

DR KRISTIINA TAMMIMIES (Orcid ID : 0000-0002-8324-4697)

Article type : Original Article

Hypogonadotropic Hypogonadism, Delayed Puberty and Risk for Neurodevelopmental Disorders

Vide Ohlsson Gotby¹, Olle Söder², Louise Frisén^{3,4}, Eva Serlachius^{3,4}, Sven Bölte^{4,5}, Catarina Almqvist^{1,6}, Henrik Larsson^{1,7}, Paul Lichtenstein¹, Kristiina Tammimies^{5,6#}

¹Department of Medical Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden ²Department of Women's and Children's Health, Division of Pediatric Endocrinology, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden.

³Centre for Psychiatry Research, Department of Clinical Neuroscience, Karolinska Institutete, Stockholm, Sweden

⁴Stockholm Health Care Services, Stockholm County Council, Stockholm, Sweden

⁵Center of Neurodevelopmental Disorders at Karolinska Institutet (KIND), Centre for Psychiatry

Research, Division of Neuropsychiatry, Department of Women's and Children's Health,

Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden

⁶Astrid Lindgren Children's Hospital, Karolinska University Hospital, Stockholm, Sweden ⁷School of Medical Sciences, Örebro University, Örebro, Sweden

#Correspondence should be addressed to Kristiina Tammimies, kristiina.tammimies@ki.se Postal Address: Bioclinicum J9:30, Visiongatan 4, 171 64 Solna, Sweden. *Running title: hypogonadism and neurodevelopmental disorders.*

This article has been accepted for publication and undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the <u>Version of Record</u>. Please cite this article as <u>doi: 10.1111/JNE.12803</u>

Acknowledgments

We acknowledge financial support from the Swedish Research Council through the Swedish Initiative for Research on Microdata in the Social and Medical Sciences (SIMSAM) framework grant no. 340-2013-5867. KT is funded through the Harald and Greta Jeanssons Foundations, Åke Wiberg Foundation, Swedish Research Council, Swedish Foundation for Strategic Research and the Strategic Neuroscience Program at Karolinska Institutet. The funders did not have any role in the study design, in the collection, analysis, and interpretation of data in the writing of the report; nor in the decision to submit the article for publication.

Contributions and conflict of interest

VOG, PL, and KT designed the study. OS, LF, ES, SB, CA, HL, PL, and KT provided technical, administrative and material support. VOG conducted data analyses in collaboration with HL and PL. VOG and KT wrote the initial draft of the paper, and all authors provided interpretation of the data and critical revisions. All authors approved the final version of the paper for submission. The authors do not have any conflict of interest associated with this publication.

Data Availability Statement: We show here the summary statistics of data used for the analyses. All individual level data is available from the Swedish National Board of Health and Welfare (www.registerforskning.se) after required permits.

Abstract

Background: Hypogonadotropic hypogonadism (HH) is a rare disorder that manifests absent puberty and infertility. Genetic syndromes with hypogonadism, such as Klinefelter syndrome, are associated with an increased risk of neurodevelopmental disorders (NDDs). However, it is not clear if patients with HH or transient delayed puberty in general, have an increased risk of NDDs. **Methods:** We performed a register-based study on a national cohort of 264 patients with HH and 7447 patients diagnosed with delayed puberty that was matched with 2640 and 74470 controls, respectively. The outcome was defined as having any of the following NDD diagnoses; (1) autism spectrum disorder (ASD), (2) attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), or (3) intellectual disability (ID). Additional sensitivity analyses were performed to control for different parental and birth variables as well as diagnosed malformation syndromes and chromosomal anomalies (i.e., Down and Turner syndromes).

Results: Patients with HH had increased risk for being diagnosed with ASD (OR 5.7; 95% CI 2.6 - 12.6), ADHD (3.0; 1.8 - 5.1) and ID (18.0; 8.9 - 36.3) compared with controls. Patients with delayed puberty also had a significantly increased risk of being diagnosed with an NDD. These associations remained significant after adjustments.

Conclusions: This is the first study to demonstrate a significant association between HH, delayed puberty and NDDs in a population-based cohort. Clinicians should be aware of the overlap between these disorders. Further studies should explore the mechanisms behind these associations.

Keywords: sex hormones; ICD; autism spectrum disorder; intellectual disability; ADHD

Introduction

Gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) is a master hormone regulating the secretion of other hormones involved in reproduction. Deficiency in the production of GnRH will lead to delayed or absence of puberty and infertility, the two latter constituting the main symptoms of hypogonadotropic hypogonadism (HH; (1)). Delayed puberty is present if there is an absence of breast development in girls or testicular enlargement in boys at an age older than 2 to 2.5 standard deviations from the population mean age of puberty onset (2). It can be challenging to differentiate between transient delayed puberty and isolated permanent HH diagnoses during the early clinical evaluations of the adolescent (3). The incidence of HH is unknown, but estimates range from approximately 1 to 10 in every 100,000 live births, and the disorder has a 3 to 5:1 male: female

ratio (1, 4). The disorder often co-occurs with a range of other phenotypes such as cleft lip/palate, hearing loss, and skeletal anomalies. HH is considered a monogenic disorder; however research shows that rarely there is a clear genotype-phenotype correlation and complete penetrance among the mutation carriers (5). Currently, there are more than 30 genes implicated in the development of HH, including the *ANOS1*-gene (MIM: 308700) and genes involved in the Fibroblast Growth Factor (FGF) signaling pathways (1).

Neurodevelopmental disorders (NDDs) are a heterogeneous group of disabling childhoodonset behavioral conditions with an estimated prevalence of 10% (6). According to DSM-5 (APA, 2013), the umbrella concept of NDDs includes, among other diagnoses, autism spectrum disorder (ASD), attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and intellectual disability (ID). ASD, ADHD, and ID frequently co-occur (7), and are associated with other conditions such as rare chromosomal syndromes, immune dysfunctions and gastrointestinal problems (8, 9). In addition to rare chromosomal syndromes, hundreds of genes have been implicated in the etiologies of NDDs demonstrating the complexity of genetic pathways underlying them (10, 11). Clinical genetic testing is recommended for individuals with ID and ASD (12). Currently, molecular diagnosis can be obtained for up to 50% of ID and ASD cases using chromosomal microarray and sequencing of the whole exome and genomes (13-15).

The sex ratio of NDDs is skewed, with more boys being diagnosed than girls. While the reasons for the unbalanced sex-ratio remain unknown, it has been hypothesized that sex hormone dysregulation, especially elevated prenatal testosterone levels, increases the risk for ASD (16). Sex hormones have also been proposed to have a role in other NDDs (17). Additionally, association analyses of single nucleotide polymorphisms in sex steroid genes and cellular level functional analyses have linked the sex hormone pathways to NDDs (18-21).

Our earlier study has demonstrated an increased risk for NDDs in Klinefelter syndrome, which has hypogonadism as one of the clinical features (22, 23). NDDs and hypogonadism also co-occur in other defined genetic syndromes such as Turner, Prader-Willi, Bardet-Biedl, and CHARGE syndromes (24-27). Additionally, hypospadias, a common congenital malformation, which is sometimes caused by androgen insufficiency, increase the risk of an NDD (28).

Based on the earlier evidence, we hypothesized that patients with HH and diagnosed delayed puberty would also be at higher risk for NDDs. To explore this hypothesis, we conducted a registry study based on the total Swedish population to investigate whether HH and delayed puberty are associated with increased risk for ASD, ADHD, and ID.

Methods

Identification of cases, matched controls, outcomes, and covariates

We conducted a matched cohort study by linking several longitudinal population-based registers in Sweden, using a unique ten-digit personal identity number assigned to each resident. The registries utilized for this study, their coverage and content are summarized in **Table 1**. We identified individuals diagnosed with hypogonadism due to lack of production of gonadotropins (specific code used in Sweden E23.0E) or delayed puberty (E30.0), coded according to 10th version (used 1997 and onwards) of the International Classification of Diseases (ICD-10), from the National Patient Register (29). We constrained the cohort to individuals born between 1975 and 2000, to capture individuals that could have been diagnosed with the ICD-10 diagnoses for HH and delayed puberty. If a person had been given both diagnoses, it was included only in the HH group. Thus, 51 cases were excluded from the delayed puberty group. We matched approximately ten controls for each case. These were matched on birth year, sex, immigration status and birth county and were randomly selected from the Total Population Register. Cases could not be selected as controls.

To identify cases and controls diagnosed with the NDDs, we used the National Patient Register, the Child and Adolescent Psychiatry Register (PASTILL) (30), and the Habilitation Register (31) to obtain the ICD-10 diagnoses for ASD, ADHD, and ID (ICD-10 codes; F84.0, F84.1, F84.5, F84.8, F84.9, F90, and F70-F79). Additionally, we identified individuals diagnosed with ADHD using the Swedish Prescribed Drug Register containing data on pharmacotherapy with stimulant or non-stimulant medications (Anatomical Therapeutic Chemical code: N06BA01, N06BA02, N06BA04, N06BA09) (32) that are specifically used to treat ADHD symptoms (33).

To control for the potential influence of differences in parental socioeconomic status between cases and controls, we used information on education level. Parental education level was used rather than that of the cases and controls since both exposures and outcomes might have an effect on the attained education level. Familial relations were identified in the Multi-Generation Register (34). Data on the level of education that the parent had reached the same year the child turned 15 years of age was obtained from the Swedish Register of Education. In this register, the education level is coded from one to seven. One represents lower secondary school shorter than nine years, and seven represents Ph.D. studies. The parent's education was thereafter compared to each other, and the parent who had achieved the highest level of education was used in the analysis. We also controlled for a range of variables that have been associated with an increased risk of NDDs. We calculated fathers age in years at the case or control's birth. Birth month was derived from the case or control's date of birth. Rural or urban living status was classified according to the recorded small area for market statistics (SAMS) code for the municipality where the individual was registered at the age of thirteen. SAMS-areas are given a code one to ten dependent on several characteristics of that area. We considered one to five to indicate urban residency and six to ten rural. Mothers that had been diagnosed with substance or alcohol abuse at any time (Substance abuse ICD-9: 304 or 305; ICD-10: F11-F19; Alcohol abuse ICD-9: 303, 305A; ICD-10: F10, excluding F10.5) were identified in the National Patient Register. Information on pregnancy length in weeks and if the child was small for gestational age were obtained from the Swedish Medical Birth Register.

Additionally, we carried out sensitivity analyses to investigate whether the potential associations between HH or delayed puberty and NDDs could be explained by other conditions affecting both the risk of HH and NDDs. Cases and controls diagnosed with other specified congenital malformation syndromes affecting multiple systems (Q87) or chromosomal abnormalities, not elsewhere classified (Q90-Q99) were identified in the National Patient Register.

Statistical analyses

Conditional logistic regression was performed to estimate the relative risk of NDD in individuals with HH or delayed puberty compared to matched controls. The relative risk was expressed as odds ratios (OR) with 95% confidence intervals (CI). To adjust for possible confounders, the parents' education level, the father's age, birth month, urban residency, small for gestational age, pregnancy length and the mother's substance or alcohol abuse were entered in the model as covariates and the analysis repeated. To explore if the relative risks were different in males and females, analyses were also performed stratified on sex. For sensitivity analyses, individuals diagnosed with congenital malformation syndromes or chromosomal abnormalities were excluded, and the analyses were repeated. All analyses were carried out in SAS version 9.4.

Ethical statement

The study and the use of Swedish registry data were approved by the Regional Ethics Committee in Stockholm.

Results

A total of 264 individuals (32% girls) with HH and 7447 with delayed puberty (23% girls) were included in the study. Descriptive statistics of the cohort are presented in **Table 2**.

Association between HH or delayed puberty and NDDs are shown in **Table 2**. The prevalence of ASD, ADHD and ID was 3.8%, 8.0% and 8.3% in HH cases and 0.7%, 2.8% and 0.5% in controls, respectively. Individuals with a diagnosis of HH were at increased risk of ASD (OR 5.7; 95% CI 2.6 - 12.6), ADHD (OR 3.0, 95% CI 1.8 - 5.1) and ID (OR 18.0, 95% CI 8.9 - 36.3) compared to matched controls (**Table 2, Figure 1**).

When comparing the cases diagnosed with delayed puberty with the matched controls, we found that 3% of the cases had received an ASD diagnosis, 8.2% were diagnosed with ADHD and 3.5% with ID and 2.1%, 5%, and 1.2%, respectively, of the controls (**Table 3, Figure 1**). Individuals with a diagnosis of delayed puberty were at increased risk of ASD (OR=1.5, 95% CI=1.3-1.7), ADHD (OR=1.7, 95 % CI = 1.6-1.9) and ID (OR=3.0, 95% CI=2.6-3.4).

Results were similar for analyses stratified by sex (**Table 2**) and adjusted for possible confounders (**Adjusted model, Table 3**). Excluding cases and controls with other conditions did not markedly affect the result of the analyses (**Table 4**).

Discussion

We found that patients with HH had a six times higher risk to be diagnosed with ASD, a three times increased risk of ADHD, and 18 times increased risk of ID. Also, the patients with delayed puberty had increased risk of the three NDDs. Even when we controlled for multiple variables and known malformation syndromes and chromosomal anomalies the associations remained significant. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study reporting a significant association between HH, delayed puberty and NDD morbidity using a population-based design. Our results expand the current literature indicating neurodevelopmental problems in syndromes with hypogonadism as a clinical feature, such as Klinefelter (22, 23) and CHARGE syndromes (35).

Our study shows that individuals with HH and delayed puberty have higher risk to be also diagnosed with NDDs; however determining putative causality and mechanisms underlying the associations will need series of follow-up investigations. One hypothesis is that HH and delayed puberty may share some common etiological factors with NDDs. Currently, more than 30 genes are implicated in the etiology of HH and more genes are identified as the use of exome and genome sequencing is increasing (1, 5). Mutations in some of these genes have also been described in ASD and other NDDs. Case examples of these co-incidences include a stop gain in

the *ANOS1* gene (OMIM#300836) that was discovered in an individual diagnosed with ASD (36). The *ANOS1* gene encodes a protein that is involved in the migration of GnRH neurons (37). Also, mutations in the *AXL* gene (OMIM#109135) were found in individuals diagnosed with NDDs (38, 39). The *AXL* gene encodes a tyrosine kinase receptor shown to affect reproductive function and GnRH neuron development in mice (40). A study investigating the overlap of developmental disorders and disorders of sex development also found novel genetic associations between the disorders, indicating the relevance to investigate the overlapping genetic causes (41). Further genomic studies of patients with HH and comorbid NDDs could indicate additional genes underlying these disorders. However, in both HH and NDDs, many identified genetic risk variants show incomplete penetrance and variable expressivity of phenotypes within and across families (42-46). This indicates that additional genetic and environmental factors and their interplay should be investigated to understand better which outcomes are associated with specific genetic alterations.

Our results give support to the hypothesis that sex hormones play a role in the development of ASD and other NDDs. However, it contradicts the notion that only elevated levels of prenatal sex hormone are associated with ASD (16). Earlier epidemiological studies have shown that children exposed to high levels of sex hormones *in utero* due to polycystic ovary syndrome in the mothers have an increased risk for NDDs (47, 48). Nonetheless, recent studies investigating the influence of elevated prenatal testosterone on autistic traits in typically developing children and girls with congenital adrenal hyperplasia showed no such association (49-51). We suggest that both high and low levels of sex hormones during early development are involved in NDDs, but more studies are needed to clarify to what extent. These studies should also include longitudinal follow-up to capture problems during mini puberty, puberty timing and fluctuation of NDD problems during early childhood until adulthood.

Strengths and limitations

This study is based on a nationwide population-based sample, minimizing the risk that the association is due to selection bias. Due to the unique rich data-sources from the Swedish registers, we were able to control for potentially confounding factors including important pre- and perinatal risk factors and parental variables as well as other disorders among the patients and controls.

Although using a large unbiased population-based sample to assess our research hypothesis, our study has several limitations. One clear limitation is that our study has only a small number of individuals diagnosed with HH. The latter was in part due to that we only used data on patients that had been diagnosed according to ICD-10 and not earlier versions of ICD. We aimed to use the more specific diagnostic codes for HH in ICD-10 (E23.0E) in comparison with ICD-9 as well as more recently defined diagnoses of NDDs. Additional limitations include the lack of validation use of the specific ICD-10 code for HH and the ability to identify specific causes of HH in the patient groups. It is possible that the association is stronger in some subgroups of HH which could be overrepresented in our sample due to unknown bias. For instance, this could be cases with CHARGE syndrome that were missed clinically or milder phenotypes associated with *CHD7* genetic variants(52). Further, the possibility of ascertainment bias, where patients have an increased possibility of receiving additional diagnoses since they already have contact with the health care system could explain part of the association observed. We, however, find it unlikely that ascertainment bias could account for the large relative risks observed in the present study.

Implications

Clinicians should be aware of the reported comorbidity between HH, delayed puberty and NDD and pursue needed clinical psychological investigations when adolescents with HH or delayed puberty report learning-, social- and attention difficulties. Furthermore, as genome-wide clinical genetic testing is becoming standard in NDDs, the children at genetic risk for HH in this population could be detected years before the delay in sexual maturation enabling earlier diagnosis and treatment of HH. Indeed, early androgen therapy in boys with Klinefelter syndrome has been shown to improve neurodevelopmental outcomes such as language development, cognitive functioning, and social skills in comparison with boys that did not receive the early treatment (53, 54).

We present here tje first population-based study to report an increased risk of NDDs in cases with HH and delayed puberty. This study gives new insights into comorbidity between HH, delayed puberty and NDDs, and further research should be directed at exploring the mechanisms of this overlap. Further studies should also include in more detail investigations of the attention, social and cognitive skills in patients with HH and delayed puberty. Further, as genetic screening is becoming more accessible, it might be possible to identify children with genetic risk to develop HH and NDD early. More research should focus if early hormonal therapy could prevent adverse effects on neurodevelopment in critical postnatal periods.

References

8.

9.

1. Boehm U, Bouloux PM, Dattani MT, de Roux N, Dode C, Dunkel L, et al. Expert consensus document: European Consensus Statement on congenital hypogonadotropic hypogonadism--pathogenesis, diagnosis and treatment. Nature reviews Endocrinology. 2015;11(9):547-64.

2. Palmert MR, Dunkel L. Clinical practice. Delayed puberty. The New England journal of medicine. 2012;366(5):443-53.

3. Bozzola M, Bozzola E, Montalbano C, Stamati FA, Ferrara P, Villani A. Delayed puberty versus hypogonadism: a challenge for the pediatrician. Ann Pediatr Endocrinol Metab. 2018;23(2):57-61.

Araujo AB, O'Donnell AB, Brambilla DJ, Simpson WB, Longcope C, Matsumoto AM, et al.
 Prevalence and incidence of androgen deficiency in middle-aged and older men: estimates from the
 Massachusetts Male Aging Study. The Journal of clinical endocrinology and metabolism.
 2004;89(12):5920-6.

 Maione L, Dwyer AA, Francou B, Guiochon-Mantel A, Binart N, Bouligand J, et al. GENETICS IN ENDOCRINOLOGY: Genetic counseling for congenital hypogonadotropic hypogonadism and Kallmann syndrome: new challenges in the era of oligogenism and next-generation sequencing. European journal of endocrinology. 2018;178(3):R55-R80.

Boyle CA, Boulet S, Schieve LA, Cohen RA, Blumberg SJ, Yeargin-Allsopp M, et al. Trends in the prevalence of developmental disabilities in US children, 1997-2008. Pediatrics.
2011;127(6):1034-42.

7. Pettersson E, Anckarsater H, Gillberg C, Lichtenstein P. Different neurodevelopmental symptoms have a common genetic etiology. J Child Psychol Psychiatry. 2013;54(12):1356-65.

Lai MC, Lombardo MV, Baron-Cohen S. Autism. Lancet. 2014;383(9920):896-910.

Thapar A, Cooper M. Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. Lancet. 2015.

10. De Rubeis S, Buxbaum JD. Genetics and genomics of autism spectrum disorder: embracing complexity. Human molecular genetics. 2015;24(R1):R24-31.

11. Vissers LE, Gilissen C, Veltman JA. Genetic studies in intellectual disability and related disorders. Nature reviews Genetics. 2016;17(1):9-18.

12. Miller DT, Adam MP, Aradhya S, Biesecker LG, Brothman AR, Carter NP, et al. Consensus statement: chromosomal microarray is a first-tier clinical diagnostic test for individuals with developmental disabilities or congenital anomalies. American journal of human genetics. 2010;86(5):749-64.

Tammimies K, Marshall CR, Walker S, Kaur G, Thiruvahindrapuram B, Lionel AC, et al.
 Molecular Diagnostic Yield of Chromosomal Microarray Analysis and Whole-Exome Sequencing in
 Children With Autism Spectrum Disorder. Jama. 2015;314(9):895-903.

14. Gilissen C, Hehir-Kwa JY, Thung DT, van de Vorst M, van Bon BW, Willemsen MH, et al. Genome sequencing identifies major causes of severe intellectual disability. Nature. 2014;511(7509):344-7.

15. Guo H, Duyzend MH, Coe BP, Baker C, Hoekzema K, Gerdts J, et al. Genome sequencing identifies multiple deleterious variants in autism patients with more severe phenotypes. Genetics in medicine : official journal of the American College of Medical Genetics. 2018.

Baron-Cohen S, Auyeung B, Norgaard-Pedersen B, Hougaard DM, Abdallah MW,
 Melgaard L, et al. Elevated fetal steroidogenic activity in autism. Molecular psychiatry. 2015;20(3):369-76.
 Loke H, Harley V, Lee J. Biological factors underlying sex differences in neurological disorders. The international journal of biochemistry & cell biology. 2015;65:139-50.

18. Zettergren A, Karlsson S, Hovey D, Jonsson L, Melke J, Anckarsater H, et al. Further investigations of the relation between polymorphisms in sex steroid related genes and autistic-like traits. Psychoneuroendocrinology. 2016;68:1-5.

19. Tammimies K, Tapia-Paez I, Ruegg J, Rosin G, Kere J, Gustafsson JA, et al. The rs3743205 SNP is important for the regulation of the dyslexia candidate gene DYX1C1 by estrogen receptor beta and DNA methylation. Molecular endocrinology (Baltimore, Md). 2012;26(4):619-29.

20. Massinen S, Tammimies K, Tapia-Paez I, Matsson H, Hokkanen ME, Soderberg O, et al. Functional interaction of DYX1C1 with estrogen receptors suggests involvement of hormonal pathways in dyslexia. Human molecular genetics. 2009;18(15):2802-12.

21. Chakrabarti B, Dudbridge F, Kent L, Wheelwright S, Hill-Cawthorne G, Allison C, et al. Genes related to sex steroids, neural growth, and social-emotional behavior are associated with autistic traits, empathy, and Asperger syndrome. Autism research : official journal of the International Society for Autism Research. 2009;2(3):157-77.

22. Cederlof M, Ohlsson Gotby A, Larsson H, Serlachius E, Boman M, Langstrom N, et al.
Klinefelter syndrome and risk of psychosis, autism and ADHD. Journal of psychiatric research.
2014;48(1):128-30.

23. Kanakis GA, Nieschlag E. Klinefelter syndrome: more than hypogonadism. Metabolism: clinical and experimental. 2018;86:135-44.

24. Guarneri MP, Abusrewil SA, Bernasconi S, Bona G, Cavallo L, Cicognani A, et al. Turner's syndrome. Journal of pediatric endocrinology & metabolism : JPEM. 2001;14 Suppl 2:959-65.

25. Hurren BJ, Flack NA. Prader-Willi Syndrome: A spectrum of anatomical and clinical features. Clinical anatomy. 2016;29(5):590-605.

26. Forsythe E, Beales PL. Bardet-Biedl Syndrome. In: Pagon RA, Adam MP, Ardinger HH,
Wallace SE, Amemiya A, Bean LJH, et al., editors. GeneReviews(R). Seattle WA: University of
Washington, Seattle. GeneReviews is a registered trademark of the University of Washington, Seattle;
1993.

27. Lalani SR, Hefner MA, Belmont JW, Davenport SLH. CHARGE Syndrome. In: Pagon RA, Adam MP, Ardinger HH, Wallace SE, Amemiya A, Bean LJH, et al., editors. GeneReviews(R). Seattle WA: University of Washington, Seattle. GeneReviews is a registered trademark of the University of Washington, Seattle; 1993.

Butwicka A, Lichtenstein P, Landen M, Nordenvall AS, Nordenstrom A, Nordenskjold A, et al. Hypospadias and increased risk for neurodevelopmental disorders. J Child Psychol Psychiatry.
 2015;56(2):155-61.

29. Ludvigsson JF, Andersson E, Ekbom A, Feychting M, Kim JL, Reuterwall C, et al. External review and validation of the Swedish national inpatient register. BMC public health. 2011;11:450.

30. Lundh A, Forsman M, Serlachius E, Lichtenstein P, Landen M. Outcomes of child psychiatric treatment. Acta psychiatrica Scandinavica. 2013;128(1):34-44.

31. Idring S, Rai D, Dal H, Dalman C, Sturm H, Zander E, et al. Autism spectrum disorders in the Stockholm Youth Cohort: design, prevalence and validity. PloS one. 2012;7(7):e41280.

32. Wettermark B, Hammar N, Fored CM, Leimanis A, Otterblad Olausson P, Bergman U, et al. The new Swedish Prescribed Drug Register--opportunities for pharmacoepidemiological research and experience from the first six months. Pharmacoepidemiology and drug safety. 2007;16(7):726-35.

33. Skoglund C, Chen Q, D'Onofrio BM, Lichtenstein P, Larsson H. Familial confounding of the association between maternal smoking during pregnancy and ADHD in offspring. J Child Psychol Psychiatry. 2014;55(1):61-8.

34. Ludvigsson JF, Almqvist C, Bonamy AK, Ljung R, Michaelsson K, Neovius M, et al.
Registers of the Swedish total population and their use in medical research. Eur J Epidemiol.
2016;31(2):125-36.

35. Hsu P, Ma A, Wilson M, Williams G, Curotta J, Munns CF, et al. CHARGE syndrome: a review. Journal of paediatrics and child health. 2014;50(7):504-11.

36. Jiang YH, Yuen RK, Jin X, Wang M, Chen N, Wu X, et al. Detection of clinically relevant genetic variants in autism spectrum disorder by whole-genome sequencing. American journal of human genetics. 2013;93(2):249-63.

37. Cariboni A, Pimpinelli F, Colamarino S, Zaninetti R, Piccolella M, Rumio C, et al. The product of X-linked Kallmann's syndrome gene (KAL1) affects the migratory activity of gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH)-producing neurons. Human molecular genetics. 2004;13(22):2781-91.

38. De Rubeis S, He X, Goldberg AP, Poultney CS, Samocha K, Cicek AE, et al. Synaptic, transcriptional and chromatin genes disrupted in autism. Nature. 2014;515(7526):209-15.

39. Deciphering Developmental Disorders S. Prevalence and architecture of de novo mutations in developmental disorders. Nature. 2017;542(7642):433-8.

40. Salian-Mehta S, Xu M, Knox AJ, Plummer L, Slavov D, Taylor M, et al. Functional consequences of AXL sequence variants in hypogonadotropic hypogonadism. The Journal of clinical endocrinology and metabolism. 2014;99(4):1452-60.

41. Gazdagh G, Tobias ES, Ahmed SF, McGowan R, Group DDDS. Novel Genetic Associations and Range of Phenotypes in Children with Disorders of Sex Development and Neurodevelopment: Insights from the Deciphering Developmental Disorders Study. Sexual development : genetics, molecular biology, evolution, endocrinology, embryology, and pathology of sex determination and differentiation. 2016;10(3):130-5.

42. Pitteloud N, Meysing A, Quinton R, Acierno JS, Jr., Dwyer AA, Plummer L, et al. Mutations in fibroblast growth factor receptor 1 cause Kallmann syndrome with a wide spectrum of reproductive phenotypes. Molecular and cellular endocrinology. 2006;254-255:60-9.

43. D'Angelo D, Lebon S, Chen Q, Martin-Brevet S, Snyder LG, Hippolyte L, et al. Defining the Effect of the 16p11.2 Duplication on Cognition, Behavior, and Medical Comorbidities. JAMA psychiatry. 2016;73(1):20-30.

44. Chaudhry A, Noor A, Degagne B, Baker K, Bok LA, Brady AF, et al. Phenotypic spectrum associated with PTCHD1 deletions and truncating mutations includes intellectual disability and autism spectrum disorder. Clinical genetics. 2015;88(3):224-33.

45. Pitteloud N, Zhang C, Pignatelli D, Li JD, Raivio T, Cole LW, et al. Loss-of-function mutation in the prokineticin 2 gene causes Kallmann syndrome and normosmic idiopathic hypogonadotropic hypogonadism. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America. 2007;104(44):17447-52.

46. Dabell MP, Rosenfeld JA, Bader P, Escobar LF, El-Khechen D, Vallee SE, et al. Investigation of NRXN1 deletions: clinical and molecular characterization. American journal of medical genetics Part A. 2013;161A(4):717-31.

47. Kosidou K, Dalman C, Widman L, Arver S, Lee BK, Magnusson C, et al. Maternal
Polycystic Ovary Syndrome and Risk for Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder in the Offspring.
Biological psychiatry. 2016.

48. Kosidou K, Dalman C, Widman L, Arver S, Lee BK, Magnusson C, et al. Maternal polycystic ovary syndrome and the risk of autism spectrum disorders in the offspring: a population-based nationwide study in Sweden. Molecular psychiatry. 2016;21(10):1441-8.

49. Falhammar H, Butwicka A, Landen M, Lichtenstein P, Nordenskjold A, Nordenstrom A, et al. Increased psychiatric morbidity in men with congenital adrenal hyperplasia due to 21-hydroxylase deficiency. The Journal of clinical endocrinology and metabolism. 2014;99(3):E554-60.

50. Engberg H, Butwicka A, Nordenstrom A, Hirschberg AL, Falhammar H, Lichtenstein P, et al. Congenital adrenal hyperplasia and risk for psychiatric disorders in girls and women born between 1915 and 2010: A total population study. Psychoneuroendocrinology. 2015;60:195-205.

51. Kung KT, Spencer D, Pasterski V, Neufeld S, Glover V, O'Connor TG, et al. No relationship between prenatal androgen exposure and autistic traits: convergent evidence from studies of children with congenital adrenal hyperplasia and of amniotic testosterone concentrations in typically developing children. J Child Psychol Psychiatry. 2016;57(12):1455-62.

52. Balasubramanian R, Choi JH, Francescatto L, Willer J, Horton ER, Asimacopoulos EP, et al. Functionally compromised CHD7 alleles in patients with isolated GnRH deficiency. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America. 2014;111(50):17953-8.

53. Samango-Sprouse C, Stapleton EJ, Lawson P, Mitchell F, Sadeghin T, Powell S, et al. Positive effects of early androgen therapy on the behavioral phenotype of boys with 47,XXY. American journal of medical genetics Part C, Seminars in medical genetics. 2015;169(2):150-7.

54. Samango-Sprouse CA, Sadeghin T, Mitchell FL, Dixon T, Stapleton E, Kingery M, et al.
Positive effects of short course androgen therapy on the neurodevelopmental outcome in boys with
47,XXY syndrome at 36 and 72 months of age. American journal of medical genetics Part A.
2013;161A(3):501-8.

54.

Figure legend

Figure 1. Risk of autism spectrum disorder (ASD), attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and intellectual disability (ID) in a Swedish national sample of cases with hypogonadotropic hypogonadism and delayed puberty and matched controls. Estimates presented are odds ratios (ORs) and corresponding 95% confidence intervals (CIs).

Tables

Table 1. Overview of the registries used in the study.

National Patient Register	1964-2014	National Board of Health and Welfare	Inpatient and day	Ludvigsson,
Register		Health and Welfare	surgery records	
			surgery records	Andersson et al.
			since 1964 and	2011
			outpatient records	
			since 2001	
Multi-Generation	1961-2014	Statistics Sweden	Familial	Ludvigsson et al
Register			relationships	2016
Habilitation	1998-2015	Stockholm County	Habilitation	Idring et al. 201
register			records for patients	
5			in Stockholm	
			County	
Swedish	2005-2015	National Board of	All drugs dispensed	Wettermark,
Prescribed Drug		Health and Welfare	at Swedish	Harnmar et al.
Register			pharmacies	2007
Swedish Register	1985-2013	Statistics Sweden	Highest achieved	Statistics Swede
of Education			education	2011
Total Population		Swedish Tax	Place of birth,	
Register		Agency	citizenship status,	
			information about	
			immigration and	
			emigration, marital	
	Habilitation register Swedish Prescribed Drug Register Swedish Register of Education	Habilitation1998-2015register2005-2015Swedish2005-2015Prescribed Drug1985-2013Swedish Register1985-2013Swedish Register1985-2013Of Education1985-2013	Habilitation register1998-2015Stockholm CountySwedish Prescribed Drug Register2005-2015National Board of Health and WelfareSwedish Register of Education1985-2013Statistics SwedenTotal PopulationSwedish Tax	Habilitation register1998-2015Stockholm CountyHabilitation records for patients in Stockholm CountySwedish Prescribed Drug Register2005-2015National Board of Health and WelfareAll drugs dispensed at Swedish pharmaciesSwedish Register

status and place of residence

1				
Clinical Database	2001-2015	Stockholm County	Diagnoses from the	Lundh et al. 2013
for Child and			child- and	
Adolescent			adolescent	
Psychiatry			psychiatry in	
(PASTILL)			Stockholm County	
-				
Small Area	1982-2013	Statistics Sweden	Classification of	
Market Statistics			Swedish	
(SAMS)			municipalities per	
			year	
The Swedish	1973-2015	National Board of	Information on	
Medical Birth		Health and Welfare	prenatal, delivery	
Register			and neonatal care	

This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved

1

			Hypogona	dism		Delayed puberty					
Cases		Controls		OR (95% CI)	Cases		Controls		OR (95 % CI)		
10	3.8%	19	0.7%	5.68 (2.56-12.59)	224	3.0%	1547	2.1%	1.47 (1.27-1.69)		
7	3.9%	13	0.7%	5.80 (2.23-15.08)	190	3.3%	1334	2.3%	1.44 (1.24-1.68)		
3	3.6%	6	0.7%	5.40 (1.27-22.89)	34	2.0%	213	1.3%	1.61 (1.12-2.33)		
21	8.0%	75	2.8%	3.04 (1.82-5.07)	611	8.2%	3702	5.0%	1.72 (1.57-1.88)		
18	10%	53	2.9%	3.75 (2.13-6.63)	527	9.2%	3132	5.5%	1.76 (1.60-1.94)		
3	3.6%	22	2.6%	1.39 (0.40-4.87)	84	4.9%	570	3.3%	1.50 (1.19-1.90)		
						/					
22	8.3%	13	0.5%	17.97 (8.88-36.34)	261	3.5%	909	1.2%	2.95 (2.56-3.39)		
14	7.8%	5	0.3%	28.00 (10.09-77.74)	197	3.4%	760	1.3%	2.65 (2.26-3.11)		
8	9.5%	8	1.0%	10.87 (3.93-30.12)	64	3.8%	149	0.9%	4.47 (3.31-6.03)		
	10 7 3 21 18 3 22 14	10 3.8% 7 3.9% 3 3.6% 21 8.0% 18 10% 3 3.6% 22 8.3% 14 7.8%	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	CasesControls10 3.8% 19 0.7% 7 3.9% 13 0.7% 3 3.6% 6 0.7% 21 8.0% 75 2.8% 18 10% 53 2.9% 3 3.6% 22 2.6% 22 8.3% 13 0.5% 14 7.8% 5 0.3%	10 $3.8%$ 19 $0.7%$ 5.68 ($2.56-12.59$)7 $3.9%$ 13 $0.7%$ 5.80 ($2.23-15.08$)3 $3.6%$ 6 $0.7%$ 5.40 ($1.27-22.89$) 21 $8.0%$ 75 $2.8%$ 3.04 ($1.82-5.07$) 18 $10%$ 53 $2.9%$ 3.75 ($2.13-6.63$) 3 $3.6%$ 22 $2.6%$ 1.39 ($0.40-4.87$) 22 $8.3%$ 13 $0.5%$ 17.97 ($8.88-36.34$) 14 $7.8%$ 5 $0.3%$ 28.00 ($10.09-77.74$)	Cases Controls OR (95% CI) Cases 10 3.8% 19 0.7% 5.68 (2.56-12.59) 224 7 3.9% 13 0.7% 5.80 (2.23-15.08) 190 3 3.6% 6 0.7% 5.40 (1.27-22.89) 34 21 8.0% 75 2.8% 3.04 (1.82-5.07) 611 18 10% 53 2.9% 3.75 (2.13-6.63) 527 3 3.6% 22 2.6% 1.39 (0.40-4.87) 84 22 8.3% 13 0.5% 17.97 (8.88-36.34) 261 14 7.8% 5 0.3% 28.00 (10.09-77.74) 197	Cases Controls OR (95% CI) Cases 10 3.8% 19 0.7% 5.68 (2.56-12.59) 224 3.0% 7 3.9% 13 0.7% 5.80 (2.23-15.08) 190 3.3% 3 3.6% 6 0.7% 5.40 (1.27-22.89) 34 2.0% 21 8.0% 75 2.8% 3.04 (1.82-5.07) 611 8.2% 18 10% 53 2.9% 3.75 (2.13-6.63) 527 9.2% 3 3.6% 22 2.6% 1.39 (0.40-4.87) 84 4.9% 22 8.3% 13 0.5% 17.97 (8.88-36.34) 261 3.5% 14 7.8% 5 0.3% 28.00 (10.09-77.74) 197 3.4%	Cases Controls OR (95% CI) Cases Controls 10 3.8% 19 0.7% 5.68 (2.56-12.59) 224 3.0% 1547 7 3.9% 13 0.7% 5.80 (2.23-15.08) 190 3.3% 1334 3 3.6% 6 0.7% 5.40 (1.27-22.89) 34 2.0% 213 21 8.0% 75 2.8% 3.04 (1.82-5.07) 611 8.2% 3702 18 10% 53 2.9% 3.75 (2.13-6.63) 527 9.2% 3132 3 3.6% 22 2.6% 1.39 (0.40-4.87) 84 4.9% 570 22 8.3% 13 0.5% 17.97 (8.88-36.34) 261 3.5% 909 14 7.8% 5 0.3% 28.00 (10.09-77.74) 197 3.4% 760	Cases Controls OR (95% CI) Cases Controls 10 3.8% 19 0.7% 5.68 (2.56-12.59) 224 3.0% 1547 2.1% 7 3.9% 13 0.7% 5.80 (2.23-15.08) 190 3.3% 1334 2.3% 3 3.6% 6 0.7% 5.40 (1.27-22.89) 34 2.0% 213 1.3% 21 8.0% 75 2.8% 3.04 (1.82-5.07) 611 8.2% 3702 5.0% 18 10% 53 2.9% 3.75 (2.13-6.63) 527 9.2% 3132 5.5% 3 3.6% 22 2.6% 1.39 (0.40-4.87) 84 4.9% 570 3.3% 22 8.3% 13 0.5% 17.97 (8.88-36.34) 261 3.5% 909 1.2% 14 7.8% 5 0.3% 28.00 (10.09-77.74) 197 3.4% 760 1.3%		

Table 2. Association between hypogonadism, late puberty and neurodevelopmental disorders. Descriptive statistics, odds ratios (OR) and 95%confidence intervals(CI). ASD = Autism spectrum disorder, ADHD = Attention deficits/hyperactivity disorder, ID = intellectual disability.

Table 3. Association between hypogonadism, late puberty and neurodevelopmental disorders in population with information about possible confounders available. *Descriptive statistics, odds ratios (OR) and 95% confidence intervals(CI).* ASD = Autism spectrum disorder, ADHD = Attention deficits/hyperactivity disorder, ID = intellectual disability.

5				Delayed puberty								
		Cases	Co	ontrols	OR (95% CI)			Cases		ntrols	OR (95% CI)	
	<i>n</i> =192 <i>n</i> =1752		=1752				<i>n</i> =6398		8109			
					Unadjusted	Adjusted ¹					Unadjusted	Adjusted ¹
ASD	6	3.1%	12	0.7%	4.51 (1.69-12.03)	4.25 (1.39-13.00)	189	3.0%	1243	2.1%	1.39 (1.19-1.62)	1.36 (1.16-1.59)
ADHD	14	7.3%	55	3.1%	2.51 (1.34-4.68)	2.73 (1.41-5.28)	518	8.1%	3074	5.3%	1.58 (1.43-1.74)	1.58 (1.43-1.75)
ID	14	7.3%	12	0.7%	10.45 (4.83-22.61)	11.94 (4.73-30.16)	174	2.74%	651	1.1%	2.45 (2.07-2.91)	2.50 (2.09-2.98)

¹Analyses adjusted for parents' highest achieved education, father's age, urban residency at age 13, birth month, length of pregnancy in weeks, small for gestational age, mother diagnosed with alcohol or drug abuse.

This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved

C

Accebt

Table 4. Sensitivity analyses excluding individuals with the following ICD-10 conditions: other specified congenital malformation syndromes affecting multiple systems (Q87) or chromosomal abnormalities, not elsewhere classified (Q90-Q99).

				Hypogonad	ism	Delayed puberty							
		Cases $n=245$		ontrols =2446	OR (95 % CI)	Cases <i>n</i> =7311		Con	trols 2829	OR (95 % CI)			
SD	9	3.7%	17	0.7%	5.59 (1.90-15.26)	213	2.9%	1484	2.0%	1.45 (1.25-1.67)			
DHD	18	7.3%	70	2.9%	2.76 (1.29-5.02)	592	8.1%	3611	5.0%	1.70 (1.55-1.86)			
)	16	6.5%	12	0.5%	13.33 (6.57-37.42)	217	3.0%	806	1.1%	2.74 (2.35-3.19)			

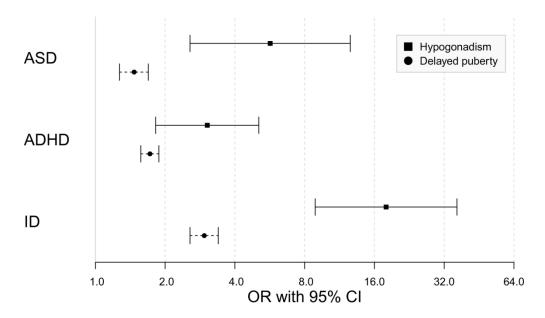


Figure 1. Risk of autism spectrum disorder (ASD), attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and intellectual disability (ID) in a Swedish national sample of cases with hypogonadotropic hypogonadism and delayed puberty and matched controls. Estimates presented are odds ratios (ORs) and corresponding 95% confidence intervals (CIs).