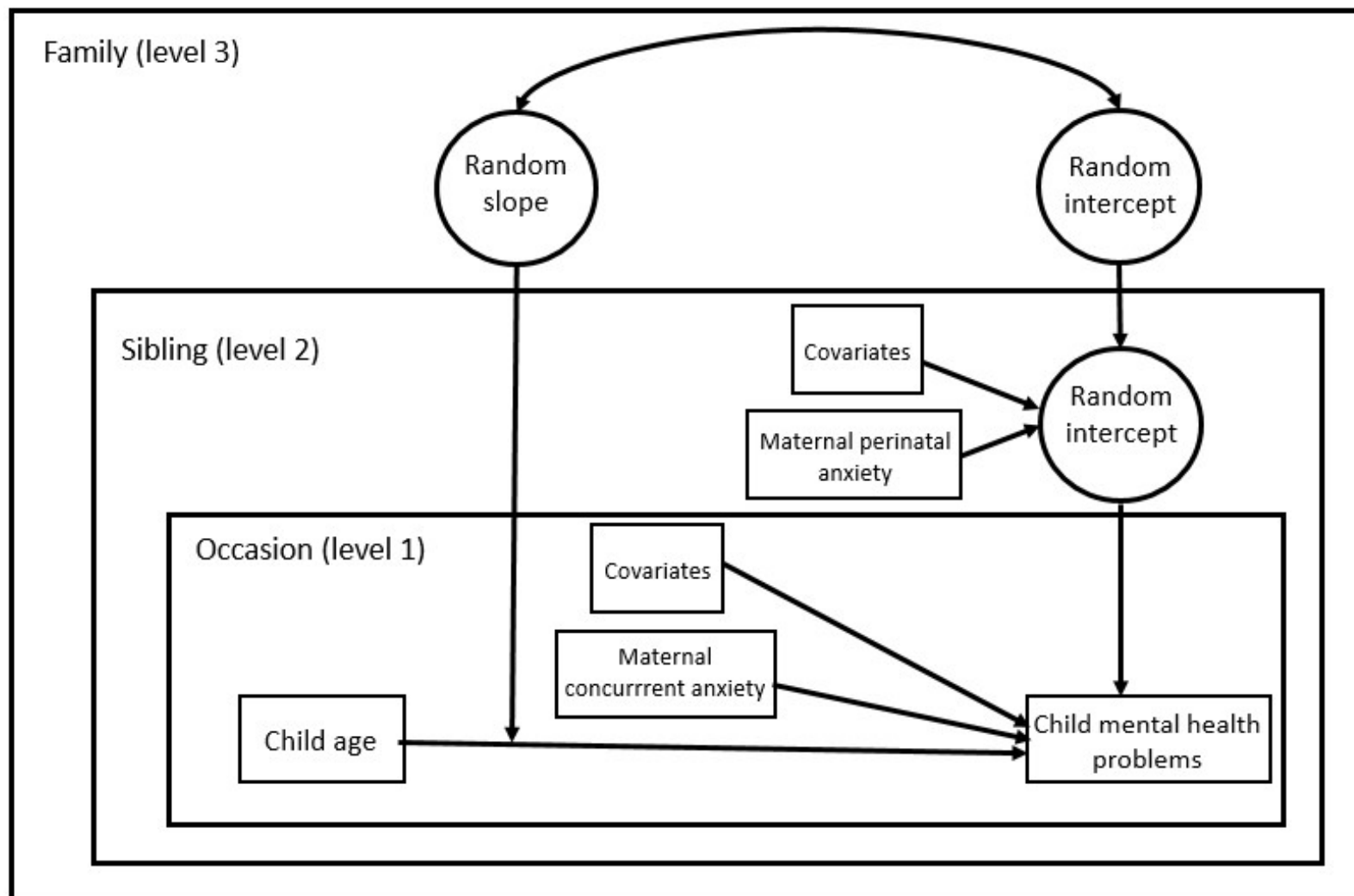


b)



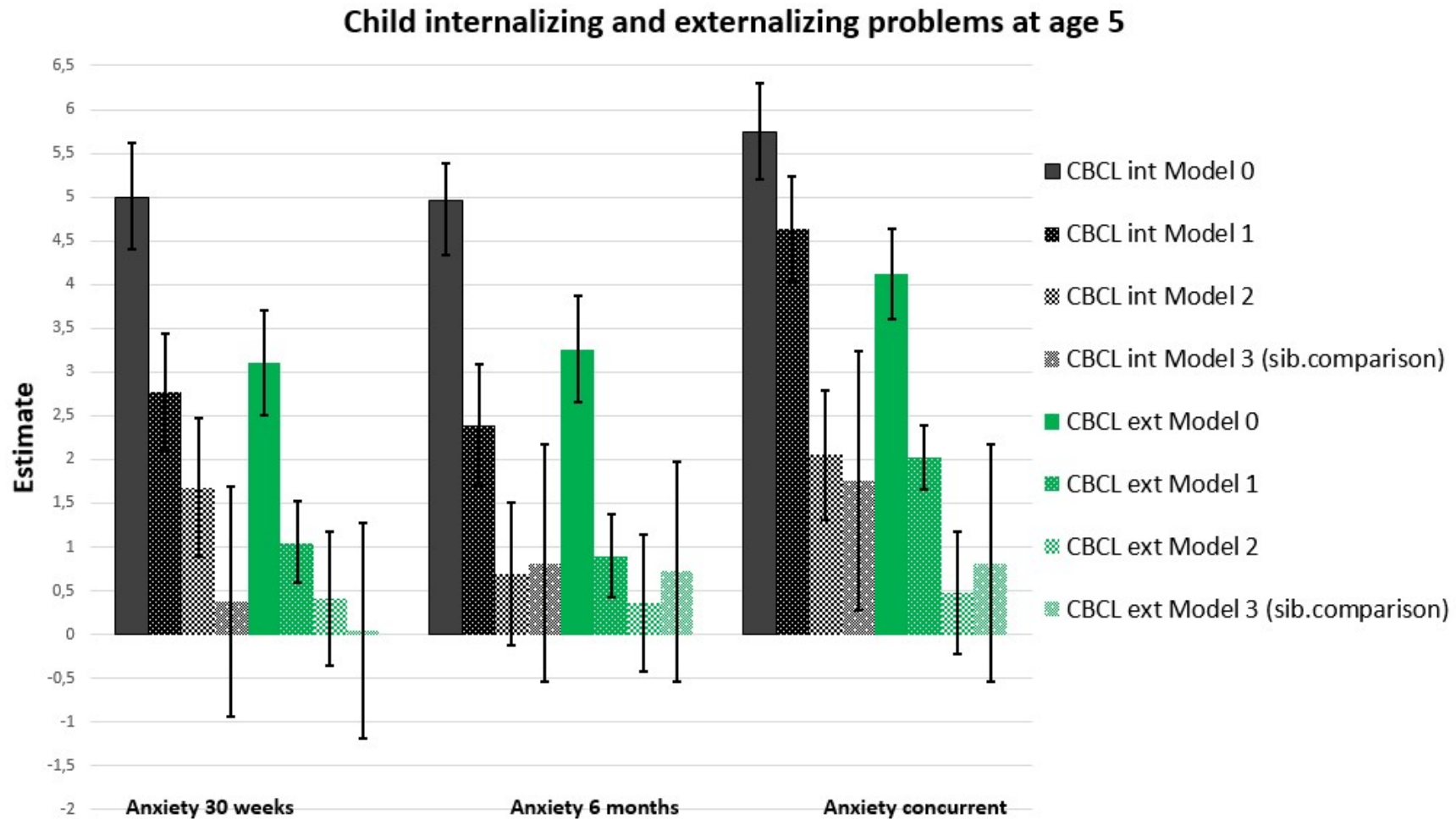
Reliability as a function of scores on the outcome variables

Figure 2



Basic model used in the analyses. The frames represent each nesting level in the data. Rectangles represent fixed (observed) variables, whereas the ellipses represent random (latent) variables.

Figure 3



Main unstandardized estimates with 95% CI of anxiety on internalizing and externalizing problems at age 5. CBCL = Child Behavior Checklist, int = internalizing problems, ext = externalizing problems, Model 0 = adjusted for covariates, Model 1 = Model 0 + adjusted for each anxiety period, Model 2 = Model 1 + adjusted for each depression period, Model 3 (sib. control) = Model 2 + adjusted for familial confounding. 30 weeks = 30<sup>th</sup> gestation week; 6 months = 6 months postpartum; concurrent = 1.5, 3 and 5 years after birth. The bars should be read from left to right, as this corresponds to the key presented from top to bottom.