

This is an Open Access document downloaded from ORCA, Cardiff University's institutional repository: <https://orca.cardiff.ac.uk/id/eprint/125985/>

This is the author's version of a work that was submitted to / accepted for publication.

Citation for final published version:

Hales, Charlotte , Taylor, Peter N. , Channon, Sue , McEwen, Kirsten, Thaper, Anita, Langley, Kate , Muller, Ilaria , Darman, Mohd, Dayan, Colin , Gregory, John , Okosieme, Onyebuchi, Lazarus, John, Rees, D. Aled and Ludgate, Marian 2020. Controlled antenatal thyroid screening II: Effect of treating maternal sub-optimal thyroid function on child behaviour. *Journal of Clinical Endocrinology and Metabolism* 105 (3) , dgz098. 10.1210/clinem/dgz098

Publishers page: <https://doi.org/10.1210/clinem/dgz098>

Please note:

Changes made as a result of publishing processes such as copy-editing, formatting and page numbers may not be reflected in this version. For the definitive version of this publication, please refer to the published source. You are advised to consult the publisher's version if you wish to cite this paper.

This version is being made available in accordance with publisher policies. See <http://orca.cf.ac.uk/policies.html> for usage policies. Copyright and moral rights for publications made available in ORCA are retained by the copyright holders.



1 **Controlled Antenatal Thyroid Screening II: effect of treating maternal sub-**  
2 **optimal thyroid function on child behaviour**

3 Charlotte Hales, Peter N Taylor, Sue Channon, Kirsten McEwan, Anita Thapar, Kate  
4 Langley, Ilaria Muller, Mohd S Draman, Colin Dayan, John W Gregory, Onyebuchi  
5 Okosieme, John H Lazarus, D Aled Rees and Marian Ludgate

6 Centre for Endocrine and Diabetes Sciences, School of Medicine, Cardiff University,  
7 UK (C Hales PhD, P N Taylor PhD, O Okosieme MD, I Muller PhD, M S Draman  
8 PhD, JW Gregory MD, C Dayan PhD, JH Lazarus MD, M Ludgate PhD);

9 Centre for Trials Research, Cardiff University, UK (S Channon DClinPsych, K  
10 McEwan PhD); School of Psychology, Cardiff University, UK (Kate Langley)Division  
11 of Psychological Medicine and Clinical Neurosciences, School of Medicine, Cardiff  
12 University, UK (Anita Thapar ); Neuroscience and Mental Health Research Institute,  
13 Cardiff University, UK (D Aled Rees PhD).

14 SHORT TITLE; Maternal thyroid function effects on child behaviour.

15 KEY WORDS; Thyroid, Pregnancy, Thyroxine, ADHD, Autism, Childhood

16 CORRESPONDENCE TO: Prof Marian Ludgate, Division of Infection and Immunity,  
17 School of Medicine, Cardiff University, Cardiff, Wales UK, [ludgate@cardiff.ac.uk](mailto:ludgate@cardiff.ac.uk)

18 FUNDED BY: The Charles Wolfson Trust, Action Medical Research (project code  
19 GN2033)/The Henry Smith Charity (20122759 GN 2033, grants to ML) and The  
20 American Thyroid Association (project code ATA-2014-033.R1, grant to PNT)

21 DISCLOSURE STATEMENT: None of the authors have any conflicting interests to  
22 declare.

23 Word Count: 4036

24 **ABSTRACT**

25 *Context & Objectives* The Controlled Antenatal Thyroid Screening (CATS) study was  
26 the first randomised controlled trial to investigate effects of treating suboptimal-  
27 gestational-thyroid-function (SGTF) on child cognition. Since observational studies  
28 indicated that SGTF may also increase symptoms of autism and attention deficit  
29 hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), the CATS cohort was used to investigate whether  
30 treatment of mothers affected their children's behavior.

31 *Design & Participants* Mothers (N=475) completed 3 questionnaires, strengths and  
32 difficulties (SDQ), attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and social  
33 communication (SCQ, used as a screen for autism spectrum disorder (ASD)), about  
34 their children (aged 9.5 years). Group comparisons of total scores, numbers of children  
35 above clinical thresholds and association between high maternal FT4 (>97.5th  
36 percentile of the UK cohort, 'over-treated') and child neurodevelopment were reported.

37 *Results* There were no differences in total scores between normal-GTF (n=246),  
38 treated (n=125) and untreated (n=104) SGTF groups. More children of treated mothers  
39 scored above clinical thresholds, particularly the over-treated. Scores were above  
40 thresholds in SDQ conduct 22% vs 7%, SCQ total scores 7% vs 1%, and ADHD  
41 hyperactivity 17% vs 5% when comparing over-treated (n=40) and untreated (N=100)  
42 respectively. We identified significantly higher mean scores for SDQ conduct (adjusted  
43 mean difference (AMD) 0.74, 95% confidence interval (CI) 0.021 to 1.431, P=0.040,  
44 effect size 0.018) and ADHD hyperactivity (AMD 1.60, CI 0.361 to 2.633, P=0.003,  
45 effect size 0.028) comparing over-treated with normal-GTF children.

46 *Conclusions* There was no overall association between SGTF and offspring ADHD,  
47 ASD or behavior questionnaire scores. However, children of 'over-treated' mothers  
48 displayed significantly more ADHD symptoms and behavioral difficulties than normal-  
49 GTF. Thyroxine supplementation during pregnancy requires monitoring to avoid over-  
50 treatment.

## 51 **PRÉCIS**

52 We investigated effects of treating sub-optimal gestational thyroid function (SGTF)  
53 on child behaviour. No associations found between SGTF & offspring behaviour;  
54 children of 'over-treated' mothers had significantly more difficulties than untreated.

55

56

57

## 58 INTRODUCTION

59 The cognitive impairment displayed in children with congenital hypothyroidism or born  
60 to mothers with iodine deficiency illustrates the essential role of thyroid hormones,  
61 triiodothyronine (T3) and thyroxine (T4), in brain development (1). Although fetal T3  
62 receptors in the human brain can be detected from about 10 weeks gestation and  
63 increase 50 fold by 16 weeks, the thyroid develops relatively late with full function  
64 being acquired at around 36 weeks gestation (1); thus thyroid hormones must be  
65 supplied via placental transfer (2). Sub-optimal gestational thyroid function (SGTF)  
66 (classified as low T4 and/or high thyroid stimulating hormone (TSH) values, or both)  
67 in pregnancy can occur in women with no previous thyroid dysfunction. Children born  
68 to mothers with SGTF have been reported to have lower IQ compared with children  
69 born to euthyroid mothers (3-11). However, two large randomized controlled trials  
70 (RCTs) found no evidence of thyroid hormone treatment improving the IQ of children  
71 born to mothers with SGTF (12,13) tested at ages 3 and 5 respectively. These results  
72 were confirmed recently in a follow-up to the first study, in children aged 9 (14).

73 In addition to intelligence, SGTF may also affect other aspects of child  
74 neurodevelopment; specifically attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD,  
75 characterised by hyperactivity, inattention and impulsiveness) and autism spectrum  
76 disorder (ASD, characterised by social and communication problems, and repetitive  
77 behaviors). Multiple observational studies have reported higher ADHD scores in  
78 children born to mothers with SGTF, particularly hypothyroxinaemia, compared to  
79 controls (3,15-19). Childhood ASD has been reported to be increased in those born to  
80 mothers with SGTF (20,21). Maternal thyroid peroxidase autoantibodies, markers of  
81 thyroid autoimmunity, are also associated with increased ADHD (22) and ASD risk

82 (23) in offspring. In contrast, others report no link between SGTF and ADHD or ASD  
83 symptoms in the child (20,24,25).

84 The two RCTs described above (12,13) included additional psychological  
85 assessments of behavioral and social competency plus attention. Neither reported any  
86 differences in these parameters in children of treated and untreated mothers; although  
87 they were not powered specifically for these aspects. Furthermore, data from children  
88 of mothers with normal-GTF were not collected. The current study is an extension of  
89 the first RCT of treatment of SGTF during pregnancy (12) in which the offspring were  
90 examined for behavior, social competency and attention after long-term follow-up. The  
91 inclusion of children of normal-GTF mothers enabled us to assess whether there is a  
92 deficit in neurodevelopment requiring treatment.

93 Furthermore, since a number of mothers demonstrated high FT4 concentrations  
94 suggesting a degree of over-treatment, we were also interested in the effects of high-  
95 FT4 on child neurodevelopment outcomes. The rationale for this derives from studies  
96 by Korevaar and colleagues, who reported adverse effects on brain morphology and  
97 cognition of both too little and too much thyroid hormone (26). In addition, a recent  
98 study from Maraka et al, demonstrated worse obstetric outcomes such as pre-term  
99 delivery and pre-eclampsia in treated women with SGTF (27).

## 100 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

101 The Controlled Antenatal Thyroid Screening study

102 We report a follow-up to a treatment trial, the Controlled Antenatal Thyroid Screening  
103 Study (CATS) (12), in which women were screened at a median of 12 weeks 3 days'  
104 gestation between June 13, 2002 and May 31, 2006. Briefly, in CATS-I (12) midwives  
105 and obstetric care-givers in the UK and Italy recruited ~22,000 women (excluding

106 history of thyroid disease, twin pregnancies, maternal age <18 years or gestational  
107 age >15 weeks and 6 days), at their first antenatal hospital appointment. Participants  
108 were randomized, by computer generated block design, either to screen or control  
109 groups; both provided serum samples at recruitment with the screen group having  
110 their thyroid function tested immediately and the controls after their child was born  
111 (sera stored at -40°C). If the mother's FT4 was <2.5th percentile and/or TSH >97.5th  
112 percentile, they were classified as having SGTF; percentiles being calculated from the  
113 CATS cohort. Women in the screen group with SGTF were treated with levothyroxine  
114 (starting dosage 150µg) for the remainder of their pregnancies. Dosages were  
115 adjusted where necessary, to maintain a serum TSH of 0.1-1.0mIU/L, following  
116 measurement of TSH and FT4 6 weeks after treatment was initiated and at 30 weeks  
117 gestation. SGTF women diagnosed after delivery were advised to visit their general  
118 practitioner for further management. The primary outcome was children's IQ at age 3  
119 from 390 (303 in the UK) treated (screen) and 404 (306 in the UK) untreated (control)  
120 mothers (assessors blinded to treatment group). A further 20,789 (15,593 in the UK)  
121 women made up the normal-GTF group and recruitment ended when sufficient  
122 numbers, determined by prior power calculation, had been reached. Figure 1 shows  
123 the study flow chart of the UK participants.

124

125 Follow-up of children at ages 7-10 years; current data

126 Inclusion criteria were mothers living in the UK and from the CATS-I cohort whose  
127 children were aged 7 to 10 years. Offspring follow-up data were collected between  
128 August 8, 2011 and August 7, 2015. The target sample size of 480 participants was  
129 pre-determined and informed by prior power calculations to assess cognition. Samples  
130 of 120 from each of the treated and untreated SGTF groups provided 80% power with

131 a 5% two-sided significance level to detect a 1.97 increase in odds of IQ <85 in  
132 untreated SGTF offspring assuming treated SGTF offspring have a mean IQ of 100  
133 with a SD of 15. An additional 240 participants from the normal GTF group, randomly  
134 selected from the 15,593 UK cohort, were used to assess interaction with maternal  
135 thyroid status and levothyroxine treatment on offspring IQ.

136 For full details see Hales et al 2014 (28).

137 CATS mothers from the UK SGTF treated and untreated groups (n=609) were invited  
138 to participate by letter. The Welsh Demographics Service and Patient Data Registrar  
139 provided current addresses. Those without SGTF in the control and screen branches  
140 of the RCT, were pooled (UK n=15,593), and named 'normal-GTF'; a random sample  
141 of 4,000 from this group was also invited to participate. Data were collected at a  
142 research centre, via a home visit, or by post; this approach was used to maximise the  
143 follow-up rate. Informed consent was provided by all mothers who completed the  
144 questionnaires.

145 Results of cognitive assessments in the children have been reported (14).  
146 Cardiovascular, metabolic, bone data and DNA samples were also collected in those  
147 participants attending the visit at the research centre but are not described here (ms  
148 in preparation).

149 Mothers (mean age 31 (SD 5.12) years) were asked to complete three questionnaire  
150 measures on their children (mean age 9.5 (SD 0.77) years): The Strengths and  
151 Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) (29), The Child ADHD Questionnaire (ADHDq) (30),  
152 and the Social Communication Questionnaire (SCQ) (31). The SDQ consisted of 25  
153 items, scored by a Likert scale (0-2), grouped into five subscales; Hyperactivity (5  
154 ADHD items), Emotional symptoms, Conduct problems, Peer problems, and Pro-

155 social behavior as well as a total score. The SDQ provides a measure of child mental  
156 health difficulties, has been internationally validated and has good psychometric  
157 properties (32-35). The ADHDq consists of 18 items addressing ICD-10 symptoms by  
158 a Likert scale (0-3, Thapar et al.(30)); subscales include inattention, hyperactivity, and  
159 impulsivity. The Social Communication Questionnaire has good external validity (36)  
160 and is one of the most widely adopted screening tools for ASD (37). The SCQ  
161 generates a total score from 'yes'/'no' answers; a score of  $\geq 15$ , indicates possible  
162 ASD (38). Data were collected, inputted, and cleaned by one researcher who was  
163 blinded to participant study group.

#### 164 Statistical analysis

165 All analyses (unless otherwise stated) were adjusted for child gender, maternal age at  
166 time of consent into CATS, whether the mother breastfed for over one month, and  
167 quintile of social deprivation (the lower the quintile the more deprived, quintiles  
168 enabled comparisons between Welsh and English postcodes); these variables have  
169 been reported previously to be associated with questionnaire scores (39-47). Child  
170 age was not included as a covariate given the narrow age range of the children (3  
171 years).

172 Descriptive statistics were calculated to identify any potential recruitment bias in the  
173 three groups; continuous variables are presented as means (standard deviations) and  
174 categorical data as percentages (unless otherwise stated). Thyroid function test  
175 results at time of consent into CATS are presented per group, as well as the treated  
176 SGTF group's additional test results. As a proportion of CATS mothers had high FT4  
177 concentrations (26), the study was able to analyse an 'over-treatment' effect; a FT4  
178 measurement  $>17.7$ pmol/L at either 20 weeks or 30 weeks' gestation as defined by  
179 the top 2.5<sup>th</sup> percentile of FT4 in the entire CATS UK cohort at consent into the RCT.

180 The over-treatment value was calculated using a large sample-size (n=16,346) and  
181 was higher than the upper limit of the regional reference range. Mean FT4 and median  
182 TSH values of those who were over-treated were compared to the optimally treated  
183 mothers (FT4 <17.6pmol/L). Effects of the treated SGTF group's thyroid function tests  
184 throughout pregnancy were related to the questionnaire subdomains and total scores.

185 List-wise deletion was applied for questionnaires having >15% missing data  
186 (previously reported 10-20% acceptable (48,49), with >15% requiring consideration  
187 (50)), leading to exclusion of 21 participants. Of the remaining 454 participants  
188 (normal-GTF=237, treated SGTF=117, untreated SGTF=100), 54 (11.9%) had  
189 missing data; total values of missing data were n=85 (0.2%). The remaining  
190 participants' data were analysed by Little's missing completely at random test (non-  
191 significant), with missing values replaced by the 'series mean' in SPSS (51).

192 All Kolmogorov-Smirnov (and Shapiro-Wilk) normality tests were returned as  $p < 0.001$   
193 for all questionnaires on every totalled domain. However, means and medians  
194 appeared close and skewness and kurtosis ranges were largely just above  $\pm 1$  and  
195 thus were returned as normal with caution.

196 In the primary analysis, we compared the mean total scores from the three  
197 questionnaires administered to the normal-GTF, treated and untreated SGTF groups.  
198 This was by a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA), which was followed by  
199 univariate tests and pairwise comparisons that were Bonferroni corrected, where  
200 relevant.

201 In the secondary analysis, the frequency of children scoring above the questionnaire  
202 thresholds that indicate likely disorder was presented to enable comparisons between  
203 the groups. For SDQ, the clinically significant cut-offs were adopted, those classified

204 as 'high' were in the 90-95<sup>th</sup> percentile range, and 'very high' were above the 95<sup>th</sup>  
205 percentile (29). For the ADHDq, the authors calculated the SDs (30); scores >2SDs  
206 were reported. For the SCQ, scores >15 were identified as the child potentially having  
207 an ASD (31); a UK sample found a prevalence of 4-5% for scores >15 (52).

208 The exploratory analysis investigated the effect of treatment. Mean scores from the  
209 questionnaires (total and subdomains) were compared between the normal-GTF,  
210 untreated SGTF, optimally treated SGTF (FT4 <17.6pmol/L), and over-treated SGTF  
211 (FT4 >17.7pmol/L). Further exploratory analyses are in the Supplemental Material,  
212 including effects of hypothyroxinemia or subclinical hypothyroidism and varying levels  
213 of FT4 following treatment.

214 Standard regression analysis was performed to compare behavior of participating  
215 children at age 3 (Child behavior check-list) and age 9 (strengths and difficulties  
216 questionnaire).

217 All statistical analyses were performed with SPSS version 20 software. P<0.05 was  
218 considered significant.

## 219 **RESULTS**

### 220 *Characteristics of the cohort*

221 A total of 485 women/child pairs participated but 10 were excluded (9 ineligible, one  
222 whose results were deemed unreliable due to their approach to the assessment)  
223 leaving 475 who completed the questionnaires (normal-GTF=246, treated SGTF=125,  
224 and untreated SGTF=104); table 1 reports their demographic data. The SGTF groups  
225 had younger children participating (by four months) than the normal-GTF group, and  
226 the treated SGTF also had significantly younger mothers by ten months. The treated  
227 SGTF had a higher median baseline TSH compared to the untreated SGTF group; this

228 suggested a potential recruitment bias and was reflected in SGTF group age 3 to age  
229 9 comparisons; supplemental data table 1 (53).

230 Pregnancy thyroid function tests of the treated SGTF group at 20 weeks' gestation  
231 identified a mean (SD) FT4 of 16.2pmol/L (2.89), reducing to 15.5pmol/L (2.47) at 30  
232 weeks; median TSH values at 20 and 30 weeks gestation were 0.3mIU/L at both time  
233 points. Of these women, 41 were over-treated, with FT4 concentration >17.7pmol/L at  
234 20 or 30 weeks' gestation (see supplemental material for figures); with 13 of these  
235 sustaining over-treatment throughout their pregnancies. The mean FT4  
236 concentrations at 20 weeks and 30 weeks for the over-treated group were 19.2pmol/L  
237 (2.53) and 17.8pmol/L (2.46), respectively, whilst median TSH values at these times  
238 were below target at 0.08mIU/L and 0.05mIU/L, respectively. In the remaining  
239 optimally treated SGTF group, the mean FT4 concentrations at 20 weeks' and 30  
240 weeks' gestation were 14.8pmol/L (1.78) and 14.5pmol/L (1.73), respectively, with  
241 median TSH values of 0.52mIU/L and 0.35mIU/L.

#### 242 *Main analyses*

243 After removing participants with >15% missing data, 454 were analysed, revealing no  
244 significant differences between the means of the 3 administered questionnaires (table  
245 2) in the normal-GTF, treated SGTF and untreated SGTF groups (P=0.261). Total  
246 questionnaire scores comparing the three participant groups were significantly  
247 affected by child gender (/sex), mother age at time of consent and social deprivation  
248 (P=0.001, P=0.030, and P=0.001, respectively). Higher questionnaire scores were  
249 more likely for male children and children born to younger mothers during pregnancy  
250 or to families with greater social deprivation.

#### 251 *Secondary and Exploratory Analyses*

252 At the point of recruitment into CATS-I, there was a negative association between  
253 maternal FT4 level and aspects of child behaviour assessed at age 9; i.e. children of  
254 mothers with low FT4 before any treatment tended to have higher questionnaire  
255 scores indicating more behaviour problems. However, the association between child  
256 behaviour problems and FT4 in treated mothers was positive at 20 weeks' gestation  
257 (figure 2). Thus we investigated the possible effects of over-treatment as defined by  
258 the top 2.5th percentile of FT4 in the CATS UK cohort at recruitment (N=16,346,  
259 FT4>17.7 pmol/L). We observed significantly higher mean scores for some domains:  
260 SDQ conduct (adjusted mean difference (AMD) 0.74, 95% confidence interval (CI)  
261 0.021 to 1.431, P=0.040, effect size 0.018) and ADHD hyperactivity (AMD 1.60, CI  
262 0.361 to 2.633, P=0.003, effect size 0.028) in over-treated compared with normal-GTF.  
263 Furthermore, individuals within each group had 'high scores' on domains reported in  
264 the analyses (table 3); these were defined as clinically significant cut-offs (SDQ),  
265 standard deviations calculated by Thapar et al.(30) (ADHDq), and a score >15  
266 indicative of a child potentially having an ASD (31) (SCQ). The largest and significant  
267 percentage differences were noted on SDQ Conduct, SDQ Hyperactivity, ADHDq  
268 Hyperactivity, and SCQ Total; the treated SGTF had proportionately more than twice  
269 as many individuals in the highest classifications compared to the normal-GTF and  
270 untreated SGTF, which appeared to be driven by those children born to over-treated  
271 mothers. When comparing the normal-GTF and untreated SGTF children, we did not  
272 observe any difference between numbers of individuals in the highest classifications.

### 273 *Effect of subclinical hypothyroidism, hypothyroxinemia and overt hypothyroidism*

274 Similar non-significant differences were found between the normal GTF (n=237),  
275 treated (n=67), and untreated (n=49) subclinical hypothyroid groups for total

276 questionnaire scores ( $P=0.909$ ). When exploring the effect of treatment to the  
277 17.7pmol/L threshold, there was also no difference in mean scores; supplemental data  
278 table 2

279 Total questionnaire scores were not significantly different between the normal GTF  
280 ( $n=237$ ), treated ( $n=36$ ) and untreated ( $n=44$ ) hypothyroxinaemia groups;  
281 supplemental data table 3.

282 There were 8.55% ( $n=10$ ) of the treated SGTF group, and 9.00% ( $n=9$ ) of the untreated  
283 SGTF group classified as having overt hypothyroidism (OH). Comparing these groups  
284 (combined) with the normal GTF for total questionnaire scores identified a significant  
285 difference at the multivariate level ( $V=0.063$ ,  $F(6,496)=2.669$ ,  $P=0.015$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.031$ ),  
286 with a difference found for ADHD Total scores ( $F(2,249)=4.680$ ,  $P=0.010$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.036$ ).  
287 The untreated OH group had significantly higher scores compared to the normal GTF  
288 for ADHD Total ( $P=0.022$  (0.945, 16.876)).

289 When exploring the effect of treatment to the 17.7pmol/L threshold for maternal FT4,  
290 there was a difference at the multivariate level ( $V=0.203$ ,  $F(27,726)=1.948$ ,  $P=0.003$   
291  $\eta_p^2=0.068$ ). At the univariate level SDQ Conduct ( $F(3,248)=4.402$ ,  $P=0.005$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.051$ ),  
292 ADHD Hyperactivity ( $F(3,248)=5.665$ ,  $P=0.001$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.064$ ), and ADHD Total  
293 ( $F(3,248)=3.487$ ,  $P=0.016$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.040$ ) were significantly different. The over-treated OH  
294 group had significantly higher scores for SDQ Conduct ( $P=0.038$  (0.072, 4.273) and  
295 ADHD Hyperactivity ( $P=0.020$  (0.357, 6.597) compared to the normal GTF. Again, for  
296 ADHD Total, the untreated OH had significantly higher scores than the normal GTF  
297 ( $P=0.045$  (0.117, 7.693).

298 Children born to mothers who were untreated for OH in pregnancy, had higher scores  
299 for the Child ADHD Questionnaire, optimal treatment improved this with some means

300 moving closer to those of the normal GTF; supplemental data table 4. Over-treatment  
301 for OH had a significant effect on the same domains identified with the entire SGTF  
302 sample; SDQ Conduct and ADHD Hyperactivity. Caution is advised, however, as the  
303 sample sizes are small for OH.

304 Finally, we applied standardised regression analysis to compare behavior assessed  
305 at age 3, using the CBCL, and at age 9, using the SDQ. We observed that behavior  
306 at ages 3 and 9 was highly correlated  $B$  (Std) = 0.54 (95%CI 0.48 – 0.66)  $p < 0.001$ ,  
307 with variation at age 3 predicting 30% of the variation at age 9. Adjusting for other key  
308 factors such as sex, social class, maternal age and breastfeeding had no substantial  
309 impact on relationship or effect estimates.

## 310 **DISCUSSION**

311 We have applied well-validated questionnaires to assess neurodevelopment and  
312 behavior in a large cohort of children born to mothers recruited to CATS-I, the first  
313 RCT to explore the effect of levothyroxine treatment on childhood outcomes. In  
314 addition, our inclusion of children from normal-GTF mothers allowed us to investigate  
315 whether SGTF has any effect on conduct and hyperactivity.

316 We found no difference in the mean total scores of questionnaires to assess ADHD  
317 and ASD in children of mothers with normal-GTF compared with SGTF, whether  
318 treated or not. Results were the same when considering treated and untreated  
319 hypothyroxinemia and subclinical hypothyroidism separately, although numbers were  
320 inevitably smaller in the sub-sets. Boys, children born to younger mothers or to socially  
321 deprived families were more likely to have higher scores. FT4 was negatively  
322 associated with measures of hyperactivity in children of treated mothers at recruitment  
323 but positively associated after thyroxine supplementation. Reflecting this switch, there  
324 were significantly more children of treated mothers with scores above clinical

325 thresholds for conduct and hyperactivity than normal-GTF mothers. In particular, there  
326 were either significantly more children of over-treated mothers above defined cut-offs  
327 for these parameters or with mean scores significantly higher than the untreated SGTF  
328 or normal-GTF groups respectively.

329

330 We are aware that our study sample may be biased but group means were within  
331  $\pm 1$ SD of the ADHDq mean (24) or similar to the means reported for the SDQ and SCQ  
332 from other large UK cohorts (52) suggesting that participants are representative.  
333 However, numbers in the SGTF groups, especially untreated, were below our target  
334 and recruitment was a challenge from the outset, mainly because participants had re-  
335 located and did not respond to invitation.

336

337 Incomplete questionnaires were minimised by spot-checks and thus less than 1% of  
338 participants were excluded. However, questionnaires were completed only by the  
339 mothers and the study would have benefited from the child's mental health and  
340 neurodevelopment being assessed by another independent source, such as their  
341 teacher. Furthermore, significant mean effects are mainly seen on individual domains  
342 of the questionnaires, although these sub-domains mostly relate to hyperactivity.

343

344 In the two RCTs (12, 13) of the effects of SGTF treatment on child outcomes, neither  
345 reported any differences (mean scores) in behavior, social competency or attention in  
346 children of treated and untreated mothers at age 3 and 5 respectively. Our results in  
347 children aged 9 confirm both studies and demonstrate that behavior scores at age 3  
348 predict 30% of the variability in behavior scores at age 9.

349 In contrast to other studies, we found no differences in ADHD (3,15-18) and ASD  
350 (20,21) questionnaire domains between the SGTF and normal-GTF groups. However,  
351 we recognise that our findings are based on a smaller sample size, particularly of  
352 normal-GTF, than the large observational cohorts.

353 A small number of mothers in our study had overt hypothyroidism (n=19) and their  
354 children, whether in the untreated or over-treated groups, had more conduct, total  
355 ADHDq and hyperactivity symptoms than those in the normal-GTF group  
356 (supplemental material). In studies of congenital hypothyroidism, similar findings have  
357 also been reported: increased hyperactivity with higher levothyroxine dosages (49),  
358 and if the child had a high T4, they were significantly more distractible (50). Haddow  
359 et al.(3) identified more children with attention difficulties born to mothers who were  
360 treated in pregnancy, compared to untreated; however this was not an RCT and there  
361 was limited information on thyroid hormone levels of those who were treated. Recent  
362 research confirms that both high and low maternal FT4 may be detrimental to offspring  
363 in respect of intelligence and brain morphology (26). Our results also hint at a biphasic  
364 effect of maternal FT4 on neurodevelopment as illustrated by the switch from negative  
365 to positive association between FT4 and measures of hyperactivity before and after  
366 initiation of treatment. Mothers received a starting Levothyroxine dose of 150 µg daily  
367 after which the dose was adjusted to maintain TSH in the lower end of the reference  
368 range according to recommended treatment targets at the time of the study (54). This  
369 resulted in one third having an FT4 concentration above 17.7pmol/L, a threshold  
370 derived from the top 2.5th percentile of the UK CATS-I cohort (n=16 346), a cohort  
371 larger than those used to set reference ranges, and which excluded mothers with a  
372 history of thyroid disease. Thus subclinical hyperthyroidism may have inadvertently  
373 been induced in the over-treated group (based on current guidelines of a TSH value

374 <0.1mL/l (55). A nationwide study in Europe (n=857, 014) reported that if the mother  
375 was hyperthyroid throughout pregnancy, the child was at an increased risk (OR 1.23,  
376 1.05 to 1.44) of being diagnosed with ADHD (20). Yau et al.(25) reported that lower  
377 maternal TSH values were associated with more ASD symptoms in the offspring;  
378 whilst individuals with resistance to thyroid hormone (n=75) displayed a significant  
379 positive correlation between T4 levels and both ADHD hyperactivity and impulsivity  
380 symptoms (56). The same study also found a significant positive correlation between  
381 T3 and both ADHD hyperactivity and impulsivity in individuals without resistance to  
382 thyroid hormone (case family members, n=77). Thus, our results confirm these earlier  
383 studies indicating that higher levels of thyroid hormones can affect ADHD symptoms.

384 Our results are relevant to clinicians managing pregnant women with hypothyroidism.  
385 If a woman is already prescribed levothyroxine before pregnancy, current guidelines  
386 (55) advise an increase in the levothyroxine dose of 20-30% during pregnancy.  
387 Recommended starting doses for women diagnosed during pregnancy range from 100  
388 µg for OH but 25-50 µg daily for subclinical hypothyroidism and depend on 'normal  
389 reference ranges' for T4 and TSH according to geographic region and ethnic origin  
390 (57,58). In all cases treatment focuses on reducing TSH levels, and FT4 levels are  
391 seldom monitored, hence over-treatment in pregnancy may be more commonplace  
392 than anticipated (57,59,60). Of note, 17% of the women found to be over-treated in  
393 the present study had TSH values within the normal reference range. We hypothesise  
394 that there could be a beneficial mid-range of maternal FT4 during pregnancy for the  
395 offspring; too little or too much may affect the child. To investigate a possible 'tipping  
396 point', when differences in mental health and neurodevelopment between groups were  
397 no longer significant, FT4 thresholds of 17, 16, 15 and 14pmol/L at 20 weeks' gestation  
398 were applied (supplemental data table 5). It was identified that most differences

399 diminished below the 17.7pmol/L category, with lowering FT4 also increasing  
400 questionnaire scores; this also supports the biphasic effect of maternal FT4.

401 While screening and treatment of thyroid dysfunction in pregnancy will clearly benefit  
402 patients with overt hypothyroidism, the benefits for SGTF remain to be proven. In the  
403 light of our findings screening programmes should be carefully considered in order to  
404 avoid the unintended consequences of over-treatment. To fully explore the impact of  
405 SGTF and its treatment on behavioral problems requires large-scale studies with early  
406 intervention. Before embarking on such studies, consensus needs to be reached on  
407 trimester-specific reference ranges for TSH, FT4 and FT3, all derived from large  
408 groups of healthy women, free of thyroid autoantibodies, in an iodine sufficient area  
409 and with no history of thyroid disease.

410 We conclude that SGTF and optimal management of levothyroxine treatment during  
411 pregnancy have no effect on ADHD and ASD-symptoms of offspring at age 9. The  
412 children of women with FT4>97.5th percentile had more conduct, ADHDq, and ASD-  
413 symptoms and suggests that levothyroxine dose in pregnancy needs to be carefully  
414 monitored.

415

## 416 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

417 CATS-II was funded by The Charles Wolfson Trust, Action Medical Research (project  
418 code GN2033)/The Henry Smith Charity (20122759 GN 2033, grants to ML) and The  
419 American Thyroid Association (project code ATA-2014-033.R1, grant to PNT) for  
420 genotyping data. We are extremely grateful to the children, parents and families who  
421 participated in the study. Special thanks are extended to Dionne Shillabeer, Julie Pell,  
422 Julie Evans, Sophie Fuller, and Beverley Carey for their dedicated support of the  
423 CATS project.

## 424 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

425 Data sharing is not applicable to this article as no datasets were generated or analysed  
426 during the current study.

## 427 **REFERENCES**

- 428 **1.** J.G.Thorpe-Beeston KHN, McGregor AM Fetal Thyroid Function. *Thyroid* 1992; 2:207-217
- 429 **2.** Chan SY, Vasilopoulou E, Kilby MD. The role of the placenta in thyroid hormone delivery to  
430 the fetus. *Nature Clinical Practice Endocrinology and Metabolism* 2009; 5:45-54
- 431 **3.** Haddow JE, Palomaki GE, Allan WC, Williams JR, Knight GJ, Gagnon J, O'Heir CE, Mitchell ML,  
432 Hermos RJ, Waisbren SE, Faix JD, Klein RZ. Maternal thyroid deficiency during pregnancy and  
433 subsequent neuropsychological development of the child. *New England Journal of Medicine*  
434 1999; 341:549-555
- 435 **4.** Li Y, Shan Z, Teng W, Yu X, Li Y, Fan C, Teng X, Guo R, Wang H, Li J, Chen Y, Wang W,  
436 Chawinga M, Zhang L, Yang L, Zhao Y, Hua T. Abnormalities of maternal thyroid function  
437 during pregnancy affect neuropsychological development of their children at 25-30 months.  
438 *Clinical Endocrinology (Oxf)* 2010; 72:825-829
- 439 **5.** Su PY, Huang K, Hao JH, Xu YQ, Yan SQ, Li T, Xu YH, Tao FB. Maternal thyroid function in the  
440 first twenty weeks of pregnancy and subsequent fetal and infant development: A  
441 prospective population- based cohort study in China. *Journal of Clinical Endocrinology and*  
442 *Metabolism* 2011; 96:3234-3241
- 443 **6.** Klein RZ, Sargent JD, Larsen PR, Waisbren SE, Haddow JE, Mitchell ML. Relation of severity of  
444 maternal hypothyroidism to cognitive development of offspring. *Journal of Medical*  
445 *Screening* 2001; 8:18-20
- 446 **7.** Ghassabian A, El Marroun H, Peeters RP, Jaddoe VW, Hofman A, Verhulst FC, Tiemeier H,  
447 White T. Downstream effects of maternal hypothyroxinemia in early pregnancy: Nonverbal  
448 IQ and brain morphology in school-age children. *Journal of Clinical Endocrinology and*  
449 *Metabolism* 2014; 99:2383-2390
- 450 **8.** Henrichs J, Bongers-Schokking JJ, Schenk JJ, Ghassabian A, Schmidt HG, Visser TJ, Hooijkaas  
451 H, De Muinck Keizer-Schrama SMPF, Hofman A, Jaddoe VVW, Visser W, Steegers EAP,

- 452 Verhulst FC, De Rijke YB, Tiemeier H. Maternal thyroid function during early pregnancy and  
453 cognitive functioning in early childhood: The generation R study. *Journal of Clinical*  
454 *Endocrinology and Metabolism* 2010; 95:4227-4234
- 455 9. Suárez-Rodríguez M, Azcona-San Julián C, Alzina de Aguilar V. Hypothyroxinemia during  
456 pregnancy: The effect on neurodevelopment in the child. *International Journal of*  
457 *Developmental Neuroscience* 2012; 30:435-438
- 458 10. Pop VJ, Brouwers EP, Vader HL, Vulmsa T, Van Baar AL, De Vijlder JJ. Maternal  
459 hypothyroxinaemia during early pregnancy and subsequent child development: A 3-year  
460 follow-up study. *Clinical Endocrinology* 2003; 59:282-288
- 461 11. Berbel P, Mestre JL, Santamaría A, Palazón I, Franco A, Graells M, González-Torga A, de  
462 Escobar GM. Delayed neurobehavioral development in children born to pregnant women  
463 with mild hypothyroxinemia during the first month of gestation: the importance of early  
464 iodine supplementation. *Thyroid* 2009; 19:511-519
- 465 12. Lazarus JH, Bestwick JP, Channon S, Paradise R, Maina A, Rees R, Chiusano E, John R,  
466 Guaraldo V, George LM, Perona M, Dall'Amico D, Parkes AB, Joomun M, Wald NJ. Antenatal  
467 thyroid screening and childhood cognitive function. *New England Journal of Medicine* 2012;  
468 366:493-501
- 469 13. Casey BM, Thom EA, Peaceman AM, Varner MW, Sorokin Y, Hirtz DG, Reddy UM, Wapner RJ,  
470 Thorp Jr JM, Saade G. Treatment of Subclinical Hypothyroidism or Hypothyroxinemia in  
471 Pregnancy. *New England Journal of Medicine* 2017; 376:815-825
- 472 14. Hales C, Taylor P, Channon S, Paradise R, McEwan K, Zhang L, Gyedu M, Bakhsh A, Okosieme  
473 O, I IM, Draman M, Gregory J, Dayan C, Lazarus J, Rees D, Ludgate M. Controlled Antenatal  
474 Thyroid Screening II: effect of treating maternal sub-optimal thyroid function on child  
475 cognition *The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism* 2018; 103:1-9
- 476 15. Modesto T, Tiemeier H, Peeters RP, Jaddoe VV, Hofman A, Verhulst FC, Ghasabian A.  
477 Maternal mild thyroid hormone insufficiency in early pregnancy and attention-  
478 deficit/hyperactivity disorder symptoms in children. *JAMA Pediatrics* 2015; 169:838-845
- 479 16. Pääkilä F, Männistö T, Pouta A, Hartikainen AL, Ruokonen A, Surcel HM, Bloigu A, Väärasmäki  
480 M, Järvelin MR, Moilanen I, Suvanto E. The impact of gestational thyroid hormone  
481 concentrations on ADHD symptoms of the child. *Journal of Clinical Endocrinology and*  
482 *Metabolism* 2014; 99:E1-E8
- 483 17. Ghasabian A, Bongers-Schokking JJ, Henrichs J, Jaddoe VWV, Visser TJ, Visser W, de Muinck  
484 Keizer-Schrama SMPF, Hooijkaas H, Steegers EAP, Hofman A, Verhulst FC, van der Ende J, de  
485 Rijke YB, Tiemeier H. Maternal thyroid function during pregnancy and behavioral problems  
486 in the offspring: the generation R study. *Pediatric Research* 2011; 69:454-459
- 487 18. Vermiglio F, Lo Presti VP, Moleti M, Sidoti M, Tortorella G, Scaffidi G, Castagna MG, Mattina  
488 F, Violi MA, Crisa A. Attention deficit and hyperactivity disorders in the offspring of mothers  
489 exposed to mild-moderate iodine deficiency: a possible novel iodine deficiency disorder in  
490 developed countries. *The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism* 2004; 89:6054-  
491 6060
- 492 19. Oostenbroek, W. MH, Kersten RHJ, Tros B, Kunst AE, Vrijkotte TGM, Finken MJJ. Maternal  
493 hypothyroxinaemia in early pregnancy and problem behavior in 5 year-old offspring.  
494 *PSYCHONEUROENDOCRINOLOGY* 2017; 81:29-35
- 495 20. Andersen SL, Laurberg P, Wu CS, Olsen J. Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder and autism  
496 spectrum disorder in children born to mothers with thyroid dysfunction: A Danish  
497 nationwide cohort study. *BJOG: An International Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology*  
498 2014; 121:1365-1374
- 499 21. Román GC, Ghasabian A, Bongers-Schokking JJ, Jaddoe VWV, Hofman A, Rijke YB, Verhulst  
500 FC, Tiemeier H. Association of gestational maternal hypothyroxinemia and increased autism  
501 risk. *Annals of neurology* 2013; 74:733-742

- 502 **22.** Ghassabian A, Bongers-Schokking JJ, De Rijke YB, Van Mil N, Jaddoe VWV, De Muinck Keizer-  
503 Schrama SMPF, Hooijkaas H, Hofman A, Visser W, Roman GC, Visser TJ, Verhulst FC, Tiemeier  
504 H. Maternal thyroid autoimmunity during pregnancy and the risk of attention  
505 deficit/hyperactivity problems in children: The generation r study. *Thyroid* 2012; 22:178-186
- 506 **23.** Brown AS, Surcel HM, Hinkka-Yli-Salomäki S, Cheslack-Postava K, Bao Y, Sourander A.  
507 Maternal thyroid autoantibody and elevated risk of autism in a national birth cohort.  
508 *Progress in Neuro-Psychopharmacology and Biological Psychiatry* 2015; 57:86-92
- 509 **24.** Croen LA, Grether JK, Yoshida CK, Odouli R, Van de Water J. Maternal autoimmune diseases,  
510 asthma and allergies, and childhood autism spectrum disorders: a case-control study.  
511 *Archives of pediatrics & adolescent medicine* 2005; 159:151-157
- 512 **25.** Yau VM, Lutsky M, Yoshida CK, Lasley B, Kharrazi M, Windham G, Gee N, Croen LA. Prenatal  
513 and Neonatal Thyroid Stimulating Hormone Levels and Autism Spectrum Disorders. *Journal*  
514 *of Autism and Developmental Disorders* 2014;
- 515 **26.** Korevaar T, Muetzel R, Medici M, Chaker L, Jaddoe VWV, de Rijke YB, Steegers EAP, Visser TJ,  
516 White T, Tiemeier H. Association of maternal thyroid function during early pregnancy with  
517 offspring IQ and brain morphology in childhood: a population-based prospective cohort  
518 study. *The Lancet Diabetes & Endocrinology* 2016; 4:35-43
- 519 **27.** Spyridoula Maraka RM, Rozalina G McCoy , Xiaoxi Yao ,, Lindsey R Sangaralingham NMS,  
520 Derek T O’Keeffe , Ana, E Espinosa De Ycaza RR-G, Charles C Coddington III, Marius N Stan,,  
521 Juan P Brito VMM. Thyroid hormone treatment among pregnant women with subclinical  
522 hypothyroidism: US national assessment. *British Medical Journal* 2017; 356
- 523 **28.** Hales C, Channon S, Taylor PN, Draman MS, Muller I, Lazarus J, Paradise R, Rees A, Shillabeer  
524 D, Gregory JW. The second wave of the Controlled Antenatal Thyroid Screening (CATS II)  
525 study: the cognitive assessment protocol. *BMC Endocrine Disorders* 2014; 14:95
- 526 **29.** Goodman R. The Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire: a research note. *Journal of child*  
527 *psychology and psychiatry* 1997; 38:581-586
- 528 **30.** Thapar A, Harrington R, Ross K, McGuffin P. Does the definition of ADHD affect heritability?  
529 *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry* 2000; 39:1528-1536
- 530 **31.** Rutter M, Bailey A, Lord C. The social communication questionnaire: Manual. Los Angeles,  
531 USA: Western Psychological Services.
- 532 **32.** Goodman R. Psychometric properties of the strengths and difficulties questionnaire. *Journal*  
533 *of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry* 2001; 40:1337-1345
- 534 **33.** Muris P, Meesters C, van den Berg F. The strengths and difficulties questionnaire (SDQ).  
535 *European child & adolescent psychiatry* 2003; 12:1-8
- 536 **34.** Palmieri PA, Smith GC. Examining the structural validity of the Strengths and Difficulties  
537 Questionnaire (SDQ) in a US sample of custodial grandmothers. *Psychological assessment*  
538 2007; 19:189
- 539 **35.** Woerner W, Fleitlich-Bilyk B, Martinussen R, Fletcher J, Cucchiaro G, Dalgalarondo P, Lui M,  
540 Tannock R. The Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire overseas: evaluations and  
541 applications of the SDQ beyond Europe. *European Child & Adolescent Psychiatry* 2004;  
542 13:ii47-ii54
- 543 **36.** Wei T, Chesnut SR, Barnard-Brak L, Richman D. Psychometric Analysis of the Social  
544 Communication Questionnaire Using an Item-Response Theory Framework: Implications for  
545 the Use of the Lifetime and Current Forms. *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral*  
546 *Assessment* 2014; 37:469-480
- 547 **37.** Wilkinson L. A best practice guide to assessment and intervention for autism and Asperger  
548 syndrome in schools. London: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.
- 549 **38.** Eaves LC, Wingert HD, Ho HH, Mickelson ECR. Screening for autism spectrum disorders with  
550 the social communication questionnaire. *Journal of Developmental & Behavioral Pediatrics*  
551 2006; 27:S95-S103

- 552 **39.** Skogli EW, Teicher MH, Andersen PN, Hovik KT, Øie M. ADHD in girls and boys - gender  
553 differences in co-existing symptoms and executive function measures. *BMC Psychiatry* 2013;  
554 13
- 555 **40.** Halladay AK, Bishop S, Constantino JN, Daniels AM, Koenig K, Palmer K, Messinger D,  
556 Pelphrey K, Sanders SJ, Singer AT, Taylor JL, Szatmari P. Sex and gender differences in autism  
557 spectrum disorder: Summarizing evidence gaps and identifying emerging areas of priority.  
558 *Molecular Autism* 2015; 6
- 559 **41.** Zwirs B, Burger H, Schulpen T, Vermulst AA, HiraSing RA, Buitelaar J. Teacher ratings of  
560 children's behavior problems and functional impairment across gender and ethnicity:  
561 Construct equivalence of the strengths and difficulties questionnaire. *Journal of Cross-*  
562 *Cultural Psychology* 2011; 42:466-481
- 563 **42.** Orlebeke JF, Knol DL, Boomsma DI, Verhulst FC. Frequency of parental report of problem  
564 behavior in children decreases with increasing maternal age at delivery. *Psychological*  
565 *Reports* 1998; 82:395-404
- 566 **43.** Durkin MS, Maenner MJ, Newschaffer CJ, Lee L, Cunniff CM, Daniels JL, Kirby RS, Leavitt L,  
567 Miller L, Zahorodny W. Advanced parental age and the risk of autism spectrum disorder.  
568 *American Journal of Epidemiology* 2008; 168:1268-1276
- 569 **44.** Heikkilä K, Sacker A, Kelly Y, Renfrew MJ, Quigley MA. Breast feeding and child behaviour in  
570 the millennium cohort study. *Archives of Disease in Childhood* 2011; 96:635-642
- 571 **45.** Stadler DD, Musser ED, Holton KF, Shannon J, Nigg JT. Recalled Initiation and Duration of  
572 Maternal Breastfeeding Among Children with and Without ADHD in a Well Characterized  
573 Case–Control Sample. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology* 2015; 8:1-9
- 574 **46.** Al-Farsi YM, Al-Sharbaty MM, Waly MI, Al-Farsi OA, Al-Shafae MA, Al-Khaduri MM, Trivedi  
575 MS, Deth RC. Effect of suboptimal breast-feeding on occurrence of autism: A case-control  
576 study. *Nutrition* 2012; 28:e27-e32
- 577 **47.** Piotrowska PJ, Stride CB, Croft SE, Rowe R. Socioeconomic status and antisocial behaviour  
578 among children and adolescents: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Clinical Psychology*  
579 *Review* 2015; 35:47-55
- 580 **48.** Bennett DA. How can I deal with missing data in my study? *Australian and New Zealand*  
581 *Journal of Public Health* 2001; 25:464-469
- 582 **49.** Downey RG, King CV. Missing data in Likert ratings: A comparison of replacement methods.  
583 *The Journal of general psychology* 1998; 125:175-191
- 584 **50.** Roth PL. Missing data: A conceptual review for applied psychologists. *Personnel psychology*  
585 1994; 47:537-560
- 586 **51.** Peyre H, Leplège A, Coste J. Missing data methods for dealing with missing items in quality of  
587 life questionnaires. A comparison by simulation of personal mean score, full information  
588 maximum likelihood, multiple imputation, and hot deck techniques applied to the SF-36 in  
589 the French 2003 decennial health survey. *Quality of Life Research* 2011; 20:287-300
- 590 **52.** Chandler S, Charman T, Baird G, Simonoff E, Loucas T, Meldrum D, Scott M, Pickles A.  
591 Validation of the social communication questionnaire in a population cohort of children with  
592 autism spectrum disorders. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent*  
593 *Psychiatry* 2007; 46:1324-1332
- 594 **53.** Ludgate M. Supplemental data. 2019; supplemental figures and tables. Available at:  
595 <https://figshare.com/s/e2a9d93e558716d58733>
- 596 **54.** Stagnaro-Green A, Abalovich M, Alexander E, Azizi F, Mestman J, Negro R, Nixon A, Pearce  
597 EN, Soldin OP, Sullivan S, W W. Guidelines of the American Thyroid Association for the  
598 diagnosis and management of thyroid disease during pregnancy and postpartum. *Thyroid*  
599 2011; 21:1081-1125
- 600 **55.** Alexander EK, Pearce EN, Brent GA, Brown RS, Chen H, Dosiou C, Grobman W, Laurberg P,  
601 LazarusJH, Mandel SJ, Peeters R, S. S. Guidelines of the American Thyroid Association for the

602           Diagnosis and Management of Thyroid   Disease during Pregnancy and the Postpartum  
603           Thyroid 2017; 27:315-389

604   **56.**     Hauser P, Soler R, Brucker-Davis F, Weintraub BD. Thyroid hormones correlate with  
605           symptoms of hyperactivity but not inattention in attention deficit hyperactivity disorder.  
606           Psychoneuroendocrinology 1997; 22:107-114

607   **57.**     Lazarus J, Brown RS, Daumerie C, Hubalewska-Dydejczyk A, Negro R, Vaidya B. 2014  
608           European Thyroid Association guidelines for the management of subclinical hypothyroidism  
609           in pregnancy and in children. European thyroid journal 2014; 3:76-94

610   **58.**     Korevaar TI, Medici M, de Rijke YB, Visser W, de Muinck Keizer-Schrama SM, Jaddoe VW,  
611           Hofman A, Ross HA, Visser WE, Hooijkaas H. Ethnic differences in maternal thyroid  
612           parameters during pregnancy: the Generation R study. The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology  
613           & Metabolism 2013; 98:3678-3686

614   **59.**     De Groot L, Abalovich M, Alexander EK, Amino N, Barbour L, Cobin RH, Eastman CJ, Lazarus  
615           JH, Luton D, Mandel SJ. Management of thyroid dysfunction during pregnancy and  
616           postpartum: an Endocrine Society clinical practice guideline. The Journal of Clinical  
617           Endocrinology & Metabolism 2012; 97:2543-2565

618   **60.**     National, Institute, Health, Care, Excellence. Hypothyroidism; Scenario: Preconception or  
619           pregnant. 2016; <http://cks.nice.org.uk/hypothyroidism#!scenario:3>. Accessed 12.07, 2016.

620

## 621   **LEGENDS FOR FIGURES AND TABLES**

622   Figure 1: Flow diagram of the CATS studies showing UK participants only.

623   Figure 2: Correlations between elements of child behaviour and FT4 levels at  
624   recruitment and following several weeks of thyroxine treatment.

625   Table 1: Characteristics of the cohort.

626   Table 2: Group total scores for the questionnaires

627   Table 3: High questionnaire scores from the normal gestational thyroid function  
628   (GTF), treated, and untreated suboptimal GTF groups

629

## SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

### Characteristics of the follow-on cohort

The SGTF groups were compared between first participation of offspring, and at follow-up (current). The sample appeared mostly similar between the two time points (table 1). Those in the treated SGTF group who continued participation into the follow-up of CATS had significantly raised TSH values. A potential reason for this could have been that those who felt most benefit from treatment, continued to aid the study. The mothers in the untreated SGTF group who participated in the follow-up were significantly older at time of pregnancy consent compared to the original CATS sample, this was by an age increase of 1.1 years.

**Table 1 | Comparison of study population to original cohort. Figures are mean values (standard deviation). P for difference by t-test unless stated otherwise.**

Characteristics	Treated SGTF		P for difference	Untreated SGTF		P for difference
	CATS N=303	Follow-up N= 125		CATS N=306	Follow-up N=104	
at time of study entry						
Male children (%)	54.1	52.0	0.921*	51.3	48.1	0.569
Social deprivation**	3 IQR=2-5 (mean=3.3)	4 IQR=3-5 (mean=3.8)	0.358*	3 IQR=2-5 (mean=3.3)	4 IQR=2-5 (mean=3.4)	0.981
Mother age	29.8 (5.6)	30.2 (5.1)	0.447	29.8 (5.4)	30.9 (4.8)	0.050 (95% CI - 0.002, 2.364)
Maternal TSH	3.6 IQR=1.5-4.7	4.1 IQR=1.9- 5.1	0.026†	3.4 IQR=1.2-4.1	3.6 IQR=1.1-4.5	0.372†
Maternal FT4	11.8 (1.8)	12.0 (1.9)	0.262	12.0 (1.9)	11.7 (1.9)	0.310

\*Significance tested by chi square.

\*\*The social deprivation scores used were calculated from postcodes at time of pregnancy, rather than the participants' current deprivation scores as used in the main analysis.

†Significance for TSH at consent test by Mann Whitney.

SGTF=suboptimal gestational thyroid function, CATS=controlled antenatal thyroid screening, TSH=thyroid stimulating hormone, FT4= free thyroxine

### Thyroid function tests during pregnancy of the treated suboptimal gestational thyroid function group

Thyroid function tests in pregnancy in the treated SGTF group were analysed by repeated measures ANOVAs (FT4) and Friedman's test (TSH).

Mean (SD) FT4 levels at time of consent, at 20 weeks' gestation, and 30 weeks' gestation were 12.0pmol/L (1.91), 16.2pmol/L (2.89), and 15.5pmol/L (2.47), respectively). Maternal FT4 was different at the multivariate level throughout pregnancy for the treated SGTF group (Pillai's Trace=0.687,  $F(2,116)=127.93$ ,  $P=0.001$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.687$ ). Pairwise comparisons that were Bonferroni corrected, identified that at time of consent FT4 was significantly lower than at 20 weeks gestation ( $P=0.001$ , -5.038 to -3.627), and 30 weeks gestation ( $P=0.001$ , -4.151 to -2.929). FT4 at 20 weeks gestation was significantly higher than at 30 weeks gestation ( $P=0.003$ , 0.231 to 1.353).

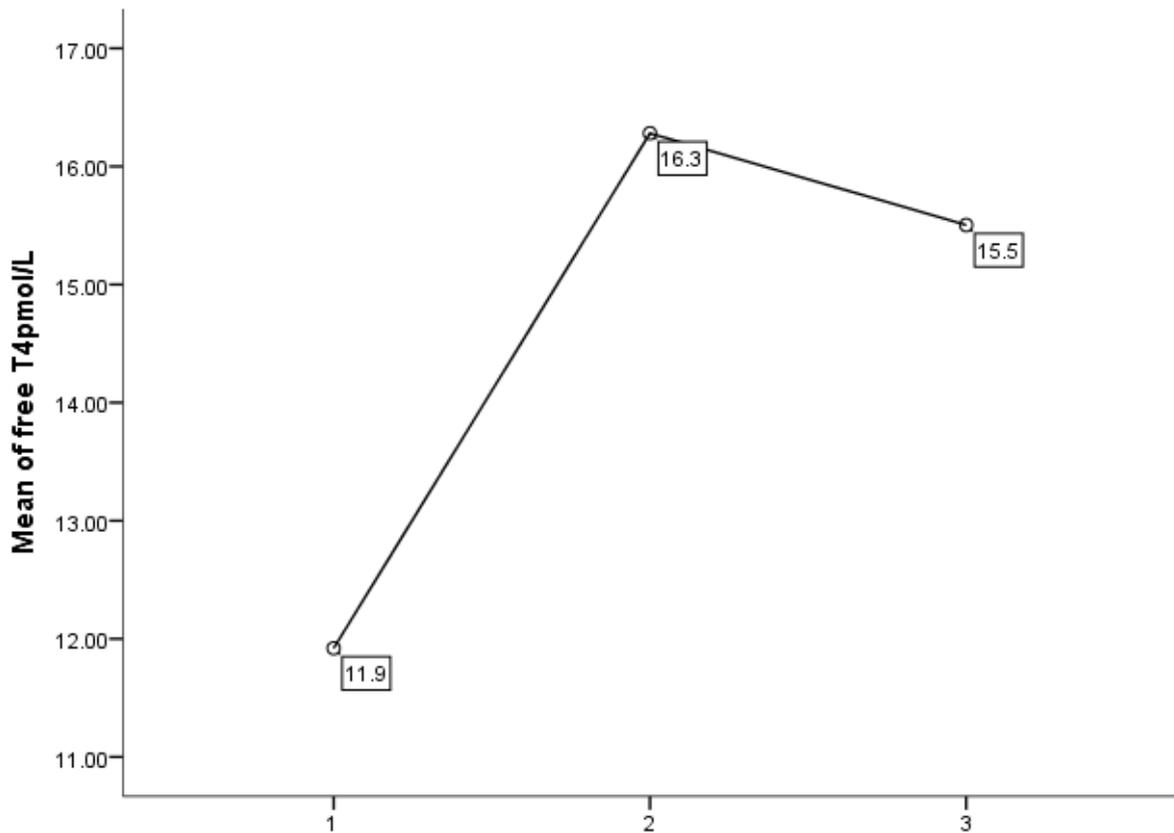


Fig 1|Mean free thyroxine (T4) values of the treated suboptimal gestational thyroid function group taken at: (1) consent into the Controlled Antenatal Thyroid Screening study (median 12 weeks 3 days gestation), (2) 20 weeks (0 days) gestation, and (3) 30 weeks (1 day) gestation. T4 was measured in pmol/L.

There was a statistically significant difference in TSH levels throughout the pregnancies of those from the treated SGTF group,  $\chi^2(2)=173.207$ ,  $P=0.001$ . Post hoc analysis with Wilcoxon signed-rank tests was conducted with a Bonferroni correction applied, resulting in a significance level at  $P<0.017$ . Median (IQR) TSH levels at time of consent, 20 weeks gestation, and 30 weeks gestation were 4.1mIU/L (1.9 to 5.1), 0.3mIU/L (0.1 to 1.0), and 0.3mIU/L (0.03 to 0.9), respectively. There was a significant difference between TSH at time of consent and at 20 weeks gestation ( $Z=-9.543$ ,  $P=0.001$ ), as well as at 30 weeks gestation ( $Z=-9.478$ ,  $P=0.001$ ). There was also a significant difference between TSH at 20 weeks gestation and 30 weeks gestation ( $Z=-3.109$ ,  $P=0.002$ ), even though there was only a slight drop in the median value.

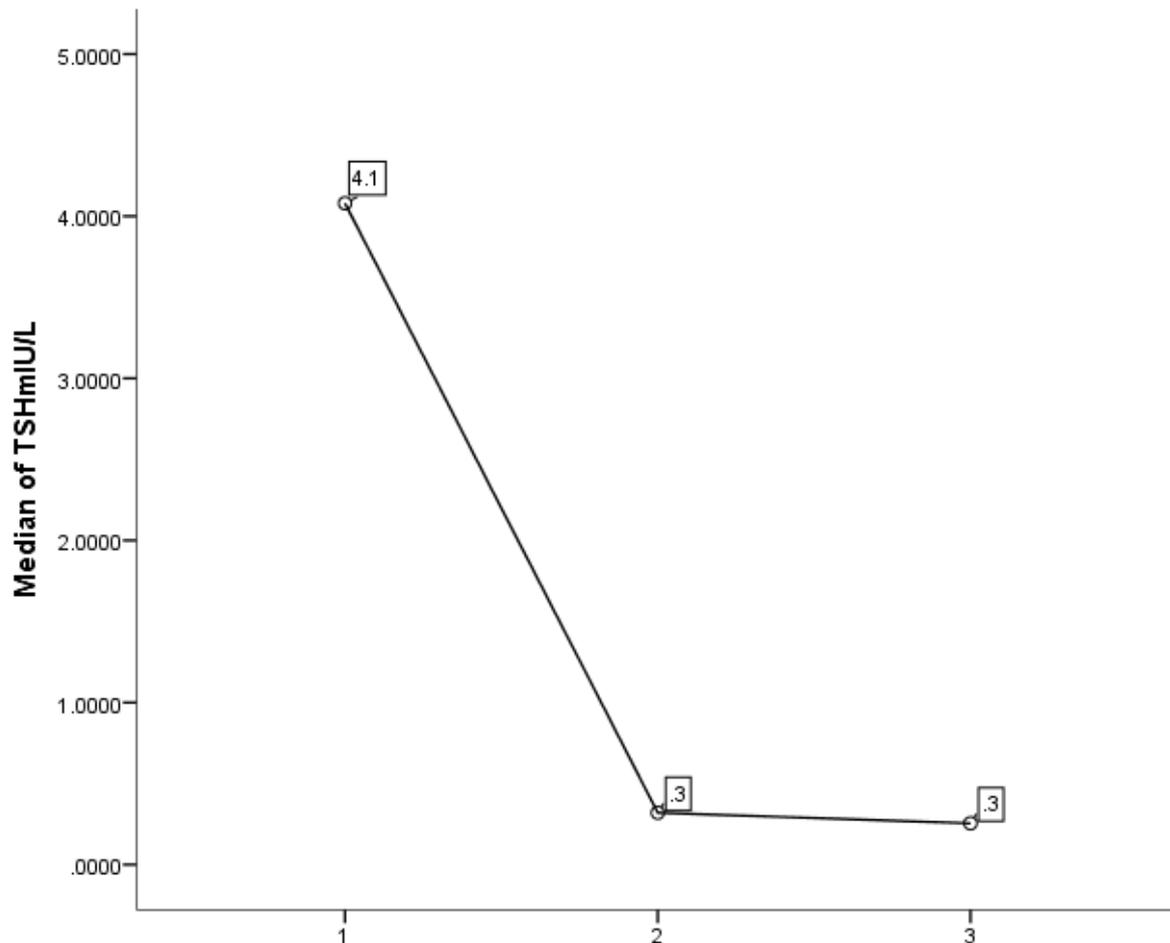


Figure 2 |Median thyroid stimulating hormone (TSH) values of the treated suboptimal gestational thyroid function group taken at: (1) consent into the Controlled Antenatal Thyroid Screening study (median 12 weeks 3 days gestation), (2) 20 weeks (0 days) gestation, and (3) 30 weeks (1 day) gestation. TSH was measured in mIU/L.

### Supplementary Statistics

All analyses in this section deal with continuous data; therefore are MANCOVAs and include Bonferroni corrections where applicable. The reported statistical test used in the MANCOVAs was Pillai's trace, V. Every analysis was adjusted for the same covariates as in the main article (child gender, mother age at time of consent, whether the mother breastfed for over one month, and social deprivation). Analyses followed the same pattern, three CATS groups compared for the three total questionnaire scores, then a secondary MANCOVA exploring all questionnaire domains with the treated SGTF split into optimal and over-treatment. Exploration of specific maternal FT4 ranges only included the latter MANCOVAs.

### Subclinical hypothyroidism

Women identified as having subclinical hypothyroidism during their pregnancies, had a TSH >97.5<sup>th</sup> and FT4 >2.5<sup>th</sup> percentiles at time of consent. In the treated SGTF group, 57.26% (n=67) were in this category, and 49.00% (n=49) of the untreated SGTF group. There was no difference between the normal GTF, treated, and untreated subclinical hypothyroid groups for total questionnaire scores (P=0.909). When exploring the effect of treatment to the 17.7pmol/L threshold, there was also no difference in mean scores (P=0.128). See table 2 for descriptive data.

**Table 2 | Mean scores for the subclinical hypothyroid and normal GTF groups. Figures are mean values (standard deviation).**

Questionnaire domain	Normal GTF N=237	Subclinical hypothyroidism			
		Treated N=67	Untreated N=49	Optimally treated N=41	Over-treated N=26
<b>Strengths and difficulties questionnaire</b>					
Emotion	2.32 (2.24)		2.32 (2.18)	2.22 (1.98)	2.50 (1.73)
Conduct	1.21 (1.50)		1.33 (1.39)	1.44 (1.83)	1.92 (1.83)
Hyperactivity	3.09 (2.52)		3.47 (2.61)	3.10 (2.91)	4.23 (2.55)
Peer problems	1.58 (1.88)		1.10 (1.29)	1.51 (1.90)	1.00 (1.02)
Total difficulties	8.20 (6.01)	8.81 (5.71)	8.22 (5.41)	8.27 (6.13)	9.65 (4.97)
Prosocial	8.78 (1.78)		8.47 (2.09)	8.90 (1.71)	8.69 (1.93)
<b>Child ADHD questionnaire</b>					
Inattention	6.07 (5.67)		5.75 (4.94)	5.88 (5.84)	7.62 (5.73)
Overactivity	2.05 (2.29)		2.37 (2.42)	2.41 (2.88)	3.58 (3.14)
Impulsivity	3.13 (2.79)		3.34 (2.50)	3.68 (3.55)	4.38 (3.28)
Total	11.25 (9.53)	13.37 (11.20)	11.46 (8.52)	11.98 (11.45)	15.58 (10.63)
Social communication questionnaire	4.28 (3.70)	4.59 (4.14)	3.95 (2.96)	4.05 (3.73)	5.43 (4.65)

SGTF=suboptimal gestational thyroid function, ADHD=attention deficit hyperactivity disorder

### Maternal hypothyroxinemia

Women were classified as the having hypothyroxinemia during their pregnancies if their FT4 at consent was <2.5<sup>th</sup> and their TSH was <97.5<sup>th</sup> percentiles. There were 30.77% (n=36) of the treated SGTF, and 44.00% (n=44) of the untreated SGTF group in this category. Total questionnaire scores were not significantly different between the normal GTF, treated and untreated hypothyroxinaemia groups P=0.207, see table 3 for scores). There was also no difference when treatment was explored between the groups (P=0.105).

**Table 3 | Mean questionnaire scores for the hypothyroxinemic and normal GTF groups. Figures are mean values (standard deviation).**

Questionnaire domain	Normal GTF N=237	Hypothyroxinemic			
		Treated N=36	Untreated N=44	Optimally treated N=26	Over-treated N=10
<b>Strengths and difficulties questionnaire</b>					
Emotion	2.32 (2.24)		2.11 (1.94)	2.41 (2.10)	2.90 (2.33)
Conduct	1.21 (1.50)		1.05 (1.40)	1.50 (1.73)	1.70 (1.83)
Hyperactivity	3.09 (2.52)		3.30 (2.79)	3.69 (2.81)	4.30 (4.06)
Peer problems	1.58 (1.88)		1.20 (1.32)	1.31 (1.87)	1.00 (1.33)
Total difficulties	8.20 (6.01)	9.18 (7.17)	7.66 (5.40)	8.91 (6.83)	9.90 (8.35)
Prosocial	8.78 (1.78)		9.02 (1.25)	8.73 (1.93)	9.40 (1.07)
<b>Child ADHD questionnaire</b>					
Inattention	6.07 (5.67)		4.79 (4.63)	6.75 (6.32)	6.90 (7.84)
Overactivity	2.05 (2.29)		2.38 (2.82)	2.31 (2.62)	3.40 (4.14)
Impulsivity	3.13 (2.79)		2.93 (3.04)	3.42 (2.87)	4.10 (4.04)
Total	11.25 (9.53)	13.02 (12.29)	10.10 (9.25)	12.48 (10.99)	14.40 (15.78)
Social communication questionnaire	4.28 (3.70)	5.98 (5.21)	4.26 (2.89)	6.47 (5.44)	4.70 (4.55)

SGTF=suboptimal gestational thyroid function, ADHD=attention deficit hyperactivity disorder

### Overt hypothyroid groups

As the CATS study classified women with FT4 <2.5<sup>th</sup> and/or TSH >97.5<sup>th</sup> percentiles for a positive result of SGTF, the secondary analysis examined questionnaire scores by women who had overt hypothyroidism (OH, FT4 <2.5<sup>th</sup> and TSH >97.5<sup>th</sup>). OH, though uncommon during pregnancy (3 in 1000(1)), is the most severe underactive thyroid function. There were 8.55% (n=10) of the treated SGTF group, and 9.00% (n=9) of the untreated SGTF group classified as having OH. Comparing these groups with the normal GTF for total

questionnaire scores identified a significant difference at the multivariate level ( $V=0.063$ ,  $F(6,496)=2.669$ ,  $P=0.015$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.031$ ), with a difference found for ADHD Total scores ( $F(2,249)=4.680$ ,  $P=0.010$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.036$ ). The untreated OH group had significantly higher scores compared to the normal GTF for ADHD Total ( $P=0.022$  (0.945, 16.876)).

When exploring the effect of treatment to the 17.7pmol/L threshold for maternal FT4, there was a sustained difference at the multivariate level ( $V=0.203$ ,  $F(27,726)=1.948$ ,  $P=0.003$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.068$ ). At the univariate level SDQ Conduct ( $F(3,248)=4.402$ ,  $P=0.005$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.051$ ), ADHD Hyperactivity ( $F(3,248)=5.665$ ,  $P=0.001$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.064$ ), and ADHD Total ( $F(3,248)=3.487$ ,  $P=0.016$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.040$ ) were significantly different. The over-treated OH group had significantly higher scores for SDQ Conduct ( $P=0.038$  (0.072, 4.273) and ADHD Hyperactivity ( $P=0.020$  (0.357, 6.597) compared to the normal GTF. Again, for ADHD Total, the untreated OH had significantly higher scores than the normal GTF ( $P=0.045$  (0.117, 7.693)).

Children born to mothers who were untreated for OH in pregnancy, had higher scores for the Child ADHD Questionnaire, optimal treatment improved this with some means moving closer to those of the normal GTF (table 4). Over-treatment for OH had a significant effect here on domains found with the entire SGTF sample; SDQ Conduct and ADHD Hyperactivity. Caution is advised as the sample sizes are small for OH.

**Table 4 | Questionnaire scores for the normal gestational thyroid function (GTF) group, and treated and untreated overt hypothyroid group. Figures are mean values (standard deviation).**

Questionnaire domain	Normal GTF N=237	Treated overt hypothyroid N=10	Untreated overt hypothyroid N=9	Optimally treated N=6	Over-treated N=4
<b>Strengths and difficulties questionnaire</b>					
Emotion	2.32 (2.24)		2.78 (1.64)	2.67 (2.94)	3.25 (3.30)
Conduct	1.21 (1.50)		2.44 (2.07)	0.83 (0.98)	3.25* (2.99)
Hyperactivity	3.09 (2.52)		5.11 (3.37)	4.33 (2.16)	4.25 (4.35)
Peer problems	1.58 (1.88)		1.33 (1.22)	1.33 (1.97)	0.50 (1.00)
Total difficulties	8.20 (6.01)	10.00 (8.51)	11.67 (7.16)	9.17 (7.08)	11.25 (11.41)
Prosocial	8.78 (1.78)		8.44 (1.33)	9.17 (1.33)	8.50 (3.00)
Inattention	6.07 (5.67)		11.44 (6.77)	7.32 (5.44)	9.25 (9.98)
Hyperactivity	2.05 (2.29)		4.11 (3.48)	4.00 (2.61)	5.25* (4.19)
Impulsivity	3.13 (2.79)		5.22 (3.31)	2.17 (1.83)	5.25 (4.50)
Total	11.25 (9.53)	15.99 (12.67)	20.78* (12.10)	13.48 (8.29)	19.75 (18.32)
<b>Social communication questionnaire</b>					
Social communication	4.28 (3.70)	6.70 (8.08)	4.00 (2.78)	6.17 (5.85)	5.72 (8.21)

\*Significantly higher ( $P<0.05$ ) group results (from columns left to right)  
 SGTF=suboptimal gestational thyroid function, ADHD=attention deficit hyperactivity disorder  
 Untreated overt hypothyroid (1) Child ADHD questionnaire (ADHD) Inattention, higher than Normal GTF, (2) ADHD Total, higher than Normal GTF, (3) Strengths and difficulties questionnaire Conduct, higher than Normal GTF.  
 Treated overt hypothyroid ADHD Hyperactivity and SDQ Conduct, higher than Normal GTF. Untreated overt hypothyroid ADHD Total, higher than Normal GTF.

### Exploratory analysis; treatment by target range

The following analyses explored potential limits of treatment for minimising specific neurodevelopmental symptoms in the child. Analyses were again MANCOVAs with the same four covariate adjustments.

As can be seen in table 5, the means of the treated group decreased with decreasing FT4 threshold values. This confirms the main conclusions from the article that over-treatment could have an impact for the child's neurodevelopment; as well as the threshold of 17.7pmol/L in pregnancy being the most 'detrimental'. As thresholds decreased, interestingly, those who were treated up to the thresholds increased questionnaire scores. This supports a theory of 'U-curved effects'(2); demonstrating that higher and lower values of maternal FT4 can affect the child. A further possible mechanism could be that those born to mothers with the lowest FT4 had more of an effect to the group mean with decreasing groups with lowering FT4 thresholds. SDQ Peer problems being significantly higher in the normal GTF group were repeatedly found compared to above thresholds for maternal FT4. At the whole group level of the treated SGTF, TSH was positively correlated to SDQ Peer problems at 30 weeks' gestation. As the FT4 levels were high, TSH would have been lowering, and supporting the correlation, the lower the TSH level, the lower SDQ Peer problem scores will have been.

### **Over 17pmol/L in pregnancy**

For the first threshold of 17pmol/L (n=53), there was a significant difference between the questionnaire scores at the multivariate level ( $V=0.114$ ,  $F(27,1320)=1.922$ ,  $P=0.003$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.038$ ). Univariate analyses identified difference for SDQ Peer problems ( $F(3,446)=3.942$ ,  $P=0.009$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.026$ ) and ADHD Overactivity ( $F(3,446)=4.229$ ,  $P=0.006$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.028$ ). Bonferroni corrected pairwise comparisons evidenced that the normal GTF had a higher group mean than those born to mothers with FT4 values  $>17\text{pmol/L}$  ( $P=0.040$ , 0.019 to 1.363), but the effect was inversed for ADHD Overactivity ( $P=0.003$ , 0.324 to 2.340).

### **Over 16pmol/L in pregnancy**

The lower threshold 16pmol/L (n=70) also yielded a difference at the multivariate level for questionnaire scores ( $V=0.127$ ,  $F(27,1320)=2.162$ ,  $P=0.001$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.042$ ). The domains with significant differences were, SDQ Peer problems ( $F(3,446)=4.755$ ,  $P=0.003$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.031$ ) and ADHD Overactivity ( $F(3,446)=3.851$ ,  $P=0.010$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.025$ ). Significance persisted following Bonferroni corrections, and akin to FT4 values  $>17\text{pmol/L}$  throughout pregnancy, SDQ Peer problems were higher in the normal GTF compared to those mothers with FT4 values  $>16\text{pmol/L}$  SGTF ( $P=0.015$ , 0.088 to 1.289), with those  $>16\text{pmol/L}$  having higher scores compared to the normal GTF group for ADHD Overactivity ( $P=0.006$ , 0.226 to 2.034).

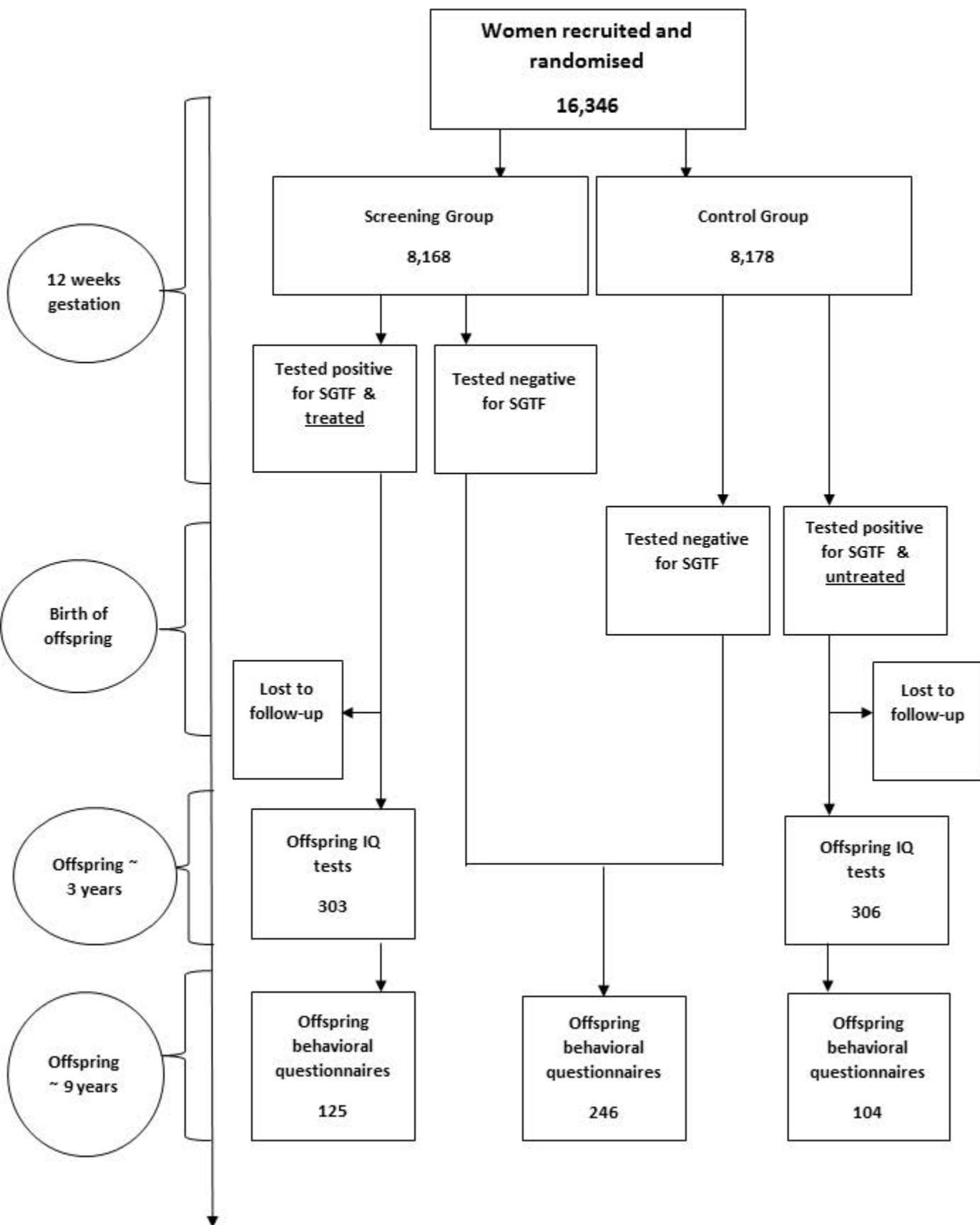
### **Over 15pmol/L in pregnancy**

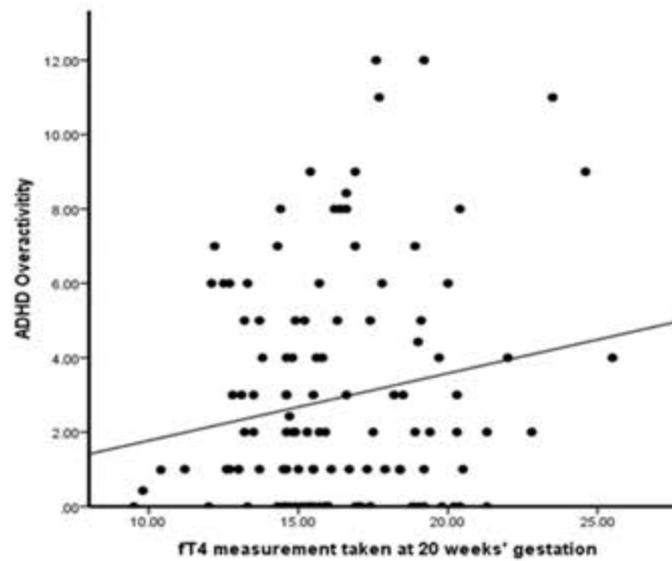
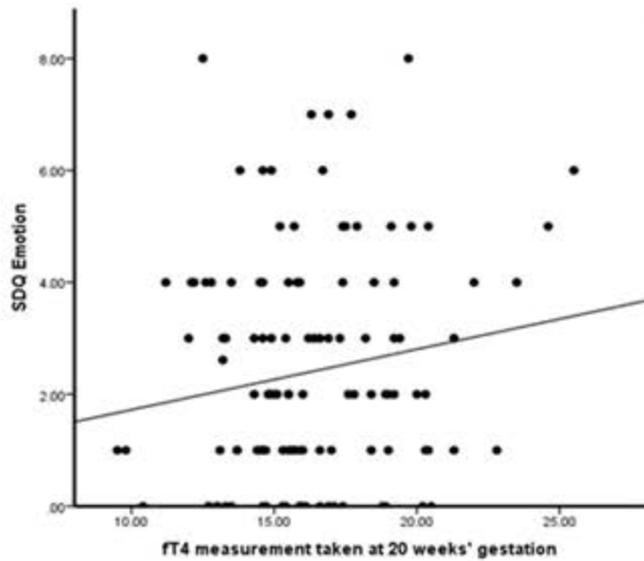
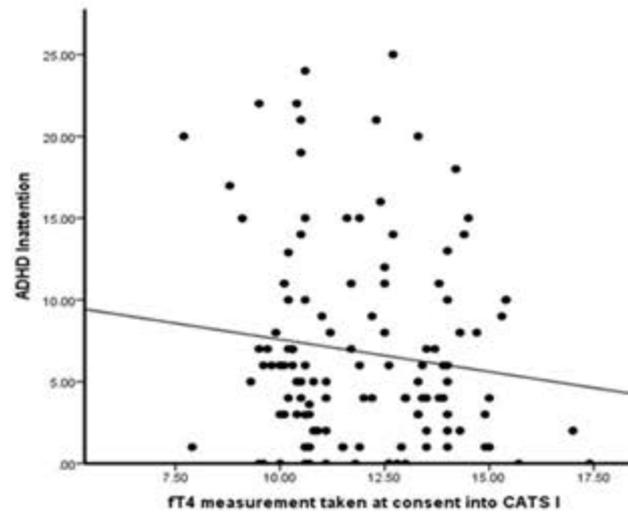
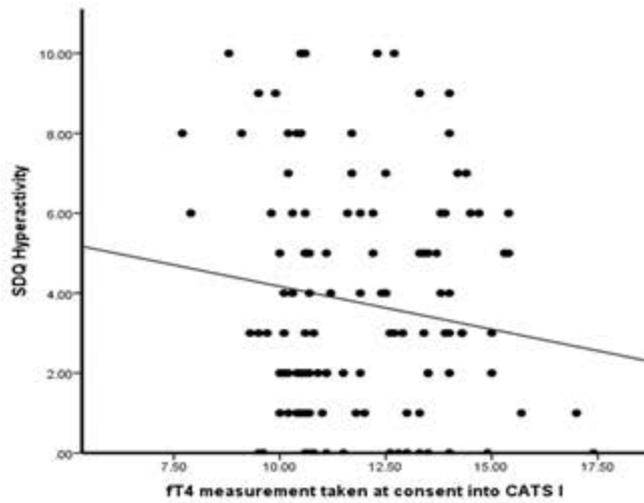
The lowered threshold of 15pmol/L (n=87) was used for the following analysis. The MANCOVA identified a difference between the groups ( $V=0.115$ ,  $F(27,1320)=1.941$ ,  $P=0.003$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.038$ ). Univariate and pairwise comparison analyses identified differences for SDQ Peer problems ( $F(3,446)=5.871$ ,  $P=0.001$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.038$ , normal GTF higher than those with maternal FT4 values  $>15\text{pmol/L}$  SGTF,  $P=0.009$ , 0.113 to 1.220), and SCQ ( $F(3,446)=2.872$ ,  $P=0.036$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.019$ , children born to mothers with FT4  $<14.9\text{pmol/L}$  scored higher than the normal GTF  $P=0.044$ , 0.032 to 4.211).

<b>Table 5  Mean questionnaire scores for thresholds of FT4 in pregnancy. Figures are mean values (standard deviation).</b>								
Questionnaire domain	Normal GTF N=237	Untreated SGTF N=100	Treatment thresholds					
			>17pmol/L N=53	<16.9pmol/L N=64	>16pmol/L N=70	<15.9pmol/L N=47	>15pmol/L N=87	<14.9pmol/L N=30
Strengths and difficulties questionnaire								
Emotion	2.32 (2.24)	2.24 (2.01)	2.58 (1.96)	2.28 (2.13)	2.46 (2.08)	2.35 (2.02)	2.34 (2.02)	2.62 (2.16)
Conduct	1.21 (1.50)	1.27 (1.42)	1.60 (1.84)	1.59 (1.81)	1.43 (1.73)	1.84 (1.93)	1.44 (1.70)	2.03 (2.09)
Hyperactivity	3.09 (2.52)	3.51 (2.74)	3.91 (3.03)	3.48 (2.80)	3.73 (3.06)	3.60 (2.67)	3.61 (3.00)	3.87 (2.62)
Peer problems	1.58 (1.88)	1.16 (1.28)	0.92 (1.03)	1.48 (1.96)	0.91 (1.21)	1.70 (2.02)	0.93 (1.33)	2.10 (2.07)
Total difficulties	8.20 (6.01)	8.18 (5.42)	9.02 (6.15)	8.83 (6.65)	8.53 (6.28)	9.49 (6.61)	8.33 (6.25)	10.62 (6.64)
Prosocial	8.78 (1.78)	8.73 (1.72)	8.89 (1.70)	8.72 (1.81)	9.09 (1.55)	8.47 (2.00)	9.05 (1.52)	8.23 (2.25)
Child ADHD questionnaire								
Inattention	6.07 (5.67)	5.83 (5.25)	7.21 (6.51)	6.24 (5.76)	6.79 (6.44)	6.52 (5.62)	6.34 (6.19)	7.65 (5.83)
Overactivity	2.05 (2.29)	2.53 (2.73)	3.34 (3.45)	2.41 (2.62)	3.17 (3.41)	2.32 (2.35)	2.79 (3.25)	2.93 (2.42)
Impulsivity	3.13 (2.79)	3.32 (2.85)	3.92 (3.67)	3.55 (2.98)	3.91 (3.56)	3.43 (2.89)	3.69 (3.39)	3.80 (3.08)
Total	11.25 (9.53)	11.67 (9.50)	14.47 (12.78)	12.20 (10.30)	13.87 (12.66)	12.27 (9.56)	12.83 (12.03)	14.38 (9.89)
Social communication questionnaire	4.28 (3.70)	4.09 (2.89)	4.84 (5.06)	5.41 (4.81)	4.72 (4.75)	5.80 (5.13)	4.66 (4.82)	6.57 (4.99)

SGTF=suboptimal gestational thyroid function, ADHD=attention deficit hyperactivity disorder

1. Tunbridge W, Evered D, Hall R, Appleton D, Brewis M, Clark F, et al. The spectrum of thyroid disease in a community: the Wickham survey. *Clin Endocrinol.* 1977;7(6):481-93.
2. Korevaar T, Muetzel R, Medici M, Chaker L, Jaddoe VWV, de Rijke YB, et al. Association of maternal thyroid function during early pregnancy with offspring IQ and brain morphology in childhood: a population-based prospective cohort study. *The Lancet Diabetes & Endocrinology.* 2016;4(1):35-43.





**Table 1 | Characteristics of the cohort. Values are means (standard deviations) unless stated otherwise.**

Characteristics	Normal-GTF N=246	Treated SGTF N=125	Untreated SGTF N=104	Normal-GTF vs. Treated SGTF (P)	Normal-GTF vs. Untreated SGTF (P)	Treated SGTF vs Untreated SGTF (P)
TSH at study entry (mIU/L)†	1.2 (0.7-1.8)	4.1 (1.9-5.1)	3.6 (1.1-4..5)	0.001	0.001	0.003
FT4 at study entry (pmol/L)	14.1 (1..7)	12.0 (1.9)	11.7 (1.9)	0.001 (95% CI 1.675 to 2.633)	0.001 (95% CI 1.867 to 2.887)	1.000
Age of mother at study entry (years)	31.7 (5.2)	30.2 (5.1)	30.9 (4.8)	0.025 (0.138, 2.824)	0.588	0.879
Social deprivation† quintile (mean)	4 (3-5) (3.7)	5 (3-5) (3.8)	4 (2-5) (3.4)	0.687	0.491	0.162
Child breastfed for over one month (%)*	65.3	58.9	56.3	0.226	0.113	0.697
Male children (%)	50.0	52.0	48.1	0.716	0.742	0.554
Age of children†	9..8 (9.0-10.3)	9.6 (9.1-9.8)	9..4 (9.0-9..9)	0.003	0.017	0.996

†Median and interquartile ranges presented.

\*missing per group, n=1

Confidence intervals presented for continuous data only. Current free thyroxine reference ranges for adults during pregnancy per trimester are as follows: first trimester 10.5-18.3pmol/L, second trimester 9.5-15.9pmol/L, third trimester 8.6-13.7pmol/L (serum TSH and FT4 were measured with the use of Immunochemiluminescence, ADVIA Centaur, Siemens Healthcare Diagnostics). SGTF= suboptimal gestational thyroid function, TSH=thyroid stimulating hormone, FT4=free thyroxine

**Table 2 | Group total scores for the questionnaires. p**  
**Figures are mean values (standard deviation)**

Questionnaire total scores	Normal-GTF N=237	Treated SGTF N=117	Untreated SGTF N=100	p
Strengths and difficulties questionnaire*	8.20 (6.01)	8.92 (6.40)	8.17 (5.42)	0.53
Child ADHD questionnaire	11.24 (9.53)	13.23 (11.49)	11.67 (9.50)	0.22
Social communication questionnaire	4.28 (3.70)	5.15 (4.91)	4.09 (2.89)	0.08
*Total difficulties score				

**Table 3 | High questionnaire scores from the normal gestational thyroid function (GTF), treated, and untreated suboptimal GTF groups. Figures are numbers (percentages).**

Questionnaire domain	Normal GTF N=237	Treated SGTF N=117	Untreated SGTF N=100	Optimally treated N=77	Over-treated N=40
<b>Strengths and difficulties questionnaire</b>					
<b>Emotion</b>					
High*/very high	39 (16.4)	19 (16.3)	13 (13.0)	11 (14.3)	8 (20.0)
<b>Conduct</b>					
High/very high	20 (8.5)	18 (15.4) <sup>^</sup>	7 (7.0)	9 (11.7)	9 (22.5) <sup>^^^</sup>
<b>Hyperactivity</b>					
High/very high	15 (6.3)	16 (13.7) <sup>^</sup>	10 (10.0)	10 (13.0)	5 (12.5)
<b>Peer problems</b>					
High/very high	39 (16.4)	13 (11.1)	7 (7.0)	12 (15.6)	1 (2.5)
<b>Total difficulties</b>					
High/very high	28 (11.8)	16 (13.7)	8 (8.0)	10 (13.0)	6 (15.0)
<b>Prosocial</b>					
Low/very low	27 (11.4)	13 (11.1)	10 (10.0)	8 (10.4)	5 (12.5)
<b>Child ADHD questionnaire</b>					
<b>Inattention</b>					
>2SD <sup>†</sup>	11 (4.8)	9 (7.8)	3 (3.0)	5 (6.5)	4 (10.0)
<b>Hyperactivity</b>					
> 2SD	9 (3.9)	12 (10.2) <sup>^</sup>	5 (5.0)	5 (6.5)	7 (17.5) <sup>^^</sup>
<b>Impulsivity</b>					
>2SD	6 (2.5)	7 (6.1)	3 (3.0)	3 (3.9)	4 (10.0)
<b>Social communication questionnaire</b>					
Total >15	4 (1.7)	7 (6.0) <sup>^</sup>	1 (1.0)	4 (5.2)	3 (7.5) <sup>^^</sup>

SGTF=suboptimal gestational thyroid function normal-GTF = normal gestational thyroid function

\*high = 90-95<sup>th</sup> percentile, as calculated by the SDQ (scores >90<sup>th</sup> percentile are clinically significant); very high>95<sup>th</sup> percentile, as calculated by the SDQ

<sup>†</sup>SDs calculated by Thapar and colleagues

<sup>^</sup>p<0.05 treated versus normal-GTF

<sup>^^</sup>p<0.05 over-treated versus untreated SGTF

<sup>^^^</sup> p< 0.01 over-treated versus untreated SGTF