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Antenatal caregiving representations and perinatal behavior in mothers with severe lifetime psychopathology

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1 **Abstract**

2 Psychopathology poses a risk for optimal parenting. The current study aimed to explore
3 antenatal caregiving representations as markers for later risk of non-optimal maternal
4 behavior among mothers with severe mental illness.

5 Sixty-five mothers diagnosed with psychosis, bipolar disorder, depression (psychopathology
6 group), and non-clinical controls participated in a longitudinal study from pregnancy to 16
7 weeks after birth. Mental health diagnoses and caregiving representations were assessed
8 during pregnancy. Maternal behavior was assessed during the five-minute recovery phase of
9 the Still Face paradigm at 16 weeks.

10 Mothers with psychopathology showed significantly higher levels of ‘heightened’ caregiving
11 representations (i.e., separation anxiety from the child) than controls. The only significant
12 diagnostic group difference in perinatal maternal behavior was that mothers diagnosed with
13 depression exhibiting more overriding behavior compared to non-clinical. In regression
14 modelling, antenatal caregiving representations of ‘role reversal’ predicted lower levels of
15 sensitivity and higher levels of overriding behavior independent of the effect of
16 psychopathology.

17 The findings can be interpreted in the context of representational transformation to
18 motherhood during pregnancy. Our results provide preliminary evidence for the potential of
19 a new questionnaire measure of caregiving representations as a screening instrument for
20 antenatal representational risk.

21 *Keywords:* antenatal caregiving representation; perinatal maternal behavior;
22 psychopathology; psychosis, depression

23 Severe maternal psychopathology affects parenting behavior and places
 24 children at greater risk of suboptimal developmental outcomes (Oyserman, Mowbray,
 25 Meares, & Firminger, 2000). There is substantial evidence that depression diagnosis are
 26 associated with more negative-intrusive and hostile, less engaged, and less positive-sensitive
 27 maternal behavior (Lovejoy, Graczyk, O'Hare, & Neuman, 2000). Although negative-
 28 intrusive behavior may be more state-dependent than other dimensions of maternal behavior,
 29 evidence suggests women with depression diagnoses are also more intrusive compared to
 30 controls even in the absence of significant psychiatric symptomatology. A recent systematic
 31 review concluded that mothers diagnosed with schizophrenia showed disturbed parental
 32 behavior during the first 12 months compared to affective and non-clinical controls. More
 33 specific, mothers with psychosis showed reduced social contact, greater tension, and more
 34 behavioral intrusiveness compared to controls (Davidsen et al., 2015). Research on maternal
 35 behavior among mothers with bipolar disorder is sparse; the few studies conducted report that
 36 bipolar depressed mothers are *more* likely to vocalize and engage in positive interactions with
 37 their children compared to unipolar depressed mothers (Goodman & Liu, 2014). However,
 38 children of mothers with bipolar disorder are more likely to exhibit insecure attachment to
 39 their mother than children of mothers with unipolar depression (Radke-Yarrow, Cummings,
 40 Kuczynski, & Chapman, 1985), suggesting that bipolar disorder constitutes a risk factor for
 41 maternal behavior and child development.

42 Severe mental illness (SMI) is by nature episodic (Oyserman et al., 2000).
 43 Therefore, children of mothers with a lifetime history of SMI are likely to be parented both
 44 during active and remission phases of psychopathology. Epidemiological research has
 45 demonstrated that more than half of women with severe psychopathology (e.g.,
 46 schizophrenia, bipolar disorder and other psychotic disorders) become mothers and no

47 clinical differences have been found between those that becomes mothers compared to those
 48 that do not (Howard, Kumar, & Thornicroft, 2001). Most parenting studies of mothers with
 49 SMI are cross-sectional and based on samples recruited from inpatient facilities (mother-baby
 50 units) (Davidsen et al., 2015). Therefore, most research on the impact of SMI on maternal
 51 behavior is based on observations during periods of active symptoms. Less is known about
 52 how a lifetime history of SMI affects parental behavior during remission phases. persistent
 53 emotional and relational difficulties among mothers with SMI are likely to be important in
 54 understanding impairments in motherhood (Oyserman et al. (2000). Antenatal caregiving
 55 representational development could be one parental domain affected by psychopathology.
 56 Better understanding of the link between caregiving representations and psychopathology
 57 could enable early detection of mothers at risk of non-optimal caregiving behavior.

58 **Caregiving Representations**

59 Substantial research has demonstrated that transformations during pregnancy
 60 prepares women for motherhood (Slade, Cohen, Sander, & Miller, 2011). This process
 61 involves maternal representations of becoming a parent that develop from emotional
 62 engagement with the fetus (maternal-fetal relationship) and expectations to the future
 63 relationship with the child. Both concepts have been suggested to form parts of the
 64 caregiving system (Walsh, 2010). Following attachment theory, George and Solomon (2008)
 65 theorized that all parents transform their internal representation from *seeking protection* (the
 66 goal of their attachment system) to *providing comfort and care* for their child (the goal of
 67 their caregiving system) in order to become the “stronger and wiser” member of the
 68 attachment-caregiving relationship. Further, these authors demonstrated that mothers of
 69 children with disorganized attachment have caregiving representations characterized by

70 helplessness or role reversal, conceived as high-risk representations of maternal abdication of
71 care and failed protection.

72 Antenatal assessment of maternal representations predicts observed and mother-
73 reported maternal behavior as well as infant attachment at 12 months (Crawford & Benoit,
74 2009; Dayton, Levendosky, Davidson, & Bogat, 2010; Siddiqui & Hägglöf, 2000; van den
75 Bergh & Simons, 2009). Meta-analytic evidence suggest that depression is a significant
76 predictor of maternal-fetal relationship (Yarcheski, Mahon, Yarcheski, Hanks, & Cannella,
77 2009). The only study involving clinically depressed mothers found lower intensities of the
78 maternal-fetal relationship among depressed women compared to non-depressed women
79 (McFarland et al., 2011). Therefore, knowledge of the impact of psychosis and bipolar
80 disorder on caregiving representations is sparse and perinatal research involving clinical
81 groups is needed. Furthermore, assessment of antenatal caregiving representations to date
82 has relied on the use of time-consuming maternal interviews that limit the practical
83 usefulness of these instruments in larger samples and clinical practice.

84 **Aim and Hypothesis**

85 The present study aimed to explore associations between psychopathology,
86 antenatal caregiving representations, and maternal perinatal behavior in interactions with the
87 infant at 16 weeks, in a sample of women with severe mental disorders and non-clinical
88 controls. We hypothesized that women with psychopathology report more non-optimal
89 antenatal caregiving representations and show less positive-sensitive and more negative-
90 overriding maternal behavior in interactions with their infant compared to non-clinical
91 women. As prior research on caregiving representations and perinatal behavior among
92 women with psychosis and bipolar disorder is sparse, we did not pose a specific hypothesis

93 regarding differences between diagnostic groups. These analyses are thus exploratory. In
94 addition to the effect of psychopathology on maternal behavior, we hypothesizes that
95 antenatal caregiving representations would be predictive of maternal behavior.

96 **Method**

97 **The current study**

98 Data were drawn from an ongoing prospective, longitudinal Danish-Scottish
99 cohort (WARM, Wellbeing And Resilience study examining Mechanisms of transmission of
100 health and risk in parents with complex mental health problems and their offspring). The
101 WARM Study was established to explore early risk and resilience factors among infants of
102 mothers with psychosis-related mental disorders, compare these to a control group of infants
103 of mothers without severe mental illness (Harder et al., 2015). Ethical approval was granted
104 by Health Research Ethics, Capital Region of Denmark (Protocol no: H-2-014-024) and the
105 West of Scotland Research Ethics Service (REC Reference 14/WS/1051). Data reported here
106 were collected in Denmark and Scotland between October 2014 and November 2016.

107 Participants were Danish or Scottish pregnant women and their infants.
108 Inclusion criteria were: a) a DSM-5 diagnosis of Delusional Disorder, Schizophreniform
109 Disorder, Schizophrenia or Schizoaffective Disorder, Psychosis NOS, Brief Psychotic
110 Disorder, or b) a DSM-5 diagnosis of Bipolar I and II Disorder, or c) a DSM-5 diagnosis of
111 Major Depressive Disorder (current moderate or severe episode or lifetime recurrent
112 moderate or severe), or d) a non-psychiatric control group defined as mothers without any
113 history of treatment or admission for a psychiatric disorder or drug or alcohol addiction.
114 Maternal exclusion criteria for the current study were: a) mother unable to speak English or
115 Danish, b) miscarriage or still birth, c) diagnosis of Autistic Spectrum Disorder, and d)

116 unable to provide informed and written consent for their own and their unborn child's
 117 participation in the study. Infant exclusion criteria were: a) infants born with a congenital
 118 developmental disorder, which can be diagnosed from birth, such as for example Down's
 119 Syndrome; or b) miscarriage after antenatal assessments were completed. Participants were
 120 recruited through obstetric wards in Capital Region of Denmark, Region of Southern
 121 Denmark, and Region Zealand, and in Scotland through perinatal mental health services and
 122 midwifery in NHS Greater Glasgow and Clyde through a non-selective procedure (see Harder
 123 et al., 2015 for further information). Seventy participants consented to participate in the
 124 study. Five participants dropped out before antenatal data collection had finished and were
 125 not included in the present study (flow of participants presented in Figure 1).

126  Insert Figure 1 here

127 Following the WARM study protocol (Harder et al., 2015), maternal
 128 psychopathology was assessed after obtaining written informed consent from all participants
 129 to confirm inclusion diagnosis. Assessment of caregiving representations was part of a small
 130 battery of questionnaires assessed at a subsequent scheduled meeting. The majority of
 131 assessments of maternal psychopathology were conducted at the beginning of the third
 132 trimester ($M = 30.1$ GA weeks; $SD = 6.4$; range: 14.9-38.3). On average, assessments of
 133 antenatal caregiving representations took place one week later ($M = 31.1$ GA weeks; $SD =$
 134 7.3 ; range = 13.9-38.9). Most women completed the PCEQ during the third trimester
 135 (76.6%) although a minority of respondents completed it during the first (1.6%) and second
 136 (21.9%) trimesters. Research suggests that antenatal caregiving representations undergoes
 137 important changes during pregnancy (Cannella, 2005; Stern, 1995). We therefore
 138 incorporated the effect of trimester as an important confound of associations between
 139 antenatal representations and maternal behavior. All antenatal assessments were conducted

140 during home-visits or at the obstetric ward according to the mother's preference. Mother-
 141 infant interaction was assessed at 16 weeks of infant age during home-visits.

142 **Measures**

143 **Maternal psychopathology.** Psychiatric diagnoses were assessed using the
 144 psychosis and mood modules of the Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-5 (First,
 145 Williams, Karg, & Spitzer, 2016) to confirm inclusion diagnosis. All diagnostic assessments
 146 were supervised by a researcher trained on the SCID (AA) and all diagnoses were discussed
 147 and confirmed through consensus discussion among the senior researchers (BB, CC, DD,
 148 EE).

149 **Caregiving representations.** Antenatal caregiving representations were
 150 assessed using the Prenatal Caregiving Experience Questionnaire (PCEQ, unpublished
 151 instrument, Brennan & George, 2013), a 40-item self-report measure assessing pregnant
 152 women's expectations about their future relationship with their child. Responses are given on
 153 a 5-point Likert scale (range 1-5). The PCEQ was translated into Danish by two independent
 154 researchers and back translated by a bilingual English-Danish speaking Associate Professor
 155 in Psychology. Any translational divergences compared to the original version were resolved
 156 by discussion with and guidance from the PCEQ co-authors (XX, YY). A cross-cultural
 157 validated four-factor model of the postnatal version of the questionnaire (CEQ Age 1.5-5)
 158 was used in the current study (Røhder et al., 2018). There are four subscales: *Enjoyment*,
 159 mothers expect positive feelings about the child ($\alpha = .709$; e.g. "My baby will be worth all the
 160 love and attention I can give him or her"); *heightened*, mothers expect difficulties in
 161 separating from their child ($\alpha = .758$; e.g. "I think that I will be lonely when my baby and I
 162 are separated"); *helplessness*, mothers expect their child to be out of control and themselves
 163 as unable to take care of child ($\alpha = .801$; e.g. "Sometimes I may just lose it and scream at

164 *him or her or punish too harshly*"); and *role reversal*; mothers expect the child to understand
165 and cheer up the mother ($\alpha = .672$; e.g. "*My baby and I will be really close. I will be able to*
166 *just sit there and tell him or her if I had a bad day and s/he will understand*"). To our
167 knowledge the PCEQ is the only existing time-efficient, multi-dimensional measure of
168 antenatal caregiving representations. Cross-sectional studies using the PCEQ support the
169 multi-dimensional structure of the measure as well as construct validity in relation to
170 maternal-fetal attachment, social support, and adverse childhood experiences (Brennan, 2017;
171 Røhder et al., 2019).

172 **Maternal behavior.** Maternal behavior was assessed during the recovery
173 phase of a 10-minute interaction based on the Still-face paradigm. The infant was placed in
174 an infant chair with the mother placed in front of her infant. Two cameras facing mother
175 (face and shoulders) and infant (full body and face) was used. Coding was based on split-
176 screen recordings displaying both mother and infant. The mother was asked to first play with
177 her infant for three minutes (engagement phase) and then hold a still face (freezing, not
178 displaying emotions, or touching the infant) for two minutes (still face phase). The five-
179 minutes recovery phase was coded using the Coding Interactive Behavior manual (CIB,
180 unpublished manual, Feldman 1998). The decision to score maternal behavior during the
181 recovery phase was based on prior research on the caregiving system (Lyons-Ruth,
182 Bronfman, & Parsons, 1999; Solomon & George, 1996) suggesting that the mother's
183 caregiving system is activated in situations where the infant's attachment system is activated
184 and thus best observed in distressing situations. CIB is a global measure that incorporates
185 parent, child, and dyadic affective states and interactive patterns validated for use in dyads
186 with infants 2-36 months of age. The coding consists of 33 items rated on a five-point likert
187 scale allowing half points (range 1-5). Based on item ratings, maternal composites of

188 sensitivity and intrusiveness, infant involvement and withdrawal, dyadic reciprocity, and
189 dyadic negative states are calculated. The current study used the maternal sensitivity and
190 intrusiveness composites. ‘Maternal sensitivity’ consists of the items: ‘Acknowledging’,
191 ‘Imitating’, ‘Elaborating’, ‘Parent Gaze’, ‘Positive Affect’, ‘Vocal Appropriateness’,
192 ‘Appropriate Range of Affect’, ‘Resourcefulness’, ‘Affectionate Touch’, and ‘Parent
193 Supportive Presence’. The item *parent gaze* was excluded from the original sensitivity
194 composite due to lack of variability (all mothers gazed to the infant). The adjusted sensitivity
195 composite showed high internal consistency ($\alpha = .805$). The original ‘intrusiveness’
196 composite consists of the following single items at four months: ‘Forcing’, ‘Overriding’,
197 ‘Parent Negative Affect/Anger’, ‘Hostility’, and ‘Parent Anxiety’. In our sample, there was
198 none or very limited variability in the items ‘parental negative affect/anger’, ‘hostility’, and
199 ‘parent anxiety’. ‘Forcing’ is consider “common in the interactions of parents and very
200 young infants (2-6 months)” (Feldman, CIB manual, version 4, 1998, p. 7). In our sample
201 ‘forcing’ and ‘overriding behavior’ was not correlated with each other; Pearson’s $r = .027$, p
202 $= .859$. The original intrusiveness composite thus showed poor internal consistency ($\alpha =$
203 $.192$). Therefore, the single item *overriding behavior* – the most central item in the
204 intrusiveness composite - was used as a proxy of intrusive maternal behavior. All
205 interactions were coded blind to maternal psychopathology diagnoses by the first author and
206 a second judge. Both judges had passed the CIB reliability test from Ruth Feldman. Inter-
207 rater reliability calculated using 20 % randomly chosen interactions of mothers with and
208 without psychopathology rated blindly showed good reliability (ICC (2,1) = .805).

209 **Statistical Analysis**

210 Assumptions for the use of parametric tests were explored and parametric and
211 non-parametric tests used as appropriate. A series of ANOVAs with planned contrasts were

212 conducted to explore the impact of psychopathology on caregiving representations and
213 maternal behavior. Spearman's rho correlation was used to evaluate non-parametric
214 associations and intercorrelations among antenatal caregiving representations and maternal
215 caregiving behavior. As assumptions was not met for testing a mediation model, we
216 conducted multiple hierarchical regression analysis using the backward method to explore the
217 predictive validity of psychopathology and antenatal caregiving representations on maternal
218 behavior. To explore potential confounding effects of gestational age, we stratified the
219 regression analyses by trimester.

220 **Missing and Dropout Analysis**

221 As data were deemed missing at random, missing items in the symptom
222 interviews and the PCEQ were analyzed and handled with mean imputation on subscale level.
223 Analyses of dropout and missing data indicated no differences between participants with
224 missing data, participants who dropped out during the study and those that remained in the
225 study.

226

227

Results

228 **Sample Characteristics**

229 Demographic information and clinical characteristics of the mothers and their
230 infants are presented in Table 1. Socio-demographic factors (Maternal age, education,
231 relationship status, parity, employment status, nationality, infant gender, and infant age at still
232 face procedure) were not related to maternal behavior and therefore not included as
233 covariates in models predicting maternal behavior.

234 Insert Table 1

235 **Psychopathology and Caregiving**

236 Initial analyses examined the effect of psychopathology on antenatal caregiving
237 representations and maternal behavior. Descriptive statistics are reported in Table 2. The
238 only significant differences between diagnostic groups emerged on heightened caregiving
239 representations, $F(3,60) = 6.04, p = .001$. There were no significant overall effects of
240 psychopathology groups on maternal sensitivity, $F(3,42) = 0.07, p = .98$, or maternal
241 overriding behavior, $F(3,42) = 2.34, p = .09$. Planned contrast analyses revealed that mothers
242 diagnosed with depression displayed more overriding behavior compared to the non-clinical
243 control group, $p = .04$. While the difference is statistically significant, the relative small
244 group sizes gave an estimated effect of 0.71 difference in averages (95% confidence interval
245 of 0.04 -1.38). Mothers diagnosed with psychosis or bipolar disorder did not differ from non-
246 clinicals in their maternal behavior.

247 Insert Table 2

248 **Predictors of Perinatal Maternal Behavior**

249 Next, we tested associations between antenatal caregiving representations and
250 maternal behavior (Table 3). As hypothesized, non-optimal representations of ‘helplessness’
251 and ‘role reversal’ were associated with more overriding maternal behavior. Contrary to our
252 hypotheses, ‘heightened’ caregiving was not associated with maternal behavior and the
253 associations between antenatal representations and maternal sensitivity were not significant.

254 Insert Table 3

255 Hierarchical regression analyses exploring the effect of psychopathology and
 256 antenatal caregiving representations on maternal sensitivity and overriding behavior
 257 respectively are presented in Tables 4 and 5. Antenatal representational ‘role reversal’
 258 emerged as the only predictor of maternal sensitivity - with higher expectations of a role
 259 reversed relationship with the infant associated with less sensitivity with a medium effect size
 260 (.36). ‘Enjoyment’ and ‘role reversal’ emerged as equally good predictors of overriding
 261 behavior at 16 weeks, with medium effect sizes reported (-.29 and .33 respectively).

262 Insert Table 4 & 5

263 To explore the potential confounding effect of gestational age, we stratified analysis by
 264 trimester. Only one women filled out the PCEQ during the first trimester. The predictive
 265 validity of ‘role reversal’ on maternal sensitivity and maternal overriding behavior
 266 disappeared among women in the second trimester but remained for women in the third
 267 trimester; $\beta = -.36, p = .03 [-.36;-.02]$ and $\beta = .37, p = .02 [.06;.78]$ respectively. The
 268 predictive validity of ‘enjoyment’ on maternal overriding behavior did not remain significant
 269 in either trimesters although a trend was found in the third trimester; $\beta = -.27, p = .08 [-$
 270 $1.68;.11]$.

271

272 **Discussion**

273 The current study explored associations between psychopathology, antenatal
 274 caregiving representations, and maternal behavior among women diagnosed with psychosis,
 275 bipolar disorder, and depression compared to non-clinical controls. This is the first study to
 276 explore the association between psychopathology and non-optimal caregiving representations
 277 during pregnancy using a multi-dimensional questionnaire measure of these representations.

278 We report that mothers with psychopathology during pregnancy expected more separation
 279 difficulties from their children (heightened caregiving) as compared to non-clinical controls.
 280 Previous research has also found increase in over-activated caregiving representations in
 281 clinical groups (Vreeswijk, Maas, & van Bakel, 2012). Dayton et al. (2010) found that
 282 mothers whose representations of their child were termed ‘affectively over-activated’ during
 283 pregnancy (e.g., distorted representations in the WMCI similar to the heightened dimension
 284 on the PCEQ) were more hostile in interactions with their one-year old child. Benoit, Parker,
 285 and Zeanah (1997) found an association between ‘distorted’ representations and resistant
 286 infant attachment at 12 months. Finally, Brennan (2012) and Røhder et al. (2018)
 287 demonstrated an association between ‘heightened’ caregiving representations and parental
 288 distress among mothers of children aged 1.5 and 5 years, which suggest that over-activated
 289 representations might be important for maternal well-being and feelings of self-efficacy,
 290 which we did not assess in the current study. These findings point to the potential negative
 291 effects of antenatal heightened caregiving representations on parental distress, later mother-
 292 infant interactions, and child attachment. In our study, we did not observe any significant
 293 negative effect of ‘heightened’ representations on early caregiving behavior. It may be that
 294 maternal separation difficulties are more adequate in the early phases of infant life where
 295 proximity between infant and mother are needed but problematic at later ages where
 296 separation from the mother becomes an important developmental task of the infant.
 297 However, we also note that contrary to this interpretation, Korja et al. (2010) reported
 298 associations between ‘distorted’ (over-aroused) representations of the child and non-optimal
 299 mother-infant interaction among six months old infants.

300 Consistent with existing studies of depression and maternal behavior, we found
 301 that mothers diagnosed with depression showed more overriding behavior compared to

302 mothers without psychopathology (Lovejoy et al., 2000). Interactions with the infant at 16
303 weeks for mothers diagnosed with psychosis and bipolar disorder resembled non-clinical
304 mothers. This is consistent with other studies of mothers with psychosis in remission. For
305 instance, Howard, Thornicroft, Salmon, and Appleby (2004) found that mothers with
306 psychotic disorders admitted to a mother-baby unit did not need social services supervision
307 when discharged. Pawlby et al. (2010) found that mothers with psychotic disorders did not
308 differ from healthy controls in their ability to respond appropriate to their infant's cues and
309 Snellen, Mack, and Trauer (1999) found that the quality of mother-infant interaction
310 improved when maternal psychotic symptoms declined.

311 Finally, higher levels of antenatal caregiving representations of 'role reversal'
312 assessed during the third trimester predicted reduced maternal sensitivity and more
313 overriding behavior in interactions with the infant at 16 weeks. These results suggest that in
314 addition to the previously identified risk of maternal SMI for suboptimal maternal perinatal
315 behavior (Davidsen et al., 2015; Lovejoy et al., 2000), *antenatal* caregiving development may
316 be an equally important psychological domain that should be addressed in research and
317 clinical practice on maternal perinatal health. Attachment and psychodynamic perspectives
318 on the perinatal period (Ammaniti, Tambelli, & Odorisio, 2013; George & Solomon, 2008;
319 Slade et al., 2011) emphasize that all women need to make a transformational
320 representational shift to motherhood. However, although the significance of antenatal
321 caregiving representations for maternal behavior is described in the developmental literature,
322 it's impact may not have been fully considered in relation to developmental psychopathology.

323 Our findings are the first to demonstrate the predictive validity of antenatal
324 caregiving representations for maternal behavior using a questionnaire measure. Similar
325 results have been found using interview-based measures of caregiving representations

326 (Crawford & Benoit, 2009; Dayton et al., 2010). Indeed, Crawford and Benoit (2009)
 327 reported that the presence of disrupted representations of the unborn child (e.g. role/boundary
 328 confusion, fearfulness/dissociation/disorientation, intrusiveness/negativity, affective
 329 communication errors, and withdrawal) during pregnancy were predictive of atypical
 330 maternal behavior (AMBIANCE) at 12 months. Conceptually, Vulliez-Coady, Obsuth,
 331 Torreiro-Casal, Ellertsdottir, and Lyons-Ruth (2013) have suggested that role
 332 reversal/confusion encompasses the mother's need for emotional support from her child.
 333 Similarly, qualitative studies have reported that for some mothers living with
 334 psychopathology motherhood holds a special significance, often described as "a new
 335 beginning", as "providing meaning to their lives" (Dolman, Jones, & Howard, 2013), "an
 336 opportunity to *receive* love", or a wish for their children meeting the mothers' unmet
 337 emotional needs (Birtwell, Hammond, & Puckering, 2015). These findings suggest that
 338 antenatal development of caregiving representations is an important factor in the mother's
 339 emotional preparation for motherhood. Consequently, representational role reversal could be
 340 an important focus for antenatal clinical interventions, in addition to monitoring and
 341 treatment of psychopathology.

342 **Strengths and Limitations**

343 A strength of the current study was the transdiagnostic inclusion of a broader
 344 range of complex maternal psychopathology, allowing for comparison among different
 345 clinical groups. This is contrast to the existing literature, which has mostly focused on
 346 maternal depression. Furthermore, all participants were non-selectively, consecutively
 347 identified. Second, participants in our study represent mothers living with SMI in the
 348 community. As previous research has relied mostly on mothers admitted to inpatient

349 psychiatric facilities, our study expands this research by exploring maternal behavior among
 350 more well-functioning mothers with SMI living in the community.

351 We acknowledge a number of study limitations, particularly small group sizes,
 352 which may have led to lack of power for in consistent detection of group differences. During
 353 the recruitment period, we identified more than 400 potential participants, but only 224 of
 354 these were referred to the WARM team. Of these, 70 consented to participate in the study
 355 (see Figure 1). It is therefore possible that selection bias from both referring staff and women
 356 themselves impacted upon the final sample. Women in our sample were mostly in a stable
 357 phase of illness, and not experiencing acute, severe episodes of psychopathology. Therefore,
 358 the sample might reflect perinatal caregiving among better functioning mothers with SMI-
 359 histories. This impacts on the generalizability of our results to the more acute or chronic
 360 incidences of SMI.

361 Finally, the PCEQ is a new instrument with previous studies reporting on
 362 postnatal assessments (Røhder et al., 2018). The usefulness of the PCEQ for antenatal
 363 screening requires exploration in large community-based samples in order to identify norms
 364 and cut-offs for non-optimal caregiving representations.

365 **Conclusion**

366 This study explored the impact of psychopathology on antenatal caregiving
 367 representations and perinatal maternal behavior among women diagnosed with lifetime
 368 psychosis, bipolar disorder, depression, and non-clinical controls. We found that antenatal
 369 caregiving representations of ‘role reversal’ predict reduced maternal sensitivity and more
 370 overriding maternal behavior at 16 weeks. We suggest that in addition to the risk of lifetime
 371 psychopathology, future mothers need to undertake a perinatal representational
 372 transformation to establish a self-representation as the stronger and wiser, protective parental

373 figure in the mother-child relationship. Finally, our results provide preliminary evidence for
374 the screening potential of assessing antenatal representational risk in all mothers using a brief
375 questionnaire.

376

377

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491 Table 1

492 *Maternal and infant characteristics*

	Psychosis	Bipolar disorder	Depression	Non-clinical control	
	<i>n</i> = 13 (20.0 %)	<i>n</i> = 12 (18.5 %)	<i>n</i> = 26 (40.0 %)	<i>n</i> = 14 (21.5%)	
Maternal characteristics	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>p</i>
Maternal age (years)	29.1 (5.6)	32.0 (5.7)	29.3 (4.2)	30.7 (3.5)	.33 ^a
	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>n</i> (%)	
Primiparous	8 (61.5)	6 (50.0)	18 (69.2)	11 (78.6)	.47 ^b
Living with a partner	9 (69.2)	12 (100)	20 (76.9)	12 (85.7)	.52 ^b
Education, ISCED level 5 or higher	2 (15.4)***	6 (50)*	16 (61.5)*	13 (92.9)	.000 ^b
Employment	1 (7.7)**	6 (50)	13 (50.0)	11 (78.6)	.002 ^b
Danish participants	10 (76.9)	10 (83.3)	13 (50.0)**	14 (100)	.004 ^b
DSM-V diagnosis of Schizophrenia, Bipolar I Disorder, or Recurrent Depression	8 (61.5)	8 (66.7)	22 (84.6)		
Infant characteristics	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	
Infant age (weeks)	18.1 (3.0)	18.6 (2.8)	17.9 (2.6)	18.7 (3.6)	.82
	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>n</i> (%)	
Infant gender (girls)	4 (44.4)	8 (66.7)	11 (57.9)	10 (83.3)	.19 ^b

493 *Note.* ISCED = International Standard Classification of Education, 1997. DSM-V = Diagnosis and
 494 Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (5th ed.).

495 ^a ANOVA; ^b X².

496 Sample size at 16 weeks: Psychosis *n* = 8 (17.4%); Bipolar disorder *n* = 10 (21.7%); Depression *n* = 17
 497 (37.0%), and non-clinical controls *n* = 11 (23.9%).

498 **p* < .05; ***p* < .01; ****p* < .001; all *p*-values are two-tailed and indicate differences from
 499 non-clinical controls

500
 501

502 Table 2

503 *Group differences in maternal representations and behavior*

Variables	Psychosis	Bipolar disorder	Depression	Non-clinical control	Cohens' <i>f</i>
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	
Representations					
Enjoyment	4.66 (.27)	4.58 (.36)	4.54 (.34)	4.50 (.25)	.05
Heightened	3.35(1.04)***	2.83 (.85)*	3.14 (.81)***	2.14 (.49)	.43
Helplessness	2.11 (.42) ⁺	2.14 (.60) ⁺	2.08 (.68) ⁺	1.71 (.44)	.16
Role Reversal	3.56 (1.07) ⁺	3.08 (.88)	3.39 (.62)	2.98 (.69)	.22
Maternal Behavior					
Sensitivity	3.40 (.49)	3.35 (.47)	3.32 (.47)	3.38 (.45)	.03
Overriding	1.81 (.65)	1.89 (.96)	2.53 (.83) *	1.82 (.96)	.33

504 *Note.* *M* = Mean; *SD* = Standard deviation.

505 ⁺*p* ≤ .10, **p* < .05; ***p* < .01; ****p* < .001; all *p*-values are two-tailed and indicate
 506 differences from non-clinical controls.

507

508 Table 3

509 *Correlations between antenatal caregiving representations and perinatal maternal behavior:*
 510 *Spearman's rho*

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
Enjoyment	-	.16	-.35**	.26*	.11	-.21
Heightened		-	.27*	.29*	-.20	.15
Helplessness			-	.07	-.23	.31*
Role Reversal				-	-.27 ⁺	.33*
Sensitivity					-	-.55***
Overriding						-

511 *Note.* ⁺ $p \leq .10$ * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$; all p -values are two-tailed.

512

513

514 Table 4

515

516 *Linear Model of Predictors of Maternal Sensitive Behavior at 16 Weeks Infant Age, with 95%*

517 *bias corrected and accelerated confidence intervals reported in brackets. Confidence*

518 *Intervals and Standard Errors based on 1000 Bootstrap samples*

519

520

Variable	Model 1			Model 2		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
SMI	.06 [-.30;.43]	.18	.06	.02 [-.29;.33]	.15	.02
Enjoyment	.24 [-.31;.78]	.27	.15			
Heightened	-.06 [-.24;.13]	.09	-.11			
Role Reversal	-.19 [-.37;-.01]	.09	-.33*	-.21 [-.38;-.04]	.08	-.36*
Helplessness	-.02 [.32;.28]	.15	-.02			
<i>R</i> ²		.16			.13 ⁺	

521 *Note.* SMI = severe mental illness. Backward entry used.

522 **p* < .05. ** *p* < .01 ^t < .10. *p*-values are two-tailed.

523 Table 5

524

525 *Linear Model of Predictors of Maternal Overriding Behavior at 16 Weeks Infant Age, with*
 526 *95% bias corrected and accelerated confidence intervals reported in brackets. Confidence*
 527 *Intervals and Standard Errors based on 1000 Bootstrap samples*

528

Variable	Model 1			Model 2		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
SMI	.40 [-.26;1.07]	.33	.20	.38 [-.20;.96]	.29	.18
Enjoyment	-.60 [-1.59;.39]	.49	-.20	-.87 [-1.71;-.04]	.41	-.29*
Heightened	-.11 [-.45;.22]	.17	-.18			
Role Reversal	.38 [.05;.71]	.16	.34*	.37 [.06;.68]	.16	.33*
Helplessness	.27 [-.27;.81]	.27	.17			
R^2		.25*			.23*	

529 *Note.* SMI = severe mental illness. Backward entry used.

530 * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$ $t < .10$. p -values are two-tailed.

531

