Prenatal Maternal Psychological Distress and Offspring Risk for Recurrent Respiratory Infections

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Objective To assess the relation between maternal prenatal psychological distress, comprising depression and anxiety symptoms and relationship quality, and the risk of recurrent respiratory infections (RRIs) in children up to 2 years of age. Children with RRIs frequently use health care services and antibiotics. Prenatal maternal psychological distress can be one, previously unidentified risk factor for RRIs.

Study design The study population was drawn from a population-based pregnancy cohort in Finland (www.finnbrain.fi). Children with RRIs (n = 204) and a comparison group (n = 1014) were identified by maternal reports at the child age of 12 or 24 months. The Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale, Symptom Checklist-90 anxiety subscale, the Pregnancy-Related Anxiety Questionnaire–Revised 2, and the Revised Dyadic Adjustment Scale were used to assess maternal symptoms and parental relationship quality at 34 weeks of gestation. Adjustment for maternal postnatal depressive and anxiety symptoms was performed.

Results Maternal prenatal Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale (OR, 1.24; 95% CI, 1.08-1.44), Symptom Checklist-90/Anxiety (OR, 1.40; 95% CI, 1.01-1.76), Pregnancy-Related Anxiety Questionnaire–Revised 2 (OR, 1.28; 95% CI, 1.11-1.47), and Revised Dyadic Adjustment Scale (OR, 1.32; 95% CI, 1.01-1.58) total sum scores were associated with child RRIs by the age of 24 months. Greater number of siblings, shorter duration of breastfeeding, and the level of maternal education were also identified as risk factors for child RRIs.

Conclusions Maternal prenatal psychological distress is linked with a higher risk for child RRIs. *(J Pediatr 2019;208:229-35)*.

Respiratory tract infections caused by respiratory viruses circulating in the community are often complicated by acute otitis media even in the pneumococcal conjugate vaccine era, and antibiotic use is common.[1-3] Compared with prior decades, the incidence of acute otitis media has decreased, but still almost one-half of infants experience acute otitis media by 12 months of age.[3]

Children <2 years of age have limited acquired immunity, which among other reasons may lead to recurrent respiratory infections (RRIs). About 10% of all children <2 years of age suffer from recurrent upper and lower respiratory tract infections,[4] although the definition of RRIs has not been broadly agreed upon. Previous research has consistently identified parental smoking during and after pregnancy,[5,6] lower socioeconomic status of the family,[7] shorter duration of breastfeeding,[3,6] (greater) number of siblings,[6] and out-of-home daycare[6,8] as risk factors for RRIs in children. Exposure to environmental psychosocial stressors prenatally also may influence immunity and the risk of RRIs.[9,10] Several studies linking maternal prenatal psychological distress with atopic disorders of childhood indicate that the in utero environment influences immune development independent of genetic susceptibility.[11]

Previous studies do suggest that maternal psychological distress during pregnancy is associated with long-lasting changes in immune function as well as alterations in disease resistance in the offspring.[10,12] Animal experiments have shown that prenatal maternal stress can increase susceptibility to infectious diseases in the offspring.[10] However, there are few human studies.[9,13-15] In the Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study 2015,[14] it was noted that prenatal maternal relationship dissatisfaction and stressful life events were significantly associated with an increased frequency of infectious diseases in the offspring after controlling for crucial confounding factors. Beijers et al found that maternal pregnancy related anxiety as well as mothers' circadian cortisol

EPDS	Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale
PRAQ-R2	Pregnancy-Related Anxiety Questionnaire–Revised 2
RDAS	Revised Dyadic Adjustment Scale
RRI	Recurrent respiratory infection
SCL-90	Symptom Checklist 90 anxiety subscale

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Funded by the Academy of Finland (#134950, [to L.Ka. and H.K.]), the Foundation for Pediatric Research (to L.Ko.), Signe and Ane Gyllenberg Foundation (to L.Ko., L.Ka., N.S., and H.K.), State grant of the Hospital District of Southwest Finland (to L.Ko., L.Ka., N.S., and H.K.), and Sohlberg Foundation, Finland (L.Ko. and L.Ka.). None of the funding sources had a role in study design, data collection, analyses, interpretation of data, writing of the report, or decision to submit this manuscript for publication. The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpeds.2018.12.050

from saliva samples were both associated with an elevated risk for child respiratory tract infections.[13] In addition, The Pregnancy-Related Anxiety Questionnaire (PRAQ) first subscale—fear of giving birth—was related to greater use of antibiotics during the first year of life.[13]

The health and well-being of children are linked to their parents' physical and emotional health, social conditions, and child-rearing practices.[16] The programming effect of early life stress on child RRIs may be driven not only by mothers' individual well-being, but also by other environmental factors within the families. During pregnancy, the parental relationship is often the main source of psychological support for both adults. Thus, the parental relationship can be viewed as one of the fundamental sources of stress regulation and its poorer quality is one of the most important stressors in parents' lives during the prenatal period.

This study aimed at investigating prospectively the impact of maternal psychological distress as measured by maternal reports of depressive or anxiety symptoms and marital satisfaction during the third trimester on the risk of a child's RRIs up to 2 years of age. We hypothesized that the diverse measures of maternal prenatal psychological distress independently increase the risk of RRIs in infancy and toddlerhood after adjusting for other key environmental factors such as the duration of breastfeeding, number of siblings, parental smoking, socioeconomic status, and postnatal distress symptoms.

Methods

The FinnBrain Birth Cohort Study (www.finnbrain.fi) is a transgenerational, prospective, observational study investigating the effects of prenatal and early life stress exposure on child health.[17] Recruitment took place at 3 maternal welfare clinics of a geographically defined area, which performed pregnancy ultrasound scans for the women eventually referred to give birth at the Turku University Hospital in the Hospital District of Southwest Finland and the Åland Islands in Finland. The recruitment took place between December 2011 and April 2015 and relied on personal contact by research nurses who were placed at the recruitment sites. The cohort consists of 3808 women who attended the free-of-charge ultrasounds in early pregnancy (12 weeks of gestation), their 3837 babies, and 2623 fathers/partners. Mothers and fathers were considered eligible to participate in the study if they had a verified pregnancy and sufficient knowledge of Finnish or Swedish (the official languages of Finland) to fill in the study questionnaires. Participating parents gave written informed consent for themselves and on behalf of the expected child. The participants were informed that they could discontinue at any time without having to give an explanation and that no monetary compensation was provided for participation. The Ethics Committee of the Hospital District of Southwest Finland approved the study protocol.

Identification of Children With and Without RRIs

The study population was selected from among the cohort participants who had responded to the questionnaires by December 2017 (n = 1443). Children with RRIs (n = 204; 1 child per family) were identified from maternal reports on a question "Has your child had recurrent infections" (yes/no) at the child age of 12 and/or 24 months. This single question was applied as a method to determine the RRI group, because no absolute consensus exists on the number of infections per year that would define recurrent infections.[4] Information on the number and timing (child age) of infections and antibiotic treatments as well as the number of physician visits at ages 3, 6, 12, and 24 months and any physician-assessed pediatric diagnoses were inquired.

Of the entire RRI group, 91 children were included based on the 12-month questionnaire (6% of cohort children) and the remaining 155 (11% of cohort children) based on the 24-month questionnaire. There were 40 families (20%) out of the 204 who had responded yes to the question on RRIs both at 12 and 24 months. The group of children without RRIs, later referred to as the comparison group, was also selected on the basis of parental responses on the 12-month and 24-month questionnaires. Responding no regarding recurrent infections at both time points was the criterion to be in the comparison group (n = 1014; **Figure**; available on www.jpeds.com).

Sociodemographic and Other Background Factors

The research questionnaires were either mailed to the participants or could be filled out online, according to each participant's choice. The parents answered the questionnaires at gestational weeks 14, 24, and 34 as well as at child ages of 3, 6, 12, and 24 months. The data on background factors were collected from maternal questionnaires. Educational level was categorized into low (≤12 years of education), medium (13-15 years), and high (>15 years). Further, the number of siblings, smoking during pregnancy (yes/no) and during the postnatal period (yes/no), duration of breastfeeding (months), daycare attendance at the child age of 12 months (yes/no), and the number of daycare days per week were assessed. Pregnancy and infant birth characteristics were obtained from the Finnish Medical Birth Register kept by the National Institute for Health and Welfare (www.thl.fi).

Psychological Distress: Symptoms of Depression and Anxiety, and Relationship Satisfaction/Quality

Parental depressive symptoms were assessed using the Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale (EPDS), a widely used, sensitive meter of both postnatal and prenatal depressive symptoms, with 10 items each rated from 0 to 3 (higher scores indicating more depressive symptoms).[18]

Parental symptoms of anxiety were assessed using the Symptom Checklist 90 (SCL-90) anxiety subscale, a reliable and valid symptom measure consisting of 10 items each rated from 0 to 5.[19] Again, higher scores indicate more pronounced symptoms.

Pregnancy-specific anxiety was assessed using The PRAQ–Revised (PRAQ-R2),[20] a 10-item shortened version of the PRAQ. The items of the PRAQ-R2 can be ordered into 3 subscales. The first subscale, fear of giving birth, consists of 3 items such as "I am worried about the pain of contractions and the pain during delivery." The second subscale, worries about bearing a physically or mentally handicapped child, consists of 4 items, including, "I sometimes think that our child will be in poor health or will be prone to illnesses." The third subscale, concern about own appearance, consists of 3 items, such as, "I am worried about my enormous weight gain." Scores on each item ranged from 1 to 5.

Relationship satisfaction was assessed using the Revised Dyadic Adjustment Scale (RDAS),[21] a 14-item version of the DAS24, measuring couple/partner adjustment in 3 domains. Factor 1 (consensus) consists of career decisions and religious matters (measured as always agree, almost always agree, occasionally agree, frequently disagree, almost always disagree, always disagree). Factor 2 (satisfaction) consists of the following items: "How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation, or terminating your relationship?" and "How often do you and your partner quarrel?" (measured as all the time, most of the time, more often than not, occasionally, rarely, never). Factor 3 (cohesion) consists of the following items: work together on a project and calmly discuss something (measured as never, less than once a month, once or twice a month, once or twice a week, once a day, more often). Each item is scaled from 1 to 6, the total scores thus ranging from 14 to 84. Higher scores represent lower levels of relationship satisfaction. The cutoff score of 36 has been used to separate couples between 2 groups (distress vs nondistress) in a previous study.[22]

Continuous sum scores of the EPDS, SCL-90/anxiety, PRAQ-R2, and RDAS subscale were used, because this general population-based sample was likely to yield a very low number of subjects scoring above the clinical thresholds available.

Statistical Analyses

All statistical analyses were conducted using IBM SPSS 24.0 (SPSS, Inc, Cary, North Carolina). Sociodemographic and

Table I. Study population characteristics in children with and without RRI

	RRI group (n = 204)	Comparison group (n = 1014)	*P* value
Mothers' age	31.5 ± 4.4	31.1 ± 4.3	.38
Maternal education*			.10
Low	28.0	28.3	
Middle	35.0	27.7	
High	37.0	44.0	
Maternal smoking at the child age of 3 months† (yes/no)	10.0	6.6	.11
Exclusive breastfeeding, months	3.3 ± 2.1	3.7 ± 2.1	.02
Child sex male	56	53	.42
Gestational age, weeks	39.6 ± 1.6	39.7 ± 1.7	.03
Siblings‡			<.001
0	43	60	
1	41	29	
2	13	10	
≥3	3	1	
Outside-home daycare at the child age of 12 months§	22.0	16.0	.05
Daycare days per week	1.6 ± 2.1	1 ± 1.8	.02
Tympanostomy tube insertions¶	59	4	<.001
Antibiotic treatments before 1 year of age			<.001
0	39	75	
1-4	41	24.4	
5-10	20	0.6	
>10	0	0	
Antibiotic treatments before 2 years of age			<.001
0	9	57	
1-4	33	38	
5-10	49	5	
>10	8	0	
Infections before 1 year of age			<.001
0	28	58	
1-4	42	37	
5-10	28	5	
>10	2	0	
Infections before 2 years of age			<.001
0	0	44	
1-4	24	40	
5-10	53	15	
>10	24	1	

P values are based on χ^2 and Mann-Whitney *U* tests for categorical and continuous variables, respectively. Values are mean ± SD or percent.
*RRI group (n = 189), comparison group (n = 973).
†RRI group (n = 194), comparison group (n = 974).
‡RRI group (n = 187), comparison group (n = 1013).
§RRI group (n = 186), comparison group (n = 1010).
¶RRI group (n = 173), comparison group (n = 984).

other background data as well questionnaire data were compared between the RRI group and comparison group by using the χ^2 or Mann-Whitney *U* tests. Binary logistic regression was used to study the association between maternal prenatal psychological distress and child RRI status. The dependent variable was RRIs (0 = no, 1 = yes) and independent variables were duration of gestation, duration of breastfeeding, number of siblings, maternal smoking, maternal level of education, and maternal depressive (EPDS) and anxiety (SCL-90/anxiety) symptoms at the child age of 2 years. These covariates were included because they are previously identified and well-established risk factors for RRIs.[3-7] Postnatal symptoms of depression or anxiety were included to control for possible maternal report bias.[23,24] Because all the children were not born at full term, gestational age was also included as a potential covariate in the analyses. Owing to multicollinearity, separate analyses were performed for each questionnaire (EPDS, SCL-90/anxiety, PRAQ-R2, and RDAS total sum scores). Analyses with prenatal EPDS and RDAS total sum scores were adjusted by maternal EPDS score at the child age of 2 years and the analyses with prenatal SCL-90/anxiety and PRAQ-R2 scores were adjusted by maternal SCL-90/anxiety score at the child age of 2 years.

Results

The distributions and between-groups differences in sociodemographic and other background factors of the children with RRIs (n = 204) and the comparison group without RRIs (n = 1014) are presented in Table I. The majority of children (77%) in the RRI group had >5 respiratory infections before 2 years of age and 16% of the comparison group reported >5 respiratory tract infections ($P < .001$). Children in the RRI group had much more frequent antibiotic treatments than the comparison group before 2 years of age; 57% of children in the RRI group had >5 antibiotic treatments ($P < .001$). One-half of the children in the RRI group had tympanostomy tubes inserted, whereas in the comparison group only 4% of the children had tubes inserted (Table I).

In univariate analyses, group comparisons showed significant differences in all maternal prenatal psychological distress questionnaires (Table II). Thus, mothers in the RRI group reported significantly higher scores on each scale (EPDS, PRAQ-R2, SCL-90/anxiety, and RDAS), indicating elevated levels of symptoms of depression ($P < .001$), pregnancy-specific anxiety ($P = .001$) and anxiety ($P = .04$), and lower levels of parental relationship satisfaction ($P = .008$) when compared with the comparison group (Table II). Postnatally, the mothers in the RRI group reported more symptoms of depression and anxiety, and lower levels of relationship satisfaction when the child was 2 years old ($P = .001$, $P = .03$, $P = .003$, respectively; Table II). Of the preselected covariates, a significant difference was seen in univariate analyses regarding duration of gestation, breastfeeding, and number of siblings between the RRI group and comparison group. No significant difference was observed in maternal education and smoking.

Table II. Total scores on the PRAQ-R2, SCL90/Anxiety, EPDS, and RDAS questionnaires in the RRI and comparison groups

	Mothers		
	*RRI group**	Comparison group†	*P* value
PRAQ-R2			
34 of weeks gestation	24.2 ± 6.9	22.6 ± 6.5	.001
SCL90/Anxiety			
34 of weeks gestation	3.8 ± 4.5	3.0 ± 3.8	.04
24 months of age	3.5 ± 4.3	2.5 ± 3.8	.03
EPDS			
34 of weeks gestation	5.6 ± 4.2	4.4 ± 4.0	<.001
24 months of age	5.4 ± 4.1	4.3 ± 4.1	.001
RDAS			
34 of weeks gestation	32.1 ± 8.0	30.4 ± 6.0	.008
24 months of age	34.0 ± 8.6	31.7 ± 7.4	.003

P values are based on Mann-Whitney *U* tests. Values are mean ± SD.
*In the RRI group: PRAQ, n = 188 at 34 weeks of gestation and n = 0 at 24 months of age; SCL, n = 191 at 34 weeks of gestation and n = 177 at 24 months of age; EPDS, n = 192 at 34 weeks of gestation and n = 177 at 24 months of age; RDAS, n = 189 at 34 weeks of gestation and n = 169 at 24 months of age.
†In the comparison group: PRAQ, n = 983 at 34 weeks of gestation and n = 0 at 24 months of age; SCL/Anxiety, n = 982 at 34 weeks of gestation and n = 1006 at 24 months of age; EPDS, n = 986 at 34 weeks of gestation and n = 1006 at 24 months of age; RDAS, n = 967 at 34 weeks of gestation and n = 967 at 24 months of age.

Logistic regression analyses were performed to see if the associations between maternal prenatal psychological distress and child RRIs remained after adjusting for the selected covariates. Analyses with prenatal EPDS and RDAS total sum scores resulted in an OR of 1.24 (95% CI, 1.08-1.44) and an OR of 1.32 (95% CI, 1.01-1.58), respectively, for child RRIs. Number of siblings and shorter duration of exclusive breastfeeding were also risk factors (Table III). Regarding the prenatal maternal anxiety symptom questionnaires, ORs for child RRIs were 1.40 (95% CI, 1.01-1.76, SCL90/Anxiety scale) and 1.28 (95% CI, 1.11-1.47, PRAQ-R2). Maternal level of education was also a significant risk factor in the models including the anxiety questionnaires (Table III). After consideration of the number of siblings and the duration of breastfeeding, maternal prenatal psychological distress remained as an independent risk factor for the RRIs in our analyses covering the first 24 months of postnatal life (Table III).

Discussion

Our cohort study demonstrated that maternal symptoms of depression and anxiety and declined marital satisfaction in late pregnancy are associated with recurrent respiratory infections in children after controlling for essential confounding factors. Previous research on this topic has not focused on RRIs, but rather on a wider spectrum of pediatric infections[9,13-15] and has not used such diverse queries on maternal psychological wellbeing. Prior research also has focused more on the postnatal distress effect of child RRIs on family relations.[25]

Table III. Binary logistic regression analyses on maternal psychological distress at gestational weeks 34 predicting child RRIs by the age of 2 years (n = 1218) separately for each questionnaire

	B	*P* value	OR	95% CI
Model 1				
EPDS at 34 of gestation	0.073	.003	1.24	1.08-1.44
Duration of breastfeeding	−0.106	.02	0.90	0.82-0.98
Number of siblings	0.278	.008	1.32	1.08-1.62
Duration of gestation	−0.038	.53	0.96	0.86-1.08
Maternal level of education (ref. high)		.06		
Low	−0.313	.21	0.73	0.45-1.20
Middle	0.295	.17	1.34	0.89-2.05
Maternal smoking	0.143	.70	1.15	0.57-2.34
EPDS at the child age of 2 years	0.014	.60	1.01	0.97-1.06
Model 2				
SCL90/Anxiety at 34 weeks of gestation	0.067	.006	1.40	1.01-1.76
Duration of breastfeeding	−0.102	.02	0.9	0.83-0.99
Number of siblings	0.303	.003	1.36	1.11–1.67
Duration of gestation	−0.048	.42	0.95	0.85-1.07
Maternal level of education (ref. high)		.045		
Low	−0.306	.22	0.74	0.45-1.20
Middle	0.322	.14	1.38	0.90-2.11
Maternal smoking	0.187	.60	1.2	0.60-1.66
SCL90/Anxiety at the child age of 2 years	0.009	.74	1.00	0.96-1.1
Model 3				
PRAQ-R2 at 34 weeks of gestation	0.049	.001	1.28	1.11-1.47
Duration of breastfeeding	−0.103	.02	0.90	0.83-1.00
Number of siblings	0.378	<.001	1.46	1.18-1.80
Duration of gestation	−0.034	.58	0.9	0.83-0.99
Maternal level of education (ref. high)		.048		
Low	−0.316	.21	0.73	0.45-1.20
Middle	0.311	.15	1.37	0.89-2.10
Maternal smoking	0.134	.72	1.14	0.55-2.38
SCL90/Anxiety at the child age of 2 years	0.020	.38	1.02	0.98-1.08
Model 4				
RDAS at 34 weeks of gestation	0.046	.003	1.32	1.01-1.58
Duration of breastfeeding	−0.110	.02	0.90	0.82-0.98
Number of siblings	0.280	.007	1.32	1.08-1.62
Duration of gestation	−0.049	.42	0.95	0.85-1.07
Maternal level of education (ref. High)		.07		
Low	−0.286	.25	0.75	0.46-1.23
Middle	0.301	.17	1.35	0.88-2.08
Maternal smoking	0.132	.72	1.14	0.56-2.32
EPDS at the child age of 2 years	0.037	.08	1.04	1.00-1.08

Independent variables: EPDS, SCL90/Anxiety, PRAQ-R2 total sum, RDAS total sum, at gestational weeks 34, duration of breastfeeding, number of siblings, duration of gestation, maternal smoking and level of education, and mothers' EPDS or SCL90/Anxiety score at the child age of 2 years.
The effect of an increase on the EPDS score on the RRI risk as OR was calculated by using a 3-point increase, that is, minimum vs maximum points per question (maximum sum of 30 points), SCL score OR by using a 5-point increase (maximum sum of 50), PRAQ-R2 total sum score OR by using a 5-point increase (maximum sum of 50) and RDAS total sum score OR was estimated by using a 6-point increase (maximum sum of 84).

Having a greater number of siblings and a shorter duration of exclusive breastfeeding were also risk factors for a child's RRIs. These findings are in line with previous studies.[4] In this study, 57% of the mothers were primiparous. The number of out-of-home daycare days is also a previously established risk factor for recurrent infections.[4,8] In our study, no significant difference was seen between the RRI group and comparison group regarding daycare attendance at 12 months of age, but a significant difference was seen regarding the number of daycare days. We did not conduct more detailed analyses on the associations between daycare characteristics and RRIs.

It should be noted that the data on child health and identification of the RRIs were based on maternal reports. Previous studies[24,25] have suggested that stressed mothers are more likely to seek medical care for minor symptoms that could be managed with family-initiated care. Huizink et al suggested that particularly prenatal maternal anxiety—both general anxiety and pregnancy-specific anxiety—were important predictors of almost all aspects of parenting stress later on.[26] It is likely that women with increased stress levels during pregnancy continue to worry as a parent. In our analyses, maternal prenatal general and pregnancy-specific anxiety, were both risk factors for child's RRIs, along with level of education. This association between RRIs and education was not seen in the analyses, including EPDS and RDAS questionnaires.

Although we cannot completely distinguish the behavioral aspect (eg, distressed mothers are more prone to take their child to doctor appointments, family health behavior[16]) from fetal programming, maternal psychological distress was an independent risk factor for RRIs after adjusting for other important environmental risk factors, placing our results in the context of prenatal and early life stress exposure and its potential effects on the development of the child's

immune system. Although it remains unclear how exactly maternal prenatal stress affects the immune system of the offspring, it has been suggested that maternal hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis functioning would play a role.[13,27,28] Both animal and human studies suggest that stress-related maternal cortisol increases fetal exposure to cortisol and can subsequently affect the development of the fetus' immune domains.[10,12] The fetus is exposed to elevated levels of endogenous glucocorticoids in conditions where the levels of glucocorticoids are elevated in the mother or when the placental 11β-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase 2 barrier decreases. Maternal stress may result in secretion of catecholamines, which may downregulate human placental 11β-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase 2 during gestation.[29] This may alter newborn hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis function, which plays an important immunomodulatory role during viral infections.[28]

Main strengths of this study are the large comparison group size, prospective study design, the longitudinal measurements during the prenatal and postnatal periods with extensive measurements of maternal psychosocial stress with validated questionnaires. Because this was a questionnaire-based study, report bias may occur. However, the fact that our RRI group clearly differed from the control group in antibiotic treatments and insertion of tympanostomy tubes indicates that the maternal report actually depicts children with exceptionally high rates of respiratory tract infections.

During sensitive periods of fetal development, exposure to maternal psychological distress may cause programming effects on future health.[30] Previous studies have found an association between maternal psychological distress and childhood atopic diseases.[11] Our study showed that prenatal maternal distress should be considered as a potential risk factor for later childhood respiratory infections. As pediatricians, we should work to address maternal stress prenatally to enhance offspring health. We need additional research to further understand the mechanisms and to develop targeted and efficient interventions. ■

Submitted for publication Aug 27, 2018; last revision received Nov 26, 2018; accepted Dec 20, 2018.

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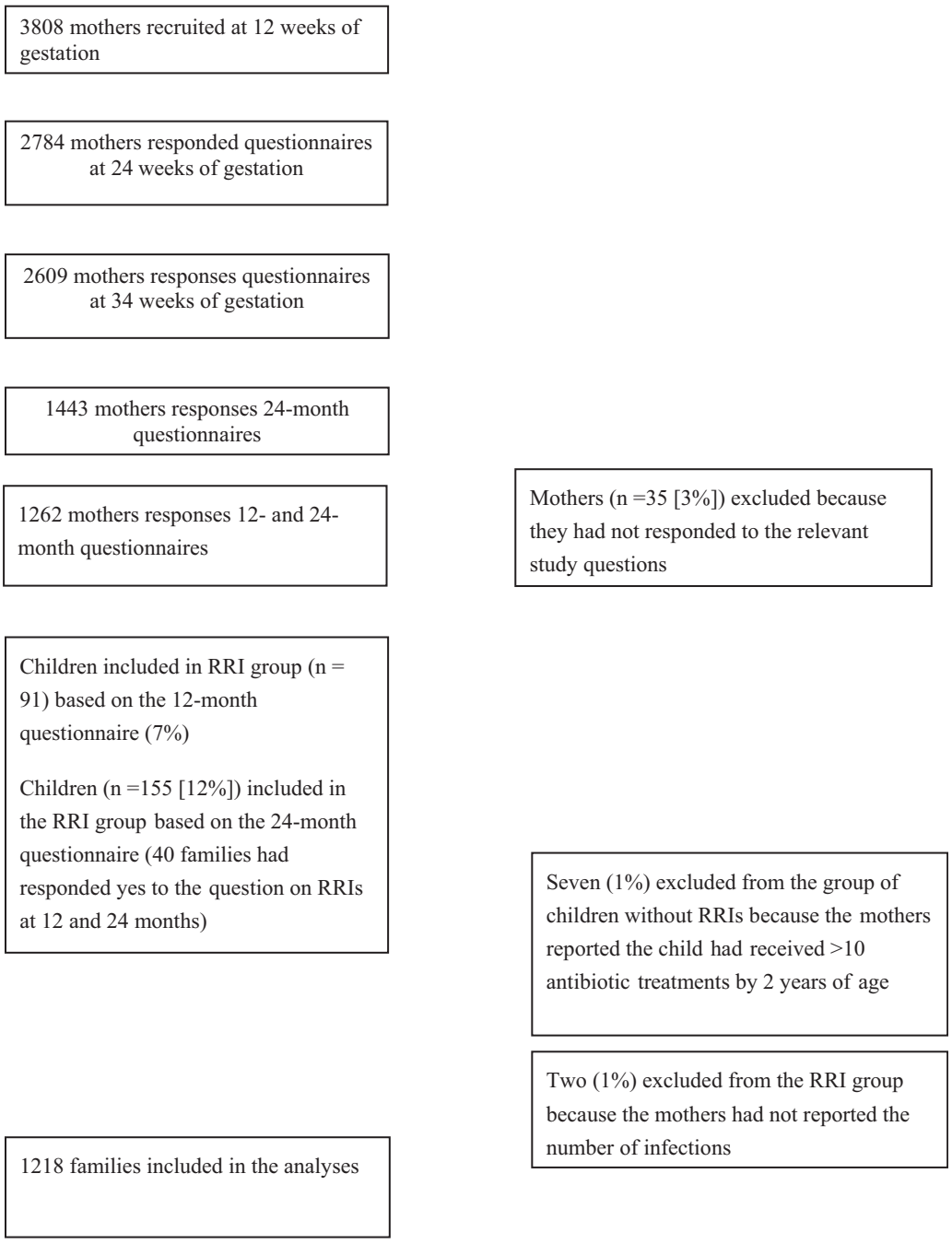

Figure. Study flow chart.