

Low socioeconomic status, parental stress, depression, and the buffering role of network social capital in mothers

Emma Nagy^a, Spencer Moore^{ab*}, Patricia P. Silveira^c, Michael J. Meaney^c, Robert D. Levitan^d, and Laurette Dubé^e.

^aSchool of Kinesiology and Health Studies, Queen's University, Kingston, Canada; ^b Department of Health Promotion, Education, and Behavior, Arnold School of Public Health, University of South Carolina, Columbia, USA; ^c Department of Psychiatry, McGill University and Ludmer Centre for Neuroinformatics and Mental Health, Douglas Mental Health University Institute, Montreal, Canada; ^dDepartment of Psychiatry, University of Toronto and Centre for Addiction and Mental Health, Toronto, Canada; ^e Desautels Faculty of Management, McGill Center for the Convergence of Health and Economics, McGill University, Montreal, Canada.

*Corresponding Author Contact Information:

Email address: mooreds4@mailbox.sc.edu,

Courier address: 915 Greene Street, Discovery 1, Room 551, USC, Columbia, SC 29208

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Background: Pathways underlying the stress-depression relationship in mothers, and the factors that buffer this relationship are not well understood.

Aims: Drawing from the Stress Process model, this study examines (1) if parental stress mediates the association between socioeconomic characteristics and depressive symptoms, and (2) if social support and network capital moderate these pathways.

Method: Data came from 101 mothers from Montreal. Generalized structural equation models were conducted, with depressive symptoms (CES-D scores) as the outcome, socioeconomic stressors as independent variables, parental stress as the mediator, and social support and network social capital as moderators.

Results: Parental stress partially mediated the association between household income and depressive symptoms (indirect effect: $\beta = -0.09$, Bootstrap SE = 0.03, 95% CI = -0.15 - -0.03 $p = 0.00$). Network diversity moderated the relationship between parental stress and depressive symptoms ($\beta = -0.25$, 95% CI = -0.42 - -0.09, $p = 0.00$); at high levels of stress, mothers with high compared to low network diversity reported fewer symptoms.

Conclusion: Findings highlight the role that socioeconomic factors play in influencing women's risk of depression and shaping the benefits that ensue from social resources. Addressing these factors requires interventions that target the social determinants of depression.

Introduction

Stress related to parenting is one of the largest contributors to depression in mothers (Thomason, et al., 2014). Certain groups of mothers are particularly vulnerable to stress and depression, including those with lower income and education levels (Field, Hernandez-Reif, & Diego, 2006). The pathways by which stress may impact depression are complex, with certain types of stress (e.g., parental stress) potentially mediating the path between chronic stressors (such as living with low income) and depression (Katerndahl & Parchman, 2002). Yet, not every mother who experiences chronic stress develops depression. A mother's social resources can protect against stress and poor mental health (Wang, Cai, Qian, & Peng, 2014). Identifying the specific pathways through which socioeconomic and parental stressors lead to depression in mothers, and identifying those factors that act as "buffers" against stress are important research areas to pursue, as they can inform how public health initiatives might better support mothers and protect their mental health (England & Slim, 2009).

The Stress Process Model

The Stress Process Model suggests that there is a sequential pathway between different types of stress and depression and that social resources may be protective against the impact of stress on depression (Pearlin, Menaghan, Lieberman, & Mullan, 1981). The core constructs of the Stress Process Model suggest that the relationship between chronic stress and depression may be (1) mediated by other forms of stress and (2) modified by personal and social resources (Pearlin, 1999).

Mediators in the stress process

The Stress Process Model suggests that chronic stress can proliferate other types of stress, which

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3 can lead to adverse mental health outcomes (Pearlin, Menaghan, Lieberman, & Mullan, 1981).
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5 Primary stressors refer to the first sources of stress in the sequence, and secondary stressors refer
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7 to the types of stress that emerge from, or are exacerbated by, the primary stressors (Pearlin,
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9 1999). Primary stressors often include chronic socioeconomic conditions, such as limited
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11 financial means (Pearlin, 1999). Low socioeconomic status (SES) can expose one to other
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13 stressors in a person's life, including parental stress in mothers (Leigh & Milgrom, 2008).
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15 Parental stress has been shown associated with increased depression among mothers (Thomason,
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17 et al., 2014), suggesting that parental stress may be one mediating pathway that links SES with
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19 depression.
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25 *Moderators of the stress process*

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28 An important caveat is that stress does not always lead to depression. In fact, the Stress Process
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30 Model postulates that certain social and psychological resources may moderate the association
31
32 between stress and depression by altering the ways in which individuals appraise or react to
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34 stressors (Pearlin, 1999). Social support and social capital are two types of social resources that
35
36 may buffer against stress (Thoits, 2011). Social support tends to emerge from one's close social
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38 ties, whereas social capital tends to emerge from a person's weaker, more extensive ties (Moore
39
40 et al., 2016). Previous studies examining the buffering effects of social support on depression
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42 have not always explicitly tested the stress process model, but only certain sets of relationships
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44 within the model. Most research in this area has focused on social support as a stress buffer, with
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46 researchers providing mixed support. For example, studies have shown higher social support to
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48 buffer the effects of stress on depression (Wang, Cai, Qian, & Peng, 2014; Takizawa, et al.,
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50 2006; Dalgard, Biork, & Tambs, 1995), while others have found that it does not (Reid & Taylor,
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52 2015). Less research has examined social capital as a stress buffer. Previous studies have shown
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3 higher network social capital may only benefit mental health under certain conditions, thereby
4 potentially having an indirect, rather than direct effect on depression (An & Jang, 2016; Bassett
5 & Moore, 2013).
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10 11 ***Purpose of the current study*** 12

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14 In a community-based sample of Quebec, Canada mothers, this study examines the role that
15 primary and secondary stressors and social resources play in depression. Research questions
16 include:
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- 20 (1) Does parental stress (a secondary stressor) mediate the association between income and
21 education status (primary stressors), and depressive symptoms?
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- 23 (2) Do social support and network social capital moderate the pathway between stressors and
24 depressive symptoms?
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32 By investigating the mediating role of stress within the home environment, and the relative
33 impact of social support and social capital in buffering the effects of stress on depression, this
34 study will provide insight into the types of interventions that should be designed to combat
35 depression.
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43 **Methods** 44

45 ***Sample*** 46

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48 Data for this study came from the Maternal Adversity, Vulnerability and
49 Neurodevelopment (MAVAN) study. The MAVAN study used a birth cohort design to recruit a
50 community-based sample of mothers (N=551) from Montreal, Quebec and Hamilton, Ontario.
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3 ultrasounds between 13 and 20-weeks' gestation. Women were eligible for the study if they were
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5 18 years or older at the time of recruitment, had singleton pregnancies, and were fluent in French
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7 or English. Women were excluded from the study if they had severe chronic maternal illness,
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9 faced serious complications during pregnancy or delivery, or if their child was born with a very
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11 low birth weight, was born before 37 weeks' gestation, or was born with a congenital disease.
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13 Ethical approval for MAVAN was obtained from the Douglas Mental Health Hospital at McGill
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15 University and St. Joseph's Hospital (protocol #03/45). MAVAN mothers gave their informed
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17 consent to participate in this research study. The current study focuses on the cross-sectional
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19 relationships among study variables at 72 months postpartum. The sample is novel in that it
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21 includes data on the economic, social, particularly social networks, and health characteristics of
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23 mothers that is not otherwise routinely collected.
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30 ***Measures***

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33 *Depressive symptoms.* The 20-item Centre for Epidemiologic Studies Depression (CES-D) scale
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35 was used to assess depressive symptoms during the past week. Statements included "I was
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37 bothered by things that usually don't bother me", and "I felt that I could not shake of the blues,
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39 even with the help of friends and family". Response options and scores ranged from (0) rarely or
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41 none of the time (< once a week) to (3) most or all of the time (5-7 days a week). Scores for each
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43 item were summed for each participant, with a higher score indicative of more depressive
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45 symptoms. The Cronbach's alpha was 0.69, indicating low to moderate reliability.
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49 *Socioeconomic stressors.* Household income and mother's education level were
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51 considered the primary stressors. Income included total gross household income, including
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53 welfare payments, before taxes and deductions. Responses were grouped into ranges from "at
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55 least \$5,000" to "at least \$100,000". Mother's attained education was grouped into four
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3 categories: (1) high school diploma or less, (2) some community college, (3) completed
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5 community college or some university, and (4) university degree.
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8 *Parental stress.* Parental stress was measured using the Parental Stress Scale. Mothers
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10 rated the extent to which they agreed with 18 items, including: “I am happy in my role as a
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12 parent”, “the major source of stress in my life is my child”, and “I find my child enjoyable”.
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14 Response options ranged from disagree strongly (1) to agree strongly (5), with certain items
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16 reverse coded. Parent’s stress score was their average for the 18 items, with a possible range
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18 from 1 to 5. The Cronbach’s alpha was 0.61, indicating low reliability.
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22 *Social capital.* Social network diversity and presence of a partner were measured to
23
24 assess network social capital. Social network diversity was measured using a position generator.
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26 The position generator asked participants whether they knew any individuals on a first-name
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28 basis who held a specific occupation from a list of ten occupations including a high school
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30 teacher, a carpenter, or artist on a first name basis. Responses were coded as 1 (‘yes’) or 0 (‘no’)
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32 for each occupation, with scores ranged from 0 to 10. The presence of a partner was measured by
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34 asking mothers if they presently had a partner (e.g., husband).
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38 *Social support needs.* Social support was measured by asking participants if they needed
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40 help with certain tasks or situations during the past two weeks, including: (1) have you needed
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42 help with something like furniture, money, clothes, or food?, (2) have you needed help
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44 babysitting your children, running errands or cleaning the house?, (3) have you needed
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46 information, input, or guidance in a particular situation, for you or another member of your
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48 family?, (4) have you needed to talk to someone about something personal or intimate in nature?,
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50 (5) did you feel that you needed someone to give you positive feedback or approval to be told
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3 that you have made the right decision? One point was assigned to each 'yes' response with
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5 higher scores indicating the need for more types of social support.
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8 *Covariates.* Race was self-reported as white, Asian, black, Hispanic, or other race. For
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10 these analyses, mothers who reported being white were compared to those who reported any of
11
12 the other categories. Mother's age was recorded in years.
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14 15 16 ***Statistical analysis***

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18 Analyses were conducted using STATA/MP 12. Summary statistics were calculated to describe
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20 the sample's characteristics. Generalized structural equation modeling (GSEM) was used to
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22 examine the mediating and moderating pathways to depressive symptoms. Depressive symptoms
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24 was treated as having a negative binomial distribution given its overdispersion. Three modeling
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26 steps were conducted:
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31 (1) The first model included two main components to investigate if parental stress mediated
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33 the associations between primary stressors and depressive symptoms: (a) income and
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35 education as predictors of parental stress, and (b) income, education, and parental stress
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37 as predictors of depressive symptoms. Bootstrapping with 5000 resamples was used to
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39 predict the indirect and direct effects of the mediating pathway. This approach has been
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41 shown to (i) have higher power than traditional mediation approaches, (ii) lower the
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43 likelihood of Type 1 error, and (iii) does not require that the sampling distribution be
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45 normally distributed (Hayes, 2009). To calculate the proportion of the total effect that
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47 was mediated, the indirect effect was divided by the total effect for each statistically
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49 significant indirect pathway.
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3 (2) Step two investigated if social capital and social support moderated the mediation
4 effect(s) observed in Step one. Moderating effects were investigated along the pathways
5 between (a) primary stressors and parental stress, and (b) parental stress and depressive
6 symptoms, controlling for variables associated with depressive symptoms. Further
7 analyses were conducted for the statistically significant interaction terms to visually
8 display their slopes.
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10 (3) In step three, conditional indirect effects were computed to determine if mediation effects
11 changed at different levels of the moderator. For continuous moderators, conditional
12 indirect effects were calculated at low, medium and high levels of the moderator.
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14 Bootstrapping with 5000 resamples was conducted to obtain bootstrapped standard errors
15 for the conditional indirect effects.
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30 Results

31 *Sample characteristics*

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33 Data on depression were available for 101 mothers from Montreal at 72 months postpartum.
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35 Study characteristics can be seen in Table 1. Montreal MAVAN mothers in the sample reported
36 few depressive symptoms (mean = 10.07; standard deviation = 8.63). Mothers most often
37 reported a moderate level of parental stress (mean = 2.61, standard deviation = 0.44), and needed
38 a moderate level of social support in the previous two weeks (mean = 2.61, standard deviation =
39 1.33). Mothers in the sample had a mean network diversity score of 5.44 (standard deviation =
40 1.94) out of a possible score of 10. Most mothers had a partner (87.25%), had completed
41 university (54.90%), and reported 'white' as their race (82.18%). Most mothers had relatively
42 high household incomes, with almost one-third (31.68%) of the sample reporting a household
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3 income of \$100,000 or greater. Results from preliminary analyses (results not shown) indicated
4 that potential covariates, including non-white race ($\beta = 0.04$, 95% CI = -0.38 – 0.47, $p = 0.84$),
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6 and maternal age ($\beta = -0.03$, 95% CI = -0.06 - 0.01, $p = 0.11$), were not associated with
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8 depressive symptoms and so were not included in the analyses below.
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13 14 ***Mediation models***

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17 The first component of the model examined if primary stressors were associated with parental
18 stress. Results (Table 2 and Figure 1) indicated that higher household income was associated
19 with lower parental stress ($B = -0.09$, 95% CI = -0.15 - -0.03, $p = 0.03$) but not educational
20 attainment, when controlling for the other. The second component examined associations
21 between primary stressors, the mediating variable, and depressive symptoms. Higher household
22 income ($B = -0.15$, 95% CI = -0.25 – -0.05, $p = 0.00$) was but mother's attained education was
23 not associated with fewer depressive symptoms. Higher parental stress was associated with more
24 depressive symptoms ($B = 0.51$, 95% CI = 0.19 – 0.83, $p = 0.00$). Social support needed also had
25 a positive relationship with depressive symptoms ($B = 0.24$, 95% CI = 0.14 – 0.35, $p = 0.00$).
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37 Results from the bootstrapped GSEM, with 5000 resamples indicated that parental stress
38 partially mediated the association between household income and depressive symptoms (indirect
39 effect: $\beta = -0.09$, Bootstrap SE = 0.03, 95% CI = -0.15 - -0.03 $p = 0.00$). Parental stress mediated
40 60% of the total effect of household income on depressive symptoms, with household income
41 and depressive symptoms no longer associated after adjusting for parental stress. Mothers'
42 educational attainment was neither directly nor indirectly associated with depressive symptoms.
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53 ***Moderated mediation models***

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56 Results from the GSEMs that examined if social support and social capital moderated the
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3 mediation effect revealed that higher network diversity was directly associated with higher
4 depressive symptoms ($\beta = 0.51$, 95% CI = 0.13 - 0.89, $p = 0.01$) (Table 3). Network diversity
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6 was also shown to moderate the association between parental stress and depressive symptoms (β
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8 = -0.25, 95% CI = -0.42 - -0.09, $p = 0.00$). As shown in Figure 2, mothers with high levels of
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10 parental stress and high diversity had fewer depressive symptoms than those with high stress and
11
12 low network diversity. Network diversity did not moderate the association between household
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14 income and parental stress. Neither the presence of a partner nor social support needs moderated
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16 the path between household income and parental stress or parental stress and depressive
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18 symptoms (data not shown).
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24 A conditional indirect effect analysis (Table 4) indicated that the mediation effect of
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26 parental stress was observed only under certain conditions. The indirect effect of household
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28 income on depressive symptoms was mediated by parental stress only among those with low (β
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30 = -0.07, 95% CI = -0.14 - -0.004, $p = 0.04$, bootstrapped SE = 0.04) and medium ($\beta = -0.04$,
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32 95% CI = -0.08 - -0.01, $p = 0.02$, bootstrapped SE = 0.02) levels of network diversity, and
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34 among those with medium levels of needed social support ($\beta = -0.04$, 95% CI = -0.08 - -0.01, $p =$
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36 0.02, bootstrapped SE = 0.02) . Parental stress did not mediate the association between
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38 household income and depressive symptoms among those with high levels of network diversity
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40 ($p > 0.05$), and the conditional indirect effect was not moderated by presence of a partner ($p >$
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42 0.05).
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49 Discussion

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51 Using a community-based sample of mothers that included rich data on women's social
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53 networks, we examined certain key pathways linking socioeconomic stressors to depressive
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3 symptoms and the role of social resources in moderating the association between stress and
4 depressive symptoms. Several key findings emerged from our study. First, household income
5 was shown associated with depressive symptoms in mothers - a finding that is consistent with
6 previous research (Leigh & Milgrom, 2008). Moreover, parental stress partially mediated the
7 association between household income and depressive symptoms. This finding extends previous
8 research that has shown direct associations between poorer socioeconomic status and higher
9 parental stress, and direct associations between parental stress and depressive symptoms in
10 mothers. (Fox, Platz, & Bentley, 1995; Venkatesh, Phipps, Triche, & Zlotnick, 2014; Pearlin,
11 1999). Second, having identified the relationships among socioeconomic stressors, parental
12 stress, and depressive symptoms, our study examined whether social resources - network social
13 capital and social support –might ameliorate the negative consequences of stress on mother’s
14 depressive symptoms. In this regard, our study showed, first of all, that the mediating effect of
15 parental stress was conditional upon mothers’ levels of social capital and the social support
16 needed. Parental stress mediated the association between household income and depressive
17 symptoms only among mothers with low social capital and medium levels of social capital and
18 needed social support, suggesting that the stress process might operate differently in individuals
19 who have high compared to low social resources. Third, our study examined whether social
20 support and social capital moderated the association between parental stress and depressive
21 symptoms. Neither the presence of a partner nor needing social support was found to modify the
22 association between parental stress and depressive symptoms. Network social capital, on the
23 other hand, did moderate the association between parental stress and depressive symptoms.
24 Among mothers with high levels of social capital the association between parental stress and
25 depressive symptoms was weaker than those with low social capital.
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3 Our study suggests that social support and social capital mechanisms may operate
4 differently when it comes to buffering the relationship between stress and depressive symptoms.
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6 The presence of a partner was neither directly nor indirectly associated with depressive
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8 symptoms in the current study. Research has shown mixed findings on whether having a partner
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10 is beneficial for women's mental health, although research has shown having a partner more
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12 beneficial for men (Scott, et al., 2010). The benefits of having a partner or spouse may be
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14 contingent on the quality of the relationship (Holt-Lunstad, Birmingham, & Jones, 2008).
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16 Furthermore, the study showed a positive association between social support needs and
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18 depressive symptoms. Mothers who reported needing higher levels of social support also
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20 reported more depressive symptoms. A recent systematic review indicated that instrumental and
21
22 general support from friends do not always implicate better mental health (Garipey, Honkaniemi,
23
24 & Quesnel-Vallee, 2016). Furthermore, despite previous research showing social support to
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26 buffer against various forms of stress (Takizawa, Kondo, Sakihara, Ariizumi, Watanabe, &
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28 Oyama, 2006; Dalgard, Biork, & Tambs, 1995), our study of the stress-buffering hypothesis did
29
30 not confirm a buffering role for social support needs. This may be, as other researchers have
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32 suggested, due simply to the overwhelming effects of highly stressful circumstances on poor
33
34 mental health (Manuel, Martinson, Bledsoe-Mansori, & Bellamy, 2012; Reid & Taylor, 2015).
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36 Another potential explanation for these findings may be attributed to the measure of social
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38 support used. The current study measured mothers' reported need for different types of social
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40 support but not whether social support was available or accessed. Our findings indicate that
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42 mothers experiencing depressive symptoms may have a greater need for support from their social
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44 networks. Future research might examine if other measures or types of social support, including
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46 received support, act as buffers against parental stress.
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3 Most research on the stress-buffering hypothesis has examined the role of social support
4 and not social capital as a stress buffer. Our findings suggest however that social capital may
5 provide unique and important stress-buffering resources to mothers that are not accessible
6 through social support networks. Social capital represents access to broader, more diverse
7 resources through a person's weaker and more extensive social ties (Moore et al., 2016). Higher
8 network social capital may benefit health by decreasing isolation, increasing self-esteem,
9 providing the individual with greater social control (which might pressure the individual to adopt
10 healthy lifestyles), and increasing access to health-benefitting resources (Thoits, 2011; An &
11 Jang, 2016). Higher network capital may also indicate generalized social integration
12 (Granovetter, 1973).
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28 *Limitations*

29
30 There are a number of limitations to consider in interpreting the study findings. First, the study
31 is cross-sectional, meaning that causal relationships cannot be inferred from the study findings.
32 For example, mothers with existing depression may have been more likely to report needing
33 various types of support to help them cope, compared to those mothers who were not depressed
34 and may not have needed additional support. Second, the scales for depressive symptoms and
35 parental stress were shown to have low to moderate internal consistency, thus lowering the
36 reliability of these measures. In response, we used principal components analysis to create
37 alternative scores for parental stress, and conducted ancillary analyses to assess whether the
38 alternative measure provided different results. Findings from these ancillary analyses were
39 similar to those from our main analyses. Third, data on depressive symptoms was missing for 29
40 mothers. If those mothers also had higher rates of depressive symptoms, the estimates presented
41 in our paper may have been attenuated. Finally, the current study measured the extent to which
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3 social support was needed in the previous two weeks. Debate in the literature indicates that
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5 perceived support is a stronger indicator of mental health compared to received support (Haber,
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7 Cohen, Lucas, & Baltes, 2007), which may explain why social support was not shown as a
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9 protective factor against depressive symptoms in the moderation models. Future research should
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11 investigate the role of perceived social support as a buffer against depression in mothers.
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16 ***Conclusion***

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18 This study's findings support the need for upstream policies and interventions that address the
19
20 social influences on depression, particularly those geared toward addressing low income levels.
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22 Findings also support the need for mental wellness initiatives that help to leverage mothers' own
23
24 social resources to reduce stress and improve mental health. Although previous interventions
25
26 have often targeted mothers' social support as a means of improving mental health (Evans,
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28 Donelle, & Hume-Loveland, 2012; Strange, Fisher, Howat, & Wood, 2014), few have aimed to
29
30 enhance mothers' social capital. Yet, participation in local parenting groups have been shown to
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32 increase mothers' social capital and the mental well-being of their 0-5 year olds (Strange, Fisher,
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34 Howat, & Wood, 2014). A public health approach that considers the broader social environment
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36 in which mothers inhabit can help to reduce toxic effects of stress on maternal and children's
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38 mental health.
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For Peer Review Only

Table 1. Sample characteristics of Montreal mothers from the MAVAN study (n=101).

Characteristics	Mean (standard deviation)
Depressive symptoms (scale range: 0-60)	10.07 (8.63)
Parental stress (scale range: 1-5)	1.68 (0.44)
Social support needed (scale score range: 0-5)	2.61 (1.33)
Social capital (scale score range: 0-10)	5.44 (1.94)
	Frequency (percentage)
Presence of partner:	
<i>No</i>	13 (12.75)
<i>Yes</i>	89 (87.25)
Mother's education level during pregnancy:	
<i>High school or less</i>	8 (7.84)
<i>Some college</i>	6 (5.88)
<i>Completed college or some university</i>	32 (31.37)
<i>Completed university</i>	56 (54.90)
Household income (total gross household income):	
<i><\$20,000</i>	7 (6.93)
<i>\$20,000 - \$39,999</i>	12 (11.88)
<i>\$40,000 - \$59,999</i>	20 (19.80)
<i>\$60,000 - \$79,999</i>	15 (14.85)
<i>\$80,000 - \$99,999</i>	15 (14.85)
<i>\$100,000 and higher</i>	32 (31.68)
Mother's race:	
<i>White</i>	83 (82.18%)
<i>Asian</i>	1 (0.99)
<i>Black</i>	2 (1.98)
<i>Hispanic</i>	3 (2.97)
<i>Other race</i>	12 (11.88)

Table 2. Direct effects of primary stressors on depressive symptoms and indirect effect of parental stress on the association between primary stressors and depressive symptoms, GSEM models with 5000 bootstrap replications, Montreal MAVAN mothers (n=101).

Independent variable	<i>Total effects</i>		<i>Direct effects</i>		<i>Indirect effects</i>	
	Beta coefficient (95% CIs)	Bootstrapped standard error	Beta coefficient (95% CIs)	Bootstrapped standard error	Beta coefficient (95% CIs)	Bootstrapped standard error
Household income	-0.15 (-0.27 - -0.03)*	0.06	-0.08 (-0.21 - 0.05)	0.06	-0.09 (-0.15 - -0.03)**	0.03
Mother's education level during pregnancy	-0.10 (-0.29 - 0.10)	0.10	-0.13 (-0.33 - 0.07)	0.10	0.06 (-0.07 - 0.19)	0.06
Parental stress			0.62 (0.28-0.95)***	0.18	--	--

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$

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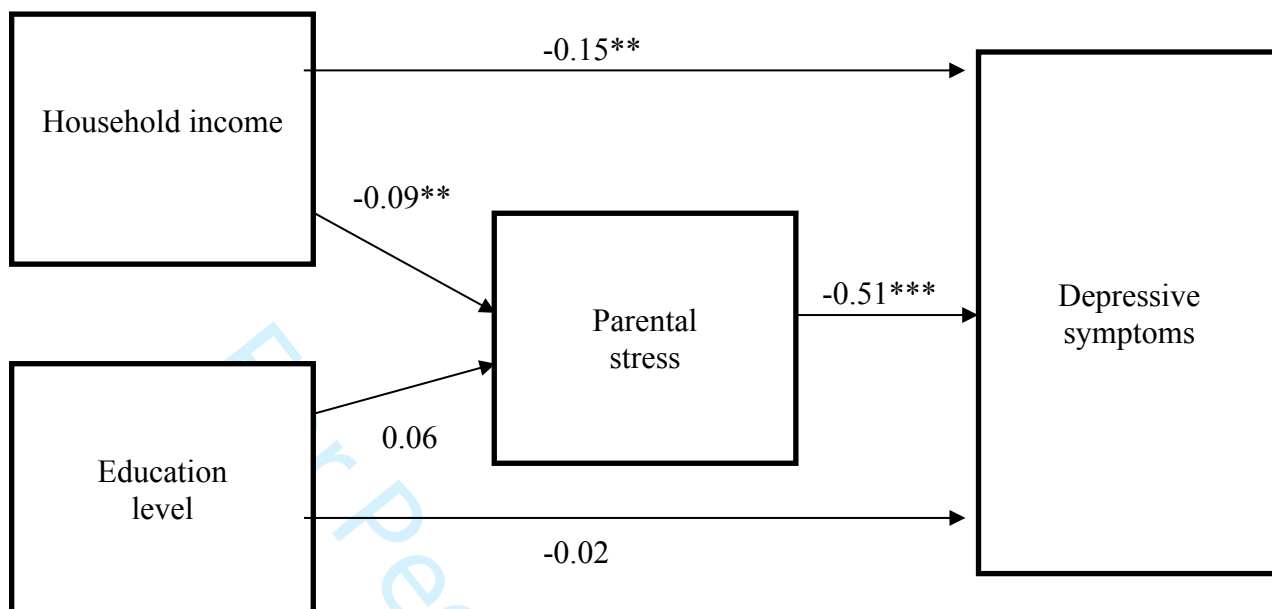
Table 3. GSEM examining moderation effects of network diversity on the mediating pathway between household income and depressive symptoms, controlling for covariates, Montreal MAVAN mothers (n=101).

Outcome variable	Independent variable	Beta coefficient (95% confidence interval)	Standard error
Parental stress	Household income	-0.06 (-0.21 – 0.09)	0.08
	Network diversity	0.04 (-0.08 – 0.15)	0.05
	Household income X Network diversity	-0.00 (-0.03 – 0.02)	0.01
Depressive symptoms	Household income	0.01 (-0.24 – 0.27)	0.13
	Parental stress	1.92 (0.93 – 2.91)***	0.51
	Network diversity	0.51 (0.13 – 0.89)*	0.19
	Parental stress X Network diversity	-0.25 (-0.42 - -0.09)**	0.09
	Household income X Network diversity	-0.03 (-0.07 – 0.01)	0.02
	Social support (covariate)	0.22 (0.12 – 0.31)***	0.05

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$

Table 4. Bootstrapped GSEM with 5000 resamples, investigating the conditional indirect effect of household income on depressive symptoms at different levels of network diversity and social support, Montreal MAVAN mothers (n=101).

Moderator	Moderator level	Beta coefficient (95% CIs)	Bootstrap SE
Network diversity	Low diversity (1 SD < mean)	-0.07 (-0.14 – -0.004)*	0.04
	Medium diversity (mean)	-0.04 (-0.08 – -0.01)*	0.02
	High diversity (1 SD > mean)	-0.00 (-0.04 – 0.04)	0.02
Social support	Low social support (1 SD < mean)	-0.06 (-0.13-0.01)	0.03
	Medium social support (mean)	-0.04 (-0.08 - -0.01)*	0.02
	High social support (1 SD > mean)	-0.03 (-0.07 – 0.01)	0.02
Presence of a partner	No partner	-0.04 (-0.26 – 0.18)	0.11
	Partner	-0.03 (-0.07 – 0.00)	0.02



* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$

Figure 1. Results from the GSEM examining mediating effects of parental stress between primary stressors and depressive symptoms, controlling for social support, Montreal MAVAN mothers ($n=101$).

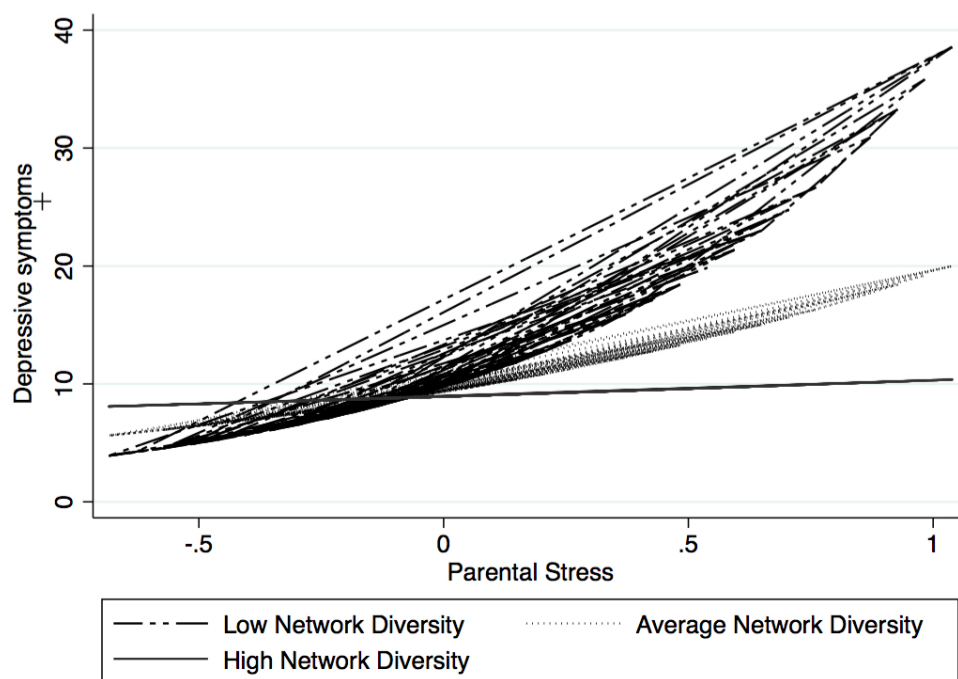


Figure 2

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