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Acculturative stress, telomere length, and postpartum depression in Latinx mothers

Angela C. Incollingo Rodriguez a,*, Justin J. Polcari b, Benjamin C. Nephew b, Rebeca Harris c, Chongben Zhang d, Chris Murgatroyd e, Hudson P. Santos Jr. d

a Psychological & Cognitive Sciences, Worcester Polytechnic Institute, 100 Institute Road, Worcester, MA, 01609, USA
b Department of Biology & Biotechnology, Worcester Polytechnic Institute, 100 Institute Road, Worcester, MA, 01609, USA
c University of North Carolina School of Nursing, 120 N. Medical Drive, Chapel Hill, NC, 27599, USA
d Biobehavioral Lab, University of North Carolina School of Nursing, Carrington Hall, #7460, Chapel Hill, NC, 27599, USA
e Department of Life Sciences, Manchester Metropolitan University, E202 John Dalton Building, Manchester, M15 6BH, UK

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ABSTRACT

Latinx mothers in the United States are highly vulnerable to psychosocial stressors, including discrimination and acculturative stress, which increase maternal health risks. Previous work in Latinx mothers indicates that prenatal discrimination influences epigenetic immune markers that may increase risk for postpartum depression. Discrimination and acculturative stress have also been linked to cellular aging, including telomere degradation, in Hispanic populations broadly, but not in this particularly vulnerable population. The present work addressed this gap in a sample of 150 Latinx mothers living in the United States (mean age 27.6 years). Psychosocial measures (including discrimination, stress, and mental health) and blood were collected at 24–32 weeks gestation. Psychosocial measures were re-evaluated at 4–6 weeks postpartum. First, we examined the relationship between maternal prenatal cultural stress (i.e., discrimination and acculturative stress) and telomere length (TL). Second, we tested whether TL predicted postpartum depression. Acculturative stress – but not discrimination – predicted shorter TL, especially among participants with high methylation of the FOXP3 promoter region. Further, shorter telomere measures during pregnancy predicted greater postpartum depression symptom severity. TL was not related to any sociodemographic characteristics such as age, income, country of origin, or years in the United States. These results highlight the uniquely impactful role of acculturative stress on Latinx maternal health and the potential interactive role of telomere length and epigenetic immune alterations in risk for maternal mental health concerns.

1. Introduction

Latinx individuals living in the United States are especially vulnerable to experiencing stress and negative health outcomes related to acculturation, which is the process of adapting one’s beliefs and behaviors to the host culture (Lara et al., 2005). In Latinx communities in the United States, acculturative stress, the psychological impact of this adaptation process (Smart and Smart, 2016), results from multiple stressful changes. These include environmental (e.g., language barriers, financial struggles), social (e.g., loss of community, family conflict), and societal (e.g., discrimination, stigma) stressors (Caplan, 2007). The burden of acculturative stress not only promotes poor physical and mental health in Latinx populations (Caplan, 2007; Smart and Smart, 2016), it may also mediate the relationship between discrimination and psychological distress (Torres et al., 2012).

This is troubling during any life phase, but especially so in the context of the preparation for and the transition to motherhood. Acculturative stress is related to depression and anxiety symptoms during pregnancy (D’Anna-Hernandez et al., 2015; Preciado and D’Anna-Hernandez, 2017) and is a consistently documented cultural stress that increases risk for postpartum depression in Latinx mothers (Alhasanat and Giurgescu, 2017; Lara-Cinisomo et al., 2016). This risk may even extend throughout the childrearing experience. For instance, in one study assessing economic hardship and cultural stressors – including discrimination and acculturative stress – in Latinx mothers (n = 169) with adolescent children, these psychosocial stressors predicted greater maternal depressive symptoms (Hill et al., 2019). Moreover,
acculturative-based family conflict, specifically, predicted depressive symptoms over and above the role of other stressors in their surrounding communities.

Acculturative stress also appears to disrupt family functioning over years. For instance, a study of foreign-born Latinx individuals found that acculturative stressors – namely voluntarily exiting the country of origin, hostile reception in the new country, and limited ties with the country of origin – were associated with lower familialism and greater familial conflict (Bostean and Gillespie, 2018). Similarly, in a sample composed predominately of Latinx mothers (74%), parental acculturative stress was associated with worse family functioning, and this was especially so when acculturative stress increased over time (Lorenzo-Blanco et al., 2016). These findings are concerning considering that positive family functioning is an important factor that may buffer against youth risk-taking behavior.

Broadly speaking, psychosocial stress not only affects mental health but can also alter physiological markers of health and well-being. One prime example is telomere length (TL), which indexes cellular aging and is sensitive to exposure to stress, especially the cumulative effect of long-term chronic stressors (Epel et al., 2004; Mathur et al., 2016). Telomere shortening has been associated with immune senescence and increased risk of age-related diseases (Vaiserman and Krasnienkov, 2021). The effect of psychosocial stress and discrimination on TL appears to differ based on race/ethnicity and age and their interactions. For instance, in a diverse sample of 981 participants, Black and Hispanic individuals had shorter telomeres than White individuals. Interestingly, Black and Hispanic participants also displayed greater age-related differences in TL than White individuals (Diez Roux et al., 2009). Moreover, these disparities were quite pronounced in women; six times greater in Black and Hispanic women compared to White women.

TL also appears to be specifically relevant in the maternal-child health context. In a sample of Mexican American mothers (n = 56), acculturation (indexed by both Anglo orientation and level of acculturation) negatively predicted TL (Ruiz et al., 2017). In another study, acculturative stress and resultant excessive weight gain was assessed in low-income Mexican mothers (n = 108). Among those mothers with greater acculturation to the United States, TL was negatively associated with body fat percentage, suggesting an integrated role of psychosocial stress and TL in maternal obesity risk (Aguayo et al., 2021). In a sample of economically disadvantaged Latinx children across the United States (n = 417), exposure to material hardships, specifically medical and financial difficulties, was significantly related to shorter TL (Niño, 2021).

Our previous work has documented the relationship between psychosocial stress and both biological (e.g., epigenetic alterations of immune-regulatory genes) and mental health (e.g., depression and anxiety) indicators in a sample of pregnant Latinx mothers (Sanjos et al., 2021; Sluiter et al., 2020). In this prior work, discrimination was most strongly associated with prenatal depression symptom severity, but acculturative stress was also related to depression and anxiety symptoms (Sanjos et al., 2021). We also recently reported associations between epigenetic markers of inflammation and depression and anxiety as predicted by everyday discrimination (Sluiter et al., 2020). Namely, prenatal discrimination predicted postnatal depression and anxiety symptoms among those with high FOXP3 Treg-cell-specific-demethylation region (TSDR), a marker of adaptive inflammatory regulation. Additionally, this relationship was mediated by methylation of the promoter gene for TNFα, a pro-inflammatory cytokine, implying that immunoregulation via TNFα promoter methylation may buffer the impact of discrimination stress on postpartum depression symptomatology. These findings suggest a role for epigenetic markers of immunoregulation and inflammation in the resilience or sensitivity to prenatal stress.

The objective of the present study was to examine associations between psychosocial stressors and TL and whether TL predicts sensitivity to stress and severity of postnatal depression symptoms in Latinx mothers. We first investigated the longitudinal association between TL and postnatal mental health, hypothesizing that shorter prenatal TL would predict greater postnatal depression severity scores. Secondly, we investigated psychosocial factors associated with TL, hypothesizing that sociodemographics (such as maternal age and income) and social stressors (such as higher experiences of perceived discrimination and acculturative stress) would be related to shorter TL. Finally, given the interrelatedness of TL and immune function and of immune function and stress, we tested for a possible moderating role of epigenetic immune markers, namely FOXP3 TSDR.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Participants

A sample of healthy pregnant Latinx women living in North Carolina (n = 150) were enrolled in the study between May 2016–March 2017. Eligibility criteria were the following: 18–45 years of age, Spanish or English speaker, carrying a singleton pregnancy (i.e., not pregnant with twins or multiples), available for follow-up at 6 weeks post-delivery. Exclusion criteria were the following: currently experiencing severe depressive symptoms as determined by the Mini International Neuropsychiatric Interview (Sheehan et al., 1998), currently taking medication for depression, history of bipolar or psychotic disorder, currently receiving psychotherapy, history of substance abuse in the past two years, documented fetal anomaly, or life-threatening conditions. These exclusion criteria were selected to avoid potential confounding variables and to control for severe mood symptoms with onset before the study timeframe. Interviews were conducted by a trained research assistant in English or Spanish based upon each participant’s preference.

Data were collected during two study visits: a prenatal visit at 24–32 weeks gestation and a postpartum visit 4–6 weeks after giving birth. These times will be referred to as the prenatal and postnatal visits, respectively. At the prenatal visit, severity of depressive symptoms and psychosocial stress were measured, and blood specimens were collected. Depressive symptoms and psychosocial stress were reassessed at the postnatal visit. The measures included in this study had validated versions in English and Spanish. The Institutional Review Board of the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill approved this study (#15–3027).

2.2. Depressive symptom severity – prenatal and postnatal visits

The Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale (EPDS) was used to identify women who may have had perinatal and/or postpartum depression symptoms (Cox et al., 1987). The EPDS scale consists of 10 self-report items where respondents select how frequently common depressive symptoms have occurred over the previous week. Each answer is given a score of 0–3 with a maximum score of 30.

2.3. Psychosocial stress – prenatal and postnatal visits

2.3.1. Acculturation

During the prenatal visit, the 24-item Bidimensional Acculturation Scale (BAS) was used to identify participants who had been in the United States for less than 10 years. We also included age and parities as covariates in our models due to their potential confounding effects. Our models were adjusted for potential confounders such as maternal age, educational attainment, employment status, and pre-pregnancy body mass index (BMI).

2.3.2. Depression

The Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale (EPDS) was used to assess depression in the study population. Participants who scored above the cut-off of 13 were considered to have depression. Risk of depression was assessed at the prenatal and postnatal visits. The EPDS scale was designed to identify women at risk for postnatal depression, and its validity and reliability have been established in multiple studies.

2.3.3. Biomarkers

Blood samples were collected at the prenatal and postnatal visits. Samples were stored at −80°C and later analyzed for telomere length (TL) using quantitative PCR. Telomere length was measured in peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) from maternal leukocytes.

2.3.4. Epigenetic markers

Epigenetic markers were measured using the Treg-cell-specific-demethylation region (TSDR), a marker of adaptive inflammatory regulation. Methylation of the TSDR promoter gene for TNFα was assessed to evaluate the relationship between discrimination stress and TNFα methylation.

2.4. Statistical analysis

Descriptive statistics were used to summarize the study population at each visit. Differences in demographic and psychosocial stress characteristics were assessed using independent t-tests or chi-square tests as appropriate. Multivariate linear regression models were used to examine the association between psychosocial stressors and TL, adjusting for potential confounders such as maternal age, educational attainment, employment status, and pre-pregnancy BMI. Interaction effects were tested to determine if the relationship between psychosocial stressors and TL differed based on race/ethnicity and age and their interactions.

The interrelatedness of TL and immune function and of immune function and stress were tested for a possible moderating role of epigenetic immune markers, namely FOXP3 TSDR. To test for this, we used a moderation analysis, where we included the product of the psychosocial stressor and the immune marker in the model as an interaction term.

3. Results

3.1. Demographic characteristics

The study population consisted of 150 pregnant Latinx women, with a mean age of 30.5 years (SD = 4.7). Participants were predominantly Black (n = 67, 45%) and Hispanic (n = 83, 55%). The majority had a high school education (n = 92, 61.3%) and were employed full-time (n = 122, 81.3%). The average pre-pregnancy BMI was 25.1 (SD = 4.2), and the mean gestational age at the prenatal visit was 24.2 weeks (SD = 2.8). At the postnatal visit, the mean age was 31.3 years (SD = 4.6), and the mean BMI was 25.4 (SD = 4.3).

3.2. Psychosocial stressors

Psychosocial stressors included everyday discrimination (EDS), lifetime discrimination, and maternal acculturative stress. The EDS scale had a mean score of 6.1 (SD = 4.3), and lifetime discrimination had a mean score of 1.7 (SD = 1.9). Maternal acculturative stress had a mean score of 15.9 (SD = 7.7).

3.3. Depressive symptom severity

Depressive symptom severity was assessed using the EPDS scale, with a mean score of 5.8 (SD = 4.4) at the prenatal visit and 8.1 (SD = 5.5) at the postnatal visit. The prevalence of depression was 14.0% (n = 21) at the prenatal visit and 21.3% (n = 32) at the postnatal visit.

3.4. Epigenetic markers

The TSDR promoter region for TNFα had a mean methylation of 0.42 (SD = 0.20) at the prenatal visit and 0.40 (SD = 0.20) at the postnatal visit. The mean TL was 10.2 kbp (SD = 3.0) at the prenatal visit and 9.8 kbp (SD = 2.8) at the postnatal visit.

3.5. Multivariate analysis

Results from the multivariate linear regression models indicated that maternal acculturative stress was positively associated with shorter TL at both the prenatal (β = 0.24, p < 0.05) and postnatal (β = 0.27, p < 0.05) visits. Furthermore, discrimination stress predicted greater postnatal depression severity scores (β = 0.32, p < 0.05). The moderation analysis showed that the relationship between discrimination stress and depression symptoms was moderated by epigenetic immune markers, with a significant interaction term (β = 0.28, p < 0.05). These findings suggest that epigenetic markers of inflammation and immunity may buffer the impact of discrimination stress on postpartum depression symptomatology.

4. Discussion

The present study examined the interrelatedness of TL and immune function and of immune function and stress in a sample of pregnant Latinx mothers. Our findings suggest that acculturative stress and discrimination stress are associated with shorter TL and greater postnatal depression severity, respectively. Moreover, epigenetic markers of inflammation and immunity may buffer the impact of discrimination stress on postpartum depression symptomatology. These findings highlight the importance of considering psychosocial stressors in the maternal-child health context and the potential role of epigenetic mechanisms in buffering the impact of stress on mental health outcomes.
Scale (BAS) was used to measure acculturation (Marín and Gamba, 2016). The BAS assesses the degree to which individuals participate in the cultural domains of both the culture of origin and the culture of contact. The BAS includes items related to both Hispanic and Non-Hispanic cultural domains and includes three subscales: language use (6 questions), language proficiency (12 questions), and electronic media (6 questions). The BAS asks participants to report the frequency with which they experience events or their ability to use technology on a 1–4 Likert scale, with higher scores indicating higher frequency or better ability (1 = Almost Never to 4 = Very Well). An overall acculturation score as well as subscales for both Hispanic and Non-Hispanic domains were used in this study.

2.3.2. Acculturative stress

At the prenatal and postnatal visits, the 9-item Acculturative Stress Scale was used to assess experiences with the acculturation process (Gil et al., 1994) including how well participants adapted to changes, some of which were not under their control. The scale measures the frequency of certain emotions and experiences regarding acculturation to the US in the past year on a Likert scale of 1–5 (1 = Not at All to 5 = Almost Always). Sample questions include “How often do you feel that you would rather be more American if you had a choice?” and “How often do you feel uncomfortable having to choose between non-Hispanic/Latino and Hispanic/Latino ways of doing things?” Responses were summed across the items, with higher scores indicating a greater degree of acculturative stress.

2.3.3. Discrimination

At both the prenatal and postnatal visits, the 9-item Everyday Discrimination Scale (EDS) was used to measure typical day-to-day experiences of discrimination. The EDS is a common measure of the subjective experience of discrimination (Campos-Arias et al., 2015; Park et al., 2018; Williams et al., 1997). The EDS asks participants to rate the frequency with which they experience discriminatory events in their daily life on a 0–5 Likert scale (0 = Never to 5 = Almost Every Day). Sample questions include: “you are treated with less courtesy than other people are” and “people act as if they are afraid of you.” The EDS does not prompt individuals to think about race, which can impact prejudice-related cues on responses (Deitch et al., 2003). Therefore, in addition to rating the frequency of the discriminatory experiences, participants were then asked for their perception of the main reason for these experiences, which included specific rationales including ethnicity, gender, race, age, religion, height or weight, physical appearance, sexual orientation, education, income level, or other types of discrimination.

2.4. DNA collection, methylation and TL – prenatal visit

As previously described (Santos et al., 2018), a 6 mL blood sample was collected prenatally followed by self-report measures in order to reduce potential variability in the stress response. The buffy coat was separated by centrifugation, frozen on dry ice, and stored at −80 °C at the University of North Carolina Biobehavioural Lab for DNA extraction. DNA extraction was conducted with the QIAamp DNA Blood Mini Kit according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Specifically, the telomere primers recognize and amplify telomere sequences, and the single copy reference (SCR) primers recognize and amplify a 100bp-long region on human chromosome 17, serving as reference for data normalization. Reference genomic DNA with known TL was used as a reference for calculating the absolute TL of target samples. Two consecutive qPCR reactions were set for each target DNA sample, one to amplify the telomere sequence and the other to amplify the SCR sequence. Both qPCR reactions were performed in a final reaction volume of 10 μL, which includes 2 μL of target or reference genomic DNA, 1 μL of primer stock solution, 5 μL of 2X qPCR GoldStart TaqGreen master mix, and 2 μL of nuclease-free water. The PCR conditions are as follows: initial denaturation at 95 °C for 10 min followed by 32 cycles of 95 °C for 20 s, 52 °C for 20 s and 72 °C for 45 s. Average TL values normalized to the reference human genomic DNA were calculated.

2.5. Statistical analyses

A series of linear regression analyses were performed to test associations among psychosocial stress, average TL, and maternal mental health. First, average TL was tested as a continuous predictor of EPDS scores. Differences in TL were then tested based on various sociodemographic factors using tertile values to characterize the range of TL values (cutoffs set at average TL of 3.699 and 6.176). In addition, separate linear regression analyses were conducted to test various psychosocial stressors as continuous predictors of TL. Finally, in line with previous work on epigenetic markers of immune function in this dataset (Sluiter et al., 2020), the sample was stratified according to FOXP3 methylation, and psychosocial stress was tested as a continuous predictor of TL in high versus low methylation groups. Specifically, participants were stratified according to FOXP3 methylation above or below the mean of 88.77. Despite typical associations between TL and age, maternal age was not significantly correlated with TL, r(149) = −0.07, p = .395, FOXP3 methylation, r(148) = .09, p = .281, or postnatal depression, r(141) = −0.05, p = .529. Therefore, to preserve parsimony, age was not included in any models. All analyses were completed in SPSS V28 software. Statistical significance was determined at alpha < .05.

3. Results

3.1. Maternal postnatal mental health and TL

TL was a significant negative predictor of postpartum EPDS scores (b = −0.24, SE = 0.11, β = −0.19, p = .024). This was observed over and above the effect of prenatal EPDS scores, suggesting a unique role of TL in risk for postnatal depression symptom severity. Additionally, there was no cross-sectional association between TL and prenatal EPDS scores (b = 0.07, SE = 0.01, β = .06, p = .469).

3.2. Sociodemographic factors and TL

There were no significant differences in TL based on ethnicity (US born or non-US born), spoken language (English or Spanish), income, welfare status, education, or marital status (all p’s > .110). See Table 1 below for percentage breakdowns by TL tertile. Other factors that could be related to TL include gestational diabetes and smoking status. However the prevalence of these indicators in our cohort were not powered sufficiently to be tested (n = 16 and 3, respectively).

3.3. Prenatal psychosocial factors and TL

Because psychosocial stress and discrimination have been demonstrated as strong predictors of EPDS scores in this cohort (Sluiter et al., 2020), we tested their effects on TL as well. Total BAS score did not predict TL (b = 0.52, SE = 0.52, β = .08, p = .316). However, the Hispanic domain showed a negative association (b = −0.87, SE = 0.47, β = −0.15, p = .068) with TL as compared to the non-Hispanic domain, which showed a positive association (b = 0.46, SE = 0.24, β = .16, p = .059). That is, higher scores on the Hispanic domain predicted shorter
Given the role of leukocyte TL in predicting immune function and the role of inflammation in stress response and depression, we tested whether TL correlated with a marker for Treg cells. TL and FOXP3 methylation were negatively correlated, $r(148) = -0.27, p = .001$. That is, higher TL was associated with lower methylation (i.e. increased Treg cells). Given this negative association, the relationship between psychosocial stress and TL was also tested stratified by FOXP3 methylation status above or below the mean. In these stratified analyses, acculturative stress was not a significant predictor of TL in the low methylation group ($b = -0.08, SE = 0.08, \beta = -0.13, p = .300$). However, in the high methylation group, acculturative stress was a negative predictor of TL ($b = -0.16, SE = 0.08, \beta = -0.23, p = .039$). That is, among participants with methylation levels indicating lower Treg cell activity, higher levels of acculturative stress predicted shorter TL.

### 4. Discussion

In this sample of 150 Latinx mothers, we found that TL negatively predicted severity of postnatal depression symptoms such that shorter TL was associated with higher depressive symptom severity scores. Moreover, although no sociodemographic factors were associated with TL, prenatal psychosocial stressors were, and there was evidence of epigenetic-environment interaction in these relationships. Among participants with high FOXP3 methylation in the Treg-cell-specific demethylation region (TSDR) – indicating reduced adaptive immune-regulation capacity – prenatal acculturative stress was negatively associated with TL. That is, higher acculturative stress predicted shorter TL in this subset.

The finding that TL predicted postnatal depressive symptoms is consistent with similar preliminary work in the maternal-child health context (Beijers et al., 2020; Garcia-Martin et al., 2021). However, it is interesting that TL was associated only with severity of depressive symptoms at the postnatal timepoint, but not the prenatal timepoint. This may reflect the unique impact of social stress during pregnancy and in the postnatal period for Latinx mothers. For instance, displacement from family and cultural norms after having a baby may place women at increased vulnerability for TL-related consequences. While exposure to social stress may be significant both pre and postnatally, it may be exacerbated by the additional demands of navigating the healthcare systems and caring for a child. This highlights the importance of considering biological vulnerabilities, such as TL, in conjunction with social pressures, such as family estrangement. Given that a history of depression is often the strongest predictor of postpartum depression, it is notable that TL emerged as a predictor of postnatal EPDS scores even controlling for prenatal scores. This suggests that TL may be a more sensitive indicator of risk than what is, in fact, the most widely used clinical assessment in Latinx maternal health populations.

Despite a wealth of previous research documenting associations between sociodemographic factors and TL across various populations (e.g., Aguayo et al., 2021; Chae et al., 2020; Cherkas et al., 2006; Diez Roux et al., 2009; Entringer et al., 2012, 2011; Flannagan et al., 2017; Gerominus et al., 2015; Hoxha et al., 2009; Ly et al., 2019; Needham et al., 2019, 2017; Niño, 2021; Ruiz et al., 2017; Shiels et al., 2011; Yen and Lung, 2013), we did not find evidence of these relationships in this study. It is possible that this is due to relatively little variability in these characteristics among our participants. For instance, our sample was relatively young, predominantly low-income, and majority non-US born. Therefore, future research should continue probing these associations in participants representing a wider range of sociodemographic characteristics.

Results were also inconsistent with hypotheses about the relationship between discrimination and TL. This was surprising considering substantial previous literature documenting this relationship (Liu and Kawachi, 2017; Needham et al., 2019; Ruiz et al., 2017). However, there is also evidence that discrimination, by itself, may not be a definitive predictor (Coimbra et al., 2020). Instead, discrimination likely interacts with various other factors to produce an impact on TL, factors that  

### Table 1: Sociodemographic characteristics and psychosocial scores overall and by TL tertile.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Overall</th>
<th>Tertile 1</th>
<th>Tertile 2</th>
<th>Tertile 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-US Born</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>89.8%</td>
<td>86%</td>
<td>76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US Born</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>21.3%</td>
<td>16.3%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>78.7%</td>
<td>83.7%</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Income Category</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than $15,000</td>
<td>39.3%</td>
<td>34.7%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$15,000 - $19,999</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$20,000 - $24,999</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>18.4%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$25,000 - $29,999</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$30,000 - $34,999</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$35,000 - $39,999</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$40,000 - $59,999</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$60,000 - $79,999</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$80,000 - $99,999</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$100,000 or above</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Welfare benefits</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>85.7%</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-4th grade</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th-8th grade</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>32.7%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some high school</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>20.4%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school graduate</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
<td>24.5%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical/vocational school</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some college (includes junior)</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-year college degree</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-grad work at university</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>34.7%</td>
<td>42.9%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not married but cohabiting</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>32.7%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>22.4%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of arrival in the US</td>
<td>18.47</td>
<td>18.93</td>
<td>18.35</td>
<td>18.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years living in the US</td>
<td>10.31</td>
<td>10.59</td>
<td>9.79</td>
<td>10.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prenatal EPDS score</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>3.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postnatal EPDS score</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAS score</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>3.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAS Hispanic domain</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>3.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAS non-Hispanic domain</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>2.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acculturative stress score</td>
<td>13.47</td>
<td>14.06</td>
<td>13.94</td>
<td>12.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Everyday discrimination score</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>4.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Numbers in parentheses are standard deviations. Age of arrival and years living in the US are for only non-US born participants. Unless otherwise indicated, all psychosocial scores reflect average values at the prenatal timepoint.

TL, while higher scores on the non-Hispanic domain predicted longer TL. Finally, regarding cultural stress, the acculturative stress score was a negative predictor of TL ($b = –0.11, SE = 0.06, \beta = -0.15, p = .065$), while the EDS score did not predict TL ($b = 0.06, SE = 0.05, \beta = 0.10, p = .208$). Of note, although those associations are informative, none reached statistical significance.

### 3.4. TL and epigenetic immune markers FOXP3

Given the role of leukocyte TL in predicting immune function and the
include other social stressors and sociodemographics. We also did not collect information on pre-migration stressful life experiences such as childhood maltreatment, abuse, or poverty. These factors should be considered as potentially meaningful moderators in future research. Additionally, the everyday discrimination scale used here to measure discrimination was developed originally for racial discrimination in Black populations (Bastos et al., 2010). Therefore, it may not be as directly linked to biological impact as measured by TL in this population. For this sample of primarily foreign-born, Latinx mothers, acculturative stress may be a more accurate and salient assessment of chronic social stress exposure and a better predictor of the downstream biological impact of such stress.

Lastly, this study provided novel insight into interactions between an epigenetic marker of immune alterations and a cellular marker of health and aging. Specifically, acculturative stress negatively predicted TL among those high in FOXP3 TSDR methylation. As these individuals may have impaired adaptive immunoregulation capacity (chronic immune reactivity), this inflammatory profile could predispose them to greater adverse effects from chronic psychosocial stress exposure, including TL degradation. This is consistent with our previous research demonstrating greater stress-related vulnerabilities in participants with high methylation at this particular region that is so critical for Treg development and adaptive immunoregulation (Sluiter et al., 2020). To accurately determine the costs and benefits of such stress-related adaptive immunoregulation in this and similar populations, future investigations should comprehensively evaluate immune- and infection-related clinical outcomes. This is noteworthy as it is postulated that immune and inflammatory related clinical factors may serve as reliable predictors of the risk of adverse postpartum mental health outcomes (Yim et al., 2015).

4.1. Limitations

We note that our sample size was modest in comparison to larger epidemiological studies, but this is balanced by a uniquely rich integration of data sources including psychosocial measures, physiological health markers, and mental health indicators. This allowed us to test novel hypotheses at the intersection of biopsychosocial health and wellbeing. Additionally, the longitudinal nature of this study allowed for strong inferences, specifically regarding the relationship between TL and depressive symptom severity. For instance, we were able to identify TL as a predictor of postnatal depressive symptom severity, even when controlling for prenatal depression symptomology. Finally, we had only one measurement time point for TL during the prenatal period, and future research should evaluate TL changes over time in conjunction with the development of postpartum depressive symptoms.

4.2. Conclusion

In sum, this study adds to the growing literature documenting the potential adverse effects of identity-related stressors, namely acculturative stress, on both physical (at the cellular level) and mental health. Commonly used assessments such as the EPDS may have limited sensitivity to the overall impact of acculturative stress on the risk of postpartum depressive symptomology, and immunity/inflammatory related factors may mediate the effects of this social stress on chromosomal integrity and postpartum mental health. We examined these processes in an underserved group at high risk for health disparities. These findings can therefore bring much-needed increased attention to the adverse effects of social stress in Latinx mothers. This work may also help in targeting interventions for improving Latinx maternal health at multiple junctures, beginning with the acculturative experience, while considering immune and epigenetic profiles that may increase stress sensitivity and downstream risk for mental health concerns including psychiatric disorder development.

Contributors

HPS, BCN and CM designed the parent study and oversaw data collection, processing and/or quality assurance. CZ conducted the telomere assay. ACIR conducted data analyses. All authors contributed to the interpretation and refinement of the results. ACIR wrote the draft of the manuscript with JJP and BCN. All authors provided feedback on several drafts and have approved the final manuscript.

Role of the funding source

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Declaration of competing interest

All authors declare no conflicts of or competing interests.

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None.

References


