

RESEARCH

Open Access



Risk factors of the antenatal depression in a sample of Italian pregnant women: a preliminary study

Maria Rita Sergi^{1*}, Aristide Saggino¹, Michela Balsamo¹, Laura Picconi¹, Luigi Anchorà² and Marco Tommasi¹

Abstract

Background Antenatal depression is characterized by low mood, insomnia, disorganised behaviour, irritability, and agitation during the pregnancy. If underestimated, antenatal depression is untreated during the pregnancy. It is associated to higher levels of suicide, higher risk of depression after childbirth, preeclampsia, preterm birth, low birth weight, poor interactions between child and mother and severe obstetric outcomes. New data underlined the importance to prevent the risk of depression during the pregnancy. This study examines the predictive validity of potential risk factors, such as socio-demographic and psychological factors, in developing the antenatal depression.

Methods The sample was composed by Italian pregnant women ($N=247$, mean age of 33.77, $SD=4.78$ years). This sample completed the Edinburg Postnatal Depression Scale (EPDS), the Teate Depression Inventory (TDI) and questionnaires about demographic variables. To study associations among variables examined bivariate correlations were computed. To analyse the role of socio-demographic factors and the psychological dimension to predict the severity of the antenatal depression a logistic regression was performed.

Results Results showed significantly positive correlations between the EPDS and the TDI, and no associations among the EPDS and all socio-demographic factors. Therefore, only the psychological factors were significant predictive risk factors of antenatal period. Finally, higher score of the depression measured via TDI predicted higher score of the EPDS.

Conclusions Our results had implications in clinical field. Indeed, the early diagnosis of depression during the pregnancy can help operators in the gynaecological field to prevent the depression in the post-partum period.

Keywords Antenatal depression, Assessment, Teate depression inventory, Pregnancy, Risk factors

*Correspondence:

Maria Rita Sergi
mariaritasergi@libero.it

¹Department of Psychology, University of Chieti-Pescara, Chieti, Italy

²Family Counselling Centre, Maglie, Italy



© The Author(s) 2024. **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>.

Introduction

Antenatal depression (AD) is a specifier in depressive disorders as indicated “with peripartum onset” [1], characterized by low mood, insomnia, disorganised behaviour, irritability, and agitation during pregnancy.

Recent data showed that the risk to develop AD is underestimated, in relation to problems about instruments for its assessment because of their insufficient psychometric properties [2–5]. In particular, an untreated depression during the pregnancy is associated to higher levels of suicide, post-partum depression, preeclampsia, preterm births, low birth weight, poor interactions between child and mother and obstetric outcomes (such as the use of epidural analgesia and longer labour) [6–22].

Given the close association between post-partum depression and AD, it appears to be important to study risk factors (socio-demographic and psychological factors) during the pregnancy that can increase the level of AD. Psychological characteristics should be assessed through instruments with adequate psychometric properties that could predict precisely the risk of AD [16, 23–27].

Regards the impact of demographic variables on AD, a recent systematic review showed that the depressive effects of mothers' age, mothers' socioeconomic status or life events associated to stress (e.g.: a job loss) during the pregnancy is yet unclear [17, 28–30]. Indeed, some studies showed that divorce, separation or widowhood could predict the AD [16, 31–35]. Other researches, on the contrary, found no significant association between marital status and AD [36–43]. Regarding the occupational employment and educational level, there was a general consensus that unemployment and lower education levels were linked to AD [16, 31, 38, 44–52]. However, some studies reported opposite data. Al -Hejji et al. [53] and Chen et al. [54] found that higher levels of AD were associated to higher education levels. Pampaka et al. [49] also found a significantly positive association between AD and secondary education. However, other studies found no significant associations between AD, occupational employment and educational level [38, 39, 42, 55].

There are several studies that reported an association between age and AD. Andersson et al. [8] and Rubertsson et al. [15] found that younger women tended to have higher level of AD. Similar results were provided by Feltenzer and Cibula [31] in women between 18 and 24 years. In addition, younger age resulted to be a predictive factor of the AD especially during the second and the third trimester of pregnancy [56]. Also Rich-Edwards and colleagues [57] found that young pregnant women (≤ 23 yrs.) had a greater likelihood to develop AD than older ones. These results were confirmed by other studies [46, 58]. Recent studies, on the contrary, evidenced that an advanced maternal age (≥ 35 years) is more associated

to the AD [59–63]. Additionally, no significant associations between AD and maternal age were found by other researchers [33, 36, 37, 39–44, 49, 52, 54, 64–67]. Recent meta-analyses and systematic reviews examine the risk factors for depression in pregnancy, including unemployment, marital status, social support, experience of violence, unplanned pregnancy, history of depression, smoking before pregnancy, and history of abortion [16, 20, 68]. It is important to analyze the risk factors for depression during pregnancy in order to prevent physical and psychological harm in the postpartum period for the woman and the child [20, 30].

AD is also linked to state psychological factors, in particular to depressive symptoms [69]. Recent studies showed as depressive symptoms were important predictive risk factors of post-partum depression [37, 70]. Up to date, only one study [71] concomitantly analysed the role of socio-demographic and state psychological factors on women's depression during pregnancy. The research showed that only women's age and depressive symptoms were the most important predictive risks factors of post-partum depression. Two systematic reviews [30, 72] highlight how the literature has focused on the postpartum period, neglecting the prenatal period for several reasons: the discrepancy between a decline in mood during pregnancy and social expectations of happiness can contribute to women's greater difficulty in sharing feelings of unhappiness, sadness, and irritability; there is a belief that hormones protect women during pregnancy from psychological disorders; greater attention was devoted to the physical health of the woman and the fetus. In this psychophysiological context, there is a diagnostic difficulty between symptoms related to pregnancy (e.g., fatigue, complaints, depressed mood) and symptoms related to depressive symptomatology [11,22,72]. One of the most widely used tools for antenatal depression is the Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale, which has poor ability to differentiate between depressed and non-depressed pregnant women. Moreover, the instrument has poor sensitivity to depressive symptoms, and poor discrimination power between somatic symptoms of depression and typical somatic symptoms of pregnancy, leading to false positives. The lack of psychometric properties can lead to un-diagnosed depression, with social and health burden [18, 20, 73]. For this reason, the present study employed the Teate Depression Inventory (TDI) [74–77], a new measurement tool for Major Depressive Episode, according to the criteria of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders [1]. The instrument is constructed with Andrich's Extended Logistic Model [78–80], which represents the broadest extension of the Rasch model for polytomous items, allowing discrimination between healthy subjects and pathological subjects. In particular, the TDI has good sensitivity and specificity,

allowing for the discrimination of severity levels of depression through ROC Curves (Receiver Characteristic Curves).

The aim of our study is to analyse the predictive power of the principal demographic factors (age, marital status, occupational employment, educational level) and the risk of depression which showed to be relevant for predicting AD. We developed the following hypotheses:

1. H1: only demographic factors are significant predictive risk factors of AD.
2. H2: only the psychological factors are significant predictive risk factors of AD.
3. H3: both demographic and psychological factors are significant predictive risk factors of AD. In particular, we conducted a comparison between demographic and psychological factors to study which of these weigh more on the risk of depression.

Materials and methods

Participants

247 women who attended antenatal courses participated in this study. Their mean age was 33.77 years ($SD=4.78$). Regarding the marital status 80 women (32.4%) were single (never married, separated, divorced, widowed) and 167 (67.6%) were married or cohabiting. As the occupational employment, 47 women (19%) were unemployed and 200 (81%) were employed. As the educational level, 178 women (72.1%) had completed high school, and 69 (27.9%) had a university degree. 29 subjects (11.7%) had a past miscarriage; 16 subjects (6.5%) had a past voluntary abortion, and 2 subjects (0.8%) underwent voluntary termination of pregnancy by decision of others. Moreover, 84 pregnant women (34.0%) experienced adverse events in life and high perceived stress, and 34 subjects (13.8%) had personal history of mental illness such as anxiety, relationship problems, or mourning. Finally, 21 (8.5%) pregnant women drank before pregnancy, and 8 (3.2%) subjects drank only with meals during pregnancy. Additionally, 83 (33.6%) pregnant women smoked before pregnancy, and 10 (4.0%) subjects smoked during pregnancy. The sample was in the third trimester of pregnancy, during which there is a higher prevalence of depression [21, 30, 72].

Measures

Measures of demographic characteristics. Questions related to demographic characteristics were provided in the questionnaire. The questions were about age (number of years), marital status, occupational employment, and educational level.

Edinburg Postnatal Depression Scale (EPDS) [81] is a 10-items self-report screening measure for antenatal

and postpartum depression. Items have a Likert scale from 0 (no symptom) to 3 (severe symptom). The cut-off indicating a severe postnatal depression ranges from 6/7, in countries as Ethiopia and Greek [50, 82] to 12/13, in countries as Italy, Iran, Island, Portugal and Taiwan [82–86]. In this study a cut-off of 13 was used to identify the presence of severe symptoms of AD. In the Italian context the sensitivity of the scale is equal to 56%, the specificity is equal to 98% and the positive predictive value is equal to 83% [82, 86].

Teate Depression Inventory (TDI) [74] is a 21-item unidimensional self-report instrument of depression. The TDI is based on the DSM-5 diagnostic criteria for Major Depression Episode [1]. The frequency of each depressive symptom was measured with a Likert scale from 0 (never) to 4 (always). On the basis of the global score, individuals were categorized into four categories related to the severity of the depressive syndrome: minimal (0–21), mild (22–36), moderate (37–50) and severe depression (51–80). The external validity of this scale is evidenced by several cross-cultural studies [87–90].

Procedures

Pregnant women were recruited at the Family Counseling Center, Italy, during antenatal courses. All measures were presented to pregnant women during specific days dedicated to risk factors of depression during the pregnancy. In these meetings the importance to measure the depression in the pregnancy as predictor of post-partum depression was explained. All instruments were administered by psychologists from July 2018 to May 2019. The Family Counseling Center's aim is guarantee the reproductive health of women, promoting responsible motherhood and paternity, protecting childhood and primary prevention. The procedures of research followed in the present work are in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration. Anonymity and privacy of the participants were guaranteed according the Italian and the European laws about privacy (Italian law n. 196/2003 and EU GDPR 679/2016, respectively). Informed signed consent was obtained from all individual participants. Participation was voluntary. The study was ethically approved by the Family Counseling Center (Protocol Number=116682).

Statistical analyses

Multivariate test of normality was made on empirical data (Mardia's test). In addition, the internal consistency of the psychological scales was estimated through Cronbach's alpha [91] and McDonald's omega [92].

Bivariate correlations were computed among the TDI, the EPDS scores and the demographic variables. Marital status (unmarried or married), occupational employment

Table 1 Mean, standard deviation, normality indices and internal consistency of the TDI and EPDS ($N=247$)

	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	McDonald's omega	Cronbach's alpha
TDI	14.17	9.299	1.024	1.324	0.910	0.905
EPDS	5.35	3.812	0.749	0.210	0.785	0.76

Table 2 Correlation among the EPDS total score with the TDI total score, age, marital status, educational level and occupational employment ($N=247$)

	TDI	Age	Marital status	Educational level	Occupational employment
EPDS	0.647**	0.038	-0.082	-0.089	-0.053

** $p < .05$

(employed or unemployed) and educational level were transformed into variables with dummy coding. When variables were dichotomous we used the dummy values "0" (unmarried, unemployed) and "1" (married, employed). Educational levels were transformed into an ordinal variable with values from 0 (high school) to 1 (university degree). To analyse the predictive validity of socio-demographic and psychological factors on the EPDS total score we performed a linear regression. A hierarchical analysis was performed with two models: in the first model EPDS scores were predicted only by demographic factors, while in the second model the TDI score was added as a psychological predictor.

To analyse the AD predictive risk validity of socio-demographic psychological factors we performed a logistic regression. In the logistic regression all demographic variables and the TDI total score were used as predictors of severe symptoms of AD (EPDS cut off score ≥ 13). Statistical analyses were calculated using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 25) [93] and JASP Version 0.11.1.0 [94].

Results

Descriptive statistics

Means, standard deviations, skewness, kurtosis and reliability of the two scales are shown in Table 1. Skewness and kurtosis showed values between in the range ± 1 , supporting a normal distribution of these data [95]. The obtained McDonald's omega and Cronbach's alpha for the TDI indicated an excellent scale reliability; while the EPDS indicated a discrete scale reliability [96].

Depression and demographic characteristics

Table 2 showed the bivariate correlations between the EPDS total score and the TDI total score, as well as the demographic characteristics (age, marital status, educational level, and occupational employment). Results showed high significantly positive correlation between the EPDS and the TDI ($r = .647$; $p < .05$); while there was

no significant correlation ($p < .05$) between the EPDS and all the examined demographic characteristics.

Predictors of the EPDS score

Table 3 shows the results of the linear regression analysis. In the first model all the demographic variables (age, marital status, educational level and occupational employment) were the predictors of the EPDS total score. No predictor was significant. In the second model the TDI total score was added as predictor of the EPDS. Results showed that the TDI explained the 43% of variance of the EPDS (R Squared Change = 0.42), while all the demographic factors explained about the 2%.

Predictors of the antenatal depression

Table 4 shows the results of the logistic regression used for predicting the antenatal depression, measured on the basis of the EPDS (≥ 13). Only the TDI total score was the best predictive risk factor of AD (EPDS ≥ 13). In particular, higher the score of the TDI, higher the score of the EPDS ($B = .170$; Wald = 20.282; $p < .001$).

Discussion

Recent literature suggests that the AD is predictive index of the risk to develop post-partum depression or to suffer from severe birth outcomes (babies with extreme low weight at birth, preterm birthing, spontaneous abortion). The AD is associated with low self-esteem, low maternal responsiveness, high perfectionism and higher levels of anger [23, 65, 97–100]. These conditions can influence the children's psychological development (e.g.: development of high insecurity attachment and of internalizing or externalizing disorders), probably because of an increase of maternal cortisol. Hypothetically, an exposure to a maternal distress leads to an increased cortisol, which is associated to an altered hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) function.

This alteration is linked to negative effects to the foetus [10, 101, 102]. For this reason, an accurate identification of the risk factors that generate AD can be helpful in developing a more precise early diagnosis of post-partum depression or risky pregnancy [24, 103].

Our research examined the predictive validity of potential risk factors in developing AD in a sample of Italian pregnant women. The examined risk factors were socio-demographic and state psychological factors, in particular the depressive symptomatology. Our result confirmed that only the psychological factors can be considered

Table 3 Linear regression analysis (N=247)

Model 1	EPDS					
	β	B	A	t	P	sr ²
Age	0.070	0.56	22.21	1.068	0.287	0.00
Marital status	-0.086	-0.700	-10.12	-1.330	0.185	0.00
Educational level	-0.104	-0.884	-10.336	-1.609	-0.109	0.01
Occupational employment	-0.044	-0.428	-10.26	-0.686	0.493	0.00
R ²			0.021			
AR ²			0.005			
F			1.315			
p (F)			0.265			
Model 2	EPDS					
	β	B	A	t	P	sr ²
TDI	0.667	0.274	2.40	13.366***	0.000	0.42
Age	-0.048	-0.038	22.30	-0.959	0.338	0.00
Marital status	-0.106	-0.862	-9.96	-2.156*	0.032	0.01
Educational level	-0.042	-0.357	-10.86	-0.850	0.396	0.00
Occupational employment	-0.080	0.772	-11.46	1.600	0.111	0.00
R ²			0.438			
AR ²			0.426			
F			37.555			
p (F)			0.000			

Note. R² = R Square; AR² = Adjusted R Square; sr = Partial correlations. ***p < .001; *p < .05

Table 4 Logistic regression for predicting the antenatal depression (N=247)

Age	EPDS				
	B	S.E.	Wald	p	Odd ratio (95% CI)
Age	0.061	0.07	0.799	0.371	1.063 (0.930-1.214)
Marital status	-1.3	0.68	3.661	0.056	0.274 (0.073-1.032)
Educational level	0.133	0.77	0.03	0.862	1.142 (0.255-5.116)
Occupational employment	0.336	0.81	0.173	0.677	1.399 (0.288-6.798)
TDI	0.17	0.04	20.282	< .001	1.185 (1.101-1.276)

as significant predictive risk factors of AD. Our study showed that depressive symptoms developed during the pregnancy is the most significant predictive risk factor of depression in the antenatal period, in accordance with the previous studies [69–71, 104, 105]. Our study showed that demographic factors had no relevant predictive importance and, therefore, they could not be used as valid index to predict and prevent the risk to develop antenatal depression or to suffer from problematic pregnancy, in contrast with several previous studies [8, 15, 16, 31–35, 38, 44–52, 56, 57, 59–62]. These results were confirmed by previous studies focusing on socio-demographic risk factors [37–44, 49, 52, 54, 55, 67].

These results can have implications in the clinical treatment of problematic pregnancies. Our data pointed out the importance to make an accurate screening for the presence of depressive symptoms during pregnancy through valid and reliable instruments for psychological

assessment. An early recognition of the AD allows the implementation of a clinical preventive psychological intervention to reduce the risk of post-partum depression and its fatal consequences [106]. Recent studies and several meta-analyses showed the efficacy of the cognitive and behavioural therapy (CBT) approach in treating and preventing the AD [107]. Indeed, in the CBT protocol for the antenatal depression, it is important to analyse the cognitive schemas regard representations of the parenting abilities and representations of children [108, 109]. In particular, the CBT focuses on cognitive restructuring of irrational beliefs and cognitive distortions, as well as the modification of dysfunctional behaviour [110–115]. Finally, our study uses a new instrument for measuring depression: the TDI, which has a greater discriminative capacity between depressed and non-depressed subjects compared to the self-report instruments for the diagnosis of depression most used in clinical field [74–77].

Our study had several limitations: the small number of the participants and the specificity of their geographic origin (southern part of Italy) may reduce the generalizability of our results. Further research is needed with a greater number of individuals recruited in other areas of the country, as well other variables associated with pregnancy. Furthermore, our measures were administered only during the pregnancy. We planned to perform longitudinal studies to analyze the risk factors of postpartum depression in the future. In particular, future research will focus on retesting the variables examined at 3–6 and 9 months of pregnancy. Finally, the study primarily

focused on the psychological state of pregnancy. Future studies will also investigate other risk factors, such as lack of partner or of social support, history of abuse or of domestic violence abortion, adverse events in life and high perceived stress, and personal history of mental illness, although they are characteristics that may be completely absent or present in very few pregnant women.

In conclusion, the results of our study evidenced that the psychological traits of women during the pregnancy, more than their demographic characteristics, are the relevant elements to consider in preventing the risk of depression during the pregnancy [116]. In addition, an early diagnosis of depression during the pregnancy can help operators in the gynaecological field to detect and prevent the risk of depression in the post-partum period [117].

Author contributions

MRS assisted with the design of the study, assisted with the data analyses, wrote the manuscript, and collaborated in editing the final manuscript. AS designed the study, collaborated in writing the paper and collaborated in editing the final manuscript. MB assisted with the design of the study, collaborated in the data analyses and collaborated in writing the manuscript. LP collaborated in editing the final manuscript. LA recruited the sample. MT assisted with the design of the study, collaborated in writing the manuscript and collaborated in editing the final manuscript. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Funding

This research received no external funding.

Data availability

The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the corresponding author. The data are not publicly available due to privacy or ethical restrictions.

Declarations

Ethics approval

The study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki, and approved by the Ethics Committee of the Family Counseling Center (Protocol Number = 116682).

Consent to participate

Informed consent was obtained from all subjects involved in the study.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Received: 6 September 2023 / Accepted: 16 July 2024

Published online: 21 October 2024

References

1. American Psychiatric Association. Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders (DSM-5®). Arlington, VA, USA: American Psychiatric Association; 2013. p. 992.
2. Curry SJ, Krist AH, Owens DK, Barry MJ, Caughey AB, Davidson KW, Doubeni CA, Epling JW, Jr, Grossman DC, Kemper AR, et al. Interventions to prevent perinatal depression: US Preventive Services Task Force recommendation statement. *JAMA*. 2019;321(6):580–7.
3. Kleine I. Interventions to prevent perinatal depression: US Preventive Services Task Force Recommendation Statement. *Arch Dis Child Educ Pract Ed*. 2020;105(4):242–3.
4. Sit DK, Wisner KL. The identification of postpartum depression. *Clin Obstet Gynecol*. 2009;52(3):456.
5. Zubaran C, Schumacher M, Roxo MR, et al. Screening tools for postpartum depression: validity and cultural dimensions. *Afr J Psych*. 2010;13(5):357–65.
6. Adhikari K, Patten SB, Lee S, Metcalfe A. Risk of adverse perinatal outcomes among women with pharmacologically treated and untreated depression during pregnancy: a retrospective cohort study. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol*. 2019;33(5):323–31.
7. Ajinkya S, Jadhav PR, Srivastava NN. Depression during pregnancy: prevalence and obstetric risk factors among pregnant women attending a tertiary care hospital in Navi Mumbai. *Ind Psychiatry J*. 2013;22(1):37.
8. Andersson L, Sundström-Poromaa I, Wulff M, Åström M, Bixo M. Implications of antenatal depression and anxiety for obstetric outcome. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2004;104(3):467–76.
9. Chan J, Natekar A, Einarson A, Koren G. Risks of untreated depression in pregnancy. *Can Fam Physician*. 2014;60(3):242–3.
10. Field T. Prenatal depression risk factors, developmental effects and interventions: a review. *J Pregnancy Child Health*. 2017;4(1):1–25.
11. Jahan N, Went TR, Sultan W, Sapkota A, Khurshid H, Qureshi IA, Alfonso M. Untreated depression during pregnancy and its effect on pregnancy outcomes: a systematic review. *Cureus*. 2021;13(8):1–12.
12. Lusskin SI, Pundiak TM, Habib SM. Perinatal depression: hiding in plain sight. *Can J Psychiatry*. 2007;52(8):479–88.
13. Mitchell J, Goodman J. Comparative effects of antidepressant medications and untreated major depression on pregnancy outcomes: a systematic review. *Arch Womens Ment Health*. 2018;21(5):505–16.
14. Robertson E, Grace S, Wallington T, Stewart DE. Antenatal risk factors for postpartum depression: a synthesis of recent literature. *Gen Hosp Psychiatry*. 2004;26(4):289–95.
15. Rubertsson C, Waldenström U, Wickberg B. Depressive mood in early pregnancy: prevalence and women at risk in a national Swedish sample. *J Reprod Infant Psychol*. 2003;21(2):113–23.
16. Yin X, Sun N, Jiang N, Xu X, Gan Y, Zhang J, Qiu L, Yang C, Shi X, Chang J, et al. Prevalence and associated factors of antenatal depression: systematic reviews and meta-analyses. *Clin Psychol Rev*. 2021;83:101932.
17. Fisher J, Mello MCD, Patel V, Rahman A, Tran T, Holtona S, Holmes W. Prevalence and determinants of common perinatal mental disorders in women in low-and lower-middle-income countries: a systematic review. *Bull World Health Organ*. 2012;90:139–49.
18. Jha S, Salve HR, Goswami K, Sagar R, Kant S. Burden of common mental disorders among pregnant women: a systematic review. *Asian J Psychiatry*. 2018;36:46–53.
19. Martínez-Paredes JF, Jácome-Pérez N. Depression in pregnancy. *Rev Colomb Psiquiatr*. 2019;48(1):58–65.
20. Gelaye B, Rondon MB, Araya R, Williams MA. Epidemiology of maternal depression, risk factors, and child outcomes in low-income and middle-income countries. *Lancet Psychiatry*. 2016;3(10):973–82.
21. Okagbue HI, Adamu PI, Bishop SA, Oguntunde PE, Opanuga AA, Akhmetshin EM. Systematic review of prevalence of antepartum depression during the trimesters of pregnancy. *Open Access Maced J Med Sci*. 2019;7(9):1555–60.
22. Kalra H, Tran T, Romero L, Chandra P, Fisher J. Burden of severe maternal peripartum mental disorders in low-and middle-income countries: a systematic review. *Arch Women's Ment Health*. 2022;25(2):267–75.
23. Dagher RK, Bruckheim HE, Colpe LJ, Edwards E, White DB. Perinatal depression: challenges and opportunities. *J Womens Health*. 2021;30(2):154–9.
24. Mahmood T, Mercer C, Tschudin S, Bitzer J, Gonzales Mesa E, Rowe H, Edozien L. Perinatal mental health: bridging the gaps in policy and practice. *Entre Nous*. 2016;85:22–3.
25. Italian National Institute of Health. Rapporto Istisan. Prevenzione e intervento precoce per il rischio della depressione postpartum, 2016.
26. Italian National Institute of Health. Prevenzione e intervento precoce per il rischio della depressione postpartum, 2021.
27. National Institute for Health and Care Excellence. Antenatal and postnatal mental health: clinical management and service guidance, 2020.
28. Atif M, Halaki M, Raynes-Greenow C, Chow CM. Perinatal depression in Pakistan: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Birth*. 2021;48(2):149–63.
29. Baron E, Bass J, Murray SM, Schneider M, Lund C. A systematic review of growth curve mixture modelling literature investigating trajectories of

- perinatal depressive symptoms and associated risk factors. *J Affect Disord.* 2017;223:194–208.
30. Biaggi A, Conroy S, Pawlby S, Pariante CM. Identifying the women at risk of antenatal anxiety and depression: a systematic review. *J Affect Disord.* 2016;191:62–77.
 31. Fellenzer JL, Cibula DA. Intendedness of pregnancy and other predictive factors for symptoms of prenatal depression in a population-based study. *Matern Child Health J.* 2014;18(10):2426–36.
 32. Getinet W, Amare T, Boru B, Shumet S, Worku W, Azale T. Prevalence and risk factors for antenatal depression in Ethiopia: systematic review. *Depress Res Treat.* 2018.
 33. Leigh B, Milgrom J. Risk factors for antenatal depression, postnatal depression and parenting stress. *BMC Psych.* 2008;8(1):1–11.
 34. Muraca GM, Joseph KS. The association between maternal age and depression. *JOGC.* 2014;36(9):803–10.
 35. Thompson O, Ajayi I. Prevalence of antenatal depression and associated risk factors among pregnant women attending antenatal clinics in Abeokuta North Local Government Area, Nigeria. *Depress Res Treat.* 2016;45:18979.
 36. Bilszta JL, Gu YZ, Meyer D, Buist AE. A geographic comparison of the prevalence and risk factors for postnatal depression in an Australian population. *Aust N Z J Public Health.* 2008;32(5):424–30.
 37. Castro e, Couto T, Cardoso MN, Brancaglioni MY, Faria GC, Garcia FD, Nicolato R, de Miranda DM, Corrêa H. Antenatal depression: prevalence and risk factor patterns across the gestational period. *J Affect Disord.* 2016;192:70–5.
 38. Dmitrovic BK, Dugalic MG, Balkoski GN, Dmitrovic A, Soldatovic I. Frequency of perinatal depression in Serbia and associated risk factors. *Int J Soc Psychiatry.* 2014;60(6):528–32.
 39. Fadzil A, Balakrishnan K, Razali R, Sidi H, Malapan T, Japaraj RP, Midin M, Nik Jaafar NR, Das S, Manaf MR. Risk factors for depression and anxiety among pregnant women in Hospital Tuanku Bainun, Ipoh, Malaysia. *Asia Pac Psychiatry.* 2013;5:7–13.
 40. Karmaliani R, Asad N, Bann CM, Moss N, McClure EM, Pasha O, Wright LL, Goldenberg RL. Prevalence of anxiety, depression and associated factors among pregnant women of Hyderabad, Pakistan. *Int J Soc Psychiatry.* 2009;55(5):414–24.
 41. Kitamura T, Yoshida K, Okano T, Kinoshita K, Hayashi M, Toyoda N, Ito M, Kudo N, Tada K, Kanazawa K, et al. Multicentre prospective study of perinatal depression in Japan: incidence and correlates of antenatal and postnatal depression. *Arch Womens Ment Health.* 2006;9(3):121–30.
 42. Park JH, Karmaus W, Zhang H. Prevalence of and risk factors for depressive symptoms in Korean women throughout pregnancy and in postpartum period. *Asian Nurs Res.* 2015;9(3):219–25.
 43. Stewart RC, Umar E, Tomenson B, Creed F. A cross-sectional study of antenatal depression and associated factors in Malawi. *Arch Womens Ment Health.* 2014;17(2):145–54.
 44. Abuidhail J, Abujilban S. Characteristics of Jordanian depressed pregnant women: a comparison study. *J Psychiatr Ment Health Nurs.* 2014;21(7):573–9.
 45. Abujilban SK, Abuidhail J, Al-Modallal H, Hamaideh S, Mosemli O. Predictors of antenatal depression among Jordanian pregnant women in their third trimester. *Health Care Women Int.* 2014;35(2):200–15.
 46. Coll CDVN, da Silveira MF, Bassani DG. Antenatal depressive symptoms among pregnant women: evidence from a Southern Brazilian population-based cohort study. *J Affect Disord.* 2017;209:140–6.
 47. Giardinelli L, Innocenti A, Benni L, Stefanini MC, Lino G, Lunardi C, Svelto V, Afshar S, Bovani R, Castellini G, et al. Depression and anxiety in perinatal period: prevalence and risk factors in an Italian sample. *Arch Womens Ment Health.* 2012;15(1):21–30.
 48. Husain N, Parveen A, Husain M, Saeed Q, Jafri F, Rahman R, Tomenson B, Chaudhry IB. Prevalence and psychosocial correlates of perinatal depression: a cohort study from urban Pakistan. *Arch Womens Ment Health.* 2011;14(5):395–403.
 49. Pampaka D, Papatheodorou SI, AlSeaidan M, Al Wotayan R, Wright RJ, Buring JE, Dockery DW, Christophi CA. Depressive symptoms and comorbid problems in pregnancy—results from a population based study. *J Psychosom Res.* 2018;112:53–8.
 50. Van de Loo KFE, Vlenterie R, Nikkels SJ, Merkus PJFM, Roukema J, Verhaak CM, Roeleveld N, van Gelder, MMHJ. Depression and anxiety during pregnancy: the influence of maternal characteristics. *Birth.* 2018;45(4):478–89.
 51. Wikman A, Axfors C, Iliadis SI, Cox J, Fransson E, Skalkidou A. Characteristics of women with different perinatal depression trajectories. *J Neurosci Res.* 2020;98(7):1268–82.
 52. Yanikkerem E, Ay S, Mutlu S, Goker A. Antenatal depression: prevalence and risk factors in a hospital based Turkish sample. *J Pak Med Assoc.* 2013;63(4):472–7.
 53. Al-Hejji Z, Al-Khudhair M, Al-Musaileem M, Al-Eithan M. Prevalence and associated risk factors of antenatal depression among women attending antenatal clinics in primary health care centers in the Ministry of Health in Al-Ahsa City, Saudi Arabia. *Fam Med Prim Care Rev.* 2019;8(12):3900.
 54. Chen J, Cross WM, Plummer V, Lam L, Sun M, Qin C, Tang S. The risk factors of antenatal depression: a cross-sectional survey. *J Clin Nurs.* 2019;28(19–20):3599–609.
 55. Al-Azri M, Al-Lawati I, Al-Kamyani R, Al-Kiyumi M, Al-Rawahi A, Davidson R, Al-Maniri A. Prevalence and risk factors of antenatal depression among Omani women in a primary care setting: cross-sectional study. *Sultan Qaboos Univ Med J.* 2016;16(1):e35.
 56. Lee AM, Lam SK, Sze Mun Lau SM, Chong CS, Chui HW, Fong DY. Prevalence, course, and risk factors for antenatal anxiety and depression. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2007;110(5):1102–12.
 57. Rich-Edwards JW, Kleinman K, Abrams A, Harlow BL, McLaughlin TJ, Joffe H, Gillman MW. Sociodemographic predictors of antenatal and postpartum depressive symptoms among women in a medical group practice. *J Epidemiol Community Health.* 2006;60(3):221–7.
 58. Milgrom J, Gemmill AW, Bilszta JL, Hayes B, Barnett B, Brooks J, Ericksem J, Buist A. (2008). Antenatal risk factors for postnatal depression: a large prospective study. *J Affect Disord.* 2008;108(1–2):147–157.
 59. Aasheim V, Waldenström U, Hjelmstedt A, Rasmussen S, Pettersson H, Schytt E. Associations between advanced maternal age and psychological distress in primiparous women, from early pregnancy to 18 months postpartum. *BJOG.* 2012;119(9):1108–16.
 60. Attali E, Yogev Y. The impact of advanced maternal age on pregnancy outcome. *Best Pract Res Clin Obstet Gynaecol.* 2021;70:2–9.
 61. Garcia-Blanco A, Monferrer A, Grimaldos J, Hervás D, Balanzá-Martínez V, Diago V, Vento M, Cháfer-Pericás, C. A preliminary study to assess the impact of maternal age on stress-related variables in healthy nulliparous women. *Psychoneuroendocrinology.* 2017;78:97–104.
 62. Ogbo FA, Eastwood J, Hendry A, Jalaludin B, Agho KE, Barnett B, Page A. Determinants of antenatal depression and postnatal depression in Australia. *BMC Psychiatry.* 2018;18(1):1–11.
 63. Vivilaki VG, Dafermos V, Kogevinas M, Bitsios P, Lionis C. The Edinburgh postnatal depression scale: translation and validation for a Greek sample. *BMC Public Health.* 2009;9(1):1–11.
 64. Aderibigbe YA, Gureje O, Omigbodun O. Postnatal emotional disorders in Nigerian women: a study of antecedents and associations. *Br J Psych.* 1993;163(5):645–50.
 65. Gaillard A, Le Strat Y, Mandelbrot L, Keïta H, Dubertret C. Predictors of postpartum depression: prospective study of 264 women followed during pregnancy and postpartum. *Psychiatry Res.* 2014;215(2):341–6.
 66. Kaaya SF, Mbwambo JK, Kilonzo GP, Van Den Borne H, Leshabari MT, Fawzi MC, Schaalma H. Socio-economic and partner relationship factors associated with antenatal depressive morbidity among pregnant women in Dar Es Salaam, Tanzania. *Tanzan J Health Res.* 2010;12(1):23–35.
 67. Underwood L, Waldie KE, D'Souza S, Peterson ER, Morton SM. A longitudinal study of pre-pregnancy and pregnancy risk factors associated with antenatal and postnatal symptoms of depression: evidence from growing up in New Zealand. *Matern Child Health J.* 2017;21(4):915–31.
 68. Zegeye A, Alebel A, Gebrie A, Tesfaye B, Belay YA, Adane F, Abie W. Prevalence and determinants of antenatal depression among pregnant women in Ethiopia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2018;18(1):1–11.
 69. Beck CT. Predictors of postpartum depression: an update. *Nurs Res.* 2001;50(5):275–85.
 70. Çankaya S. The effect of psychosocial risk factors on postpartum depression in antenatal period: a prospective study. *Arch Psychiatr Nurs.* 2020;34(3):176–83.
 71. Smorti M, Ponti L, Pancetti F. A comprehensive analysis of post-partum depression risk factors: the role of socio-demographic, individual, relational, and delivery characteristics. *Public Health Front.* 2019;295.
 72. Bennett HA, Einarson A, Taddio A, Koren G, Einarson TR. Prevalence of depression during pregnancy: systematic review. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2004;103(4):698–709.
 73. Szegda K, Markenson G, Bertone-Johnson ER, Chasan-Taber L. Depression during pregnancy: a risk factor for adverse neonatal outcomes? A critical review of the literature. *J Matern -Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2014;27(9):960–7.

74. Balsamo M, Saggino A. TDI: Teate Depression Inventory. Hogrefe: Firenze, Italy; 2013.
75. Balsamo M, Imperatori C, Sergi MR, Belvederi Murri M, Continisio M, Tamburello A, Innamorati M, Saggino A. Cognitive vulnerabilities and depression in young adults: an ROC curves analysis. *Depress Res Treat*. 2013;2013:407602.
76. Balsamo M, Giampaglia G, Saggino A. Building a new Rasch-based self-report inventory of depression. *Neuropsychiatr Dis Treat*. 2014;10:153–65.
77. Ruan-lu L, Pendergast LL, Liao PC, Jones P, von der Embse N, Innamorati M, Balsamo M. Measuring depression in young adults: preliminary development of an English version of the Teate Depression Inventory. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2023;20(15):6470.
78. Andrich D. An elaboration of Guttman scaling with Rasch models for measurement. *Sociol Methodol*. 1985;15:33–80.
79. Andrich D. A latent-trait model for items with response dependencies: implications for test construction and analysis. Test design: developments in psychology and psychometrics. Orlando, USA: Academic; 1985. pp. 245–75.
80. Andrich D. A general form of Rasch's extended logistic model for partial credit scoring. *Appl Meas Educ*. 1988;1(4):363–78.
81. Cox JL, Holden JM, Sagovsky R. Detection of postnatal depression. Development of the 10-item Edinburgh postnatal depression scale. *Br J Psych*. 1987;150(6):782–6.
82. Teng HW, Hsu CS, Shih SM, Lu ML, Pan JJ, Shen WW. Screening postpartum depression with the Taiwanese version of the Edinburgh postnatal depression scale. *Compr Psychiatry*. 2005;46(4):261–5.
83. Alves S, Fonseca A, Canavaro MC, Pereira M. Preliminary psychometric testing of the postpartum depression predictors inventory-revised (PDPi-R) in Portuguese women. *Matern Child Health J*. 2018;22(4):571–8.
84. Kheirabadi GR, Maracy MR, Akbaripour S, Masaeli N. Psychometric properties and diagnostic accuracy of the Edinburgh postnatal depression scale in a sample of Iranian women. *Iran J Med Sci*. 2012;37(1):32.
85. Lydsdottir LB, Howard LM, Olafsdottir H, Thome M, Tyrffingsson P, Sigurdsson JF. The psychometric properties of the Icelandic version of the Edinburgh postnatal depression scale (EPDS) when used prenatal. *Midwifery*. 2019;69:45–51.
86. Mirabella F, Michielin P, Piacentini D, Veltro F, Barbano G, Cattaneo M, Palumbo G, Gigantesco A. Efficacia Di Un intervento psicologico rivolto a donne positive allo screening per depressione post partum. *Riv Psichiatr*. 2016;51(6):260–9.
87. Bunni D. Construct validity of the Teate Depression Inventory (TDI) with a Middle Eastern/Arab American Sample. Masters Theses, Eastern Illinois University, IL; 2019.
88. Coons D. Construct validity of the teate depression inventory: convergent and discriminant validity and equivalence for Black/African American and White/Caucasian samples. Masters Theses, Eastern Illinois University, IL; 2020.
89. Crouse EM. Construct validity of the Teate depression inventory and the state-trait inventory for cognitive and somatic anxiety. IL: Undergraduate Honors Theses, Eastern Illinois University; 2017.
90. Rushworth S. Construct validity of the Teate depression inventory with a Black African American sample. IL: Masters Theses, Eastern Illinois University; 2017.
91. Cronbach LJ. Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika*. 1951;16(3):297–334.
92. Dunn TJ, Baguley T, Brunsden V. From alpha to omega: a practical solution to the pervasive problem of internal consistency estimation. *Br J Psychol*. 2014;105(3):399–412.
93. IBM Corp. IBM SPSS statistics for Windows (Version 25.0). Armonk, NY, USA: IBM; 2017.
94. JASP Team. JASP (Version 0.11.1.0). Amsterdam, NL: JASP; 2019.
95. Barbaranelli C. *Analisi Dei Dati. Tecniche multivariate per la ricerca psicologica e sociale*. 1st ed. Italy: LED; 2003. Milano.
96. Nunnally J, Bernstein IH. *Psychometric theory*. 1st ed. New Delhi, India: Tata McGraw-Hill; 1978.
97. Dadi AF, Miller ER, Bisetegn TA, Mwanri L. Global burden of antenatal depression and its association with adverse birth outcomes: an umbrella review. *BMC Public Health*. 2020;20(1):1–16.
98. Klawetter S, McNitt C, Hoffman JA, Glaze K, Sward A, Frankel K. Perinatal depression in low-income women: a literature review and innovative screening approach. *Curr Psychiatry Rep*. 2020;22(1):1–8.
99. Koh M, Ahn S, Kim J, Park S, Oh J. Pregnant women's antenatal depression and influencing factors. *Korean J Women Health Nurs*. 2019;25(1):112–23.
100. Lee EJ, Lee JY, Lee SJ, Yu SE. Influence of self-esteem and spouse support on prenatal depression in pregnant women. *J Korean Soc Matern Child Health*. 2020;24(4):212–20.
101. Junge C, Garthus-Niegel S, Slinning K, Polte C, Simonsen TB, Eberhard-Gran M. The impact of perinatal depression on children's social-emotional development: a longitudinal study. *Matern Child Health J*. 2017;21(3):607–15.
102. Zhao Y, Munro-Kramer ML, Shi S, Wang J, Zhu X. A longitudinal study of perinatal depression among Chinese high-risk pregnant women. *Women Birth*. 2018;31(6):395–402.
103. Postpartum Depression. Action towards causes and treatment (PACT) Consortium. Heterogeneity of postpartum depression: a latent class analysis. *Lancet*. 2015;2(1):59–67.
104. de Castro F, Place JM, Billings DL, Rivera L, Frongillo EA. Risk profiles associated with postnatal depressive symptoms among women in a public sector hospital in Mexico: the role of sociodemographic and psychosocial factors. *Arch Women's Ment Health*. 2015;18(3):463–71.
105. Ghaedrahmati M, Kazemi A, Kheirabadi G, Ebrahimi A, Bahrami M. Postpartum depression risk factors: a narrative review. *J Educ Health Promot* 2017;6(60).
106. Mikšić Š, Miškulin M, Juranić B, Rakošec Ž, Včev A, Degmečić D. Depression and suicidality during pregnancy. *Psychiatr Danub*. 2018;30(1):85–90.
107. Sockol LE. A systematic review and meta-analysis of interpersonal psychotherapy for perinatal women. *J Affect Disord*. 2018;232:316–28.
108. Langan RC, Goodbred AJ. Identification and management of peripartum depression. *Am Fam Physician*. 2016;93(10):852–8.
109. Lee HY, Hans SL. Prenatal depression and young low-income mothers' perception of their children from pregnancy through early childhood. *Infant Behav Dev*. 2015;40:183–92.
110. Beck AT, Sokol L, Clark DA, Berchick R, Wright. F.A crossover study of focused cognitive therapy for panic disorder. *Am J Psychiatry*. 1992;149(6):778–83.
111. Beck AT, Emery G, Greenberg RL. *Anxiety disorders and phobias: a cognitive perspective*. 1st ed. Cambridge, MA: Basic books; 2005.
112. Ellis A. *Reason and emotion in psychotherapy*. 1st ed. Lyle Stuart: Oxford; 1962.
113. Stephenson E, Watson PJ, Chen ZJ, Morris RJ. Self-compassion, self-esteem, and irrational beliefs. *Curr Psychol*. 2017;37(4):809–15.
114. Turner MJ. Rational emotive behavior therapy (REBT), irrational and rational beliefs, and the mental health of athletes. *Front Psychol*. 2016;7:1423.
115. Wolpe J. *Tecniche Di terapia del comportamento*. 1st ed. Milano, Italy: Franco Angeli; 1984.
116. Kim YK, Hur JW, Kim KH, Oh KS, Shin YC. Prediction of postpartum depression by sociodemographic, obstetric and psychological factors: a prospective study. *Psychiatry Clin Neurosci*. 2008;62(3):331–40.
117. Topcu G, Savona-Ventura C, Ayres-de-Campos D, Mukhopadhyay S, Messinis I, Mahmood T, Cassar OA, Grixti Sultana S. Provision of antenatal care in Europe-A scientific study commissioned by European Board and College of Obstetrics and Gynaecology (EBCOG). *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol*. 2022;272:30–6.

Publisher's Note

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.